





J. Chapman, Sc.

Painting.

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UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY

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AND ENRICHED WITH

PORTRAITS OF EMINENT AND LEARNED PERSONAGES, IN ALL AGES OF THE WORLD.

COMPILED, DIGESTED, AND ARRANGED,

BY JOHN WILKES, OF MILLAND HOUSE, IN THE COUNTY OF SUSSEX, ESQUIRE;

ASSISTED BY EMINENT SCHOLARS OF THE ENGLISH, SCOTCH, AND IRISH, UNIVERSITIES.

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Non audiendi sunt homines imperiti, qui humano ingenio majorem, vel inutilem, et rebus gerendis adversum, πολυμαθειαν criminantur. Est scilicet quædam Scientiarum cognatio et conciliatio; unde et Εγκυκλοπαιδειαν vocant Græci; ut in unâ perfectus dici nequeat, qui cæteras non attigerit. Morhofi Polyhist. l. i. c. i. f. i.

Those inexperienced persons, who make it a charge of accusation against variety and extensive learning, that it exceeds the compass of human ability, or is useless, or that it is an impediment to transacting business, deserve no attention. For there is between the Sciences a degree of natural and close connexion; from which the Greeks use the term "Encyclopædia;" so that no one can be perfect in any one Science, who has not attained to some knowledge of the rest.

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DESCRIPTION OF THE FRONTISPIECE ILLUSTRATING. PAINTING.

THE GRECIAN MAID (THE DAUGHTER OF DIBUTADES, AN EMINENT ARTIST IN POTTERY), AT THE LIGHT THROWN UPON HER LOVER BY THE TORCH OF THE GOD OF LOVE, TRACES THE OUTLINES OF HIS SHADOW ON THE WALL. THE GENIUS OF PAINTING, TO WHOM THIS CIRCUMSTANCE HAS GIVEN BIRTH, SOARS ALOFT, BEARING THE EMBLEMS OF THE ART. THE CORINTHIAN PILLARS ALLUDE TO THE COUNTRY WHERE THE SCENE TOOK PLACE; AND THE MOON IN HER DECLINE SHOWS THAT THE LOVER WAS ON THE POINT OF UNDERTAKING A JOURNEY.

ENCYCLOPÆDIA LONDINENSIS;

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O S I R I S.

OSI'RIS, a great deity of the Egyptians, son of Jupiter and Niobe. The ancients greatly differ in their opinions concerning this celebrated god; but they all agree that, as king of Egypt, he took particular care to civilize his subjects, to polish their morals, to give them good and salutary laws, and to teach them agriculture. After he had accomplished a reform at home, Osiris resolved to go and spread civilization in the other parts of the earth. He left his kingdom to the care of his wife Isis, and of her faithful minister Hermes or Mercury. The command of his troops at home was left to the trust of Hercules, a warlike officer. In his expedition, Osiris was accompanied by his brother Apollo, and by Anubis, Macedo, and Pan. His march was through Æthiopia, where his army was increased by the addition of the Satyrs, a hairy race of monsters, who made dancing and playing on musical instruments their chief study. He afterwards passed through Arabia, and visited the greatest part of the kingdoms of Asia and of Europe, where he enlightened the minds of men by introducing among them the worship of the gods, and a reverence for the wisdom of a Supreme Being. At his return home, Osiris found the minds of his subjects roused and agitated. His brother Typhon had raised seditions, and endeavoured to make himself popular. Osiris, whose sentiments were always of the most pacific nature, endeavoured to convince his brother of his ill conduct; but he fell a sacrifice to the attempt. Typhon murdered him in a secret apartment, and cut his body to pieces, which were divided among the associates of his guilt. Typhon, according to Plutarch, shut up his brother in a coffer, and threw him into the Nile. The enquiries of Isis discovered the body of her husband on the coasts of Phœnicia, where it had been conveyed by the waves; but Typhon stole it as it was carrying to Memphis, and he divided it among his companions, as was before observed. This cruelty incensed Isis: she revenged her husband's death; and, with her son ORUS, (see vol. xvii. p. 800.) defeated Typhon and the partisans of his conspiracy. She recovered the mangled pieces of her husband's body, (the genitals excepted, which the murderer had thrown into the sea;) and, to render him all the honour which his humanity deserved, she made as many statues of wax as there were mangled pieces of his body. Each statue contained a piece of the flesh of the dead monarch; and Isis, after she had summoned into her presence, one by one, the priests of all the different deities in her dominions, gave them each a statue, intimating that, in doing that, she had preferred them to all the other communities of Egypt; and she bound them by a solemn oath that they would keep secret that mark of her favour, and endeavour

to show their sense of it by establishing a form of worship, and paying divine honours to their prince. They were further directed to choose whatever animals they pleased, to represent the person and the divinity of Osiris; and they were enjoined to pay the greatest reverence to that representative of divinity, and to bury it, when dead, with the greatest solemnity. To render their establishment more popular, each sacerdotal body had a certain portion of land allotted to maintain them, and to defray the expenses which necessarily attended the sacrifices and ceremonial rites. As Osiris had particularly instructed his subjects in cultivating the ground, the priests chose the ox to represent him, and paid the most superstitious veneration to that animal. See APIS.

Osiris, according to the opinion of some mythologists, is the same as the Sun; and the adoration which is paid by different nations to Anubis, Bacchus, Dionysius, Jupiter, Pan, &c. is the same as that which Osiris received in the Egyptian temples. Isis also, after death, received divine honours as well as her husband; and, as the ox was the symbol of the sun, or Osiris, so the cow was the emblem of the moon, or Isis. Nothing can give a clearer idea of the power and greatness of Osiris than this inscription, which has been found on some ancient monuments: "Saturn, the youngest of all the gods, was my father. I am Osiris, who conducted a large and numerous army as far as the deserts of India, and travelled over the greatest part of the world, and visited the streams of the Ister, and the remote shores of the ocean, diffusing benevolence to all the inhabitants of the earth."

Some authors have alleged that Osiris was Joseph, and others maintain that he was Moses; whilst it is asserted by others, that this king of Egypt was more ancient than either, and that his worship was established in their time through all Egypt, since the Israelites imitated its ceremonies in the adoration of the golden calf. Bannier is of opinion, that Osiris is the same as Mizraim, the son of Ham, who peopled Egypt some time after the deluge, and who, after his death, was deified; and he is called by the ancients the son of Jupiter, because he was the son of Ham, or Hammon, whom he himself had acknowledged as a god. Marsham takes Osiris to have been Ham himself, known under the name of Menis, at the head of the dynasties which succeeded to the gods and demigods. Indeed, the learned in general allow, that Osiris was one of the first descendants of Noah by Ham, and that he governed Egypt, whither his father had repaired, and there founded a small kingdom, a few years after the dispersion which happened in the time of Peleg. Diodorus says, some think that Osiris is Serapis; others that he is Dionus;

nufus; others Pluto; many take him for Zeus, or Jupiter; and many for Pan. "This was an unnecessary embarrassment, (says Bryant;) for they were all titles of the same god."

Though the original Osiris was undoubtedly the sun, or the intelligence actuating the sun, yet there is reason to believe that there was a secondary Osiris, who at a very early period reigned in Egypt, and was deified after his death for the benefits he had rendered to his country. This is indeed so generally admitted, as to have occasioned great controversies among the learned respecting the time when he flourished, and whether he was the civilizer of rude barbarians, or the victorious sovereign of a polished nation. The illustrious Newton, it is well known, has adopted the latter opinion; and with much plausibility endeavoured to prove, that Osiris was the same with Sesostris, or Sefac: but it must be confessed, that his conclusion is contrary to all the most authentic records of antiquity; and that it would be easy, by the same mode of arguing, to give a show of identity to two persons universally known to have flourished in very distant ages. The annals of Egypt, as may be seen in the writings of Herodotus, Diodorus Siculus, Strabo, Plutarch, and others, who copied from those annals, expressly asserted the distinct personality of Osiris and Sesostris, and placed them in eras vastly distant from each other. Osiris, if any credit be due to those historians, was the founder of the Egyptian monarchy; and, as was customary in those days, having either received the name of the sun, or communicated his own to that luminary, was, after his death, deified, for the benefits which he had rendered to his country; and, being at first worshipped as a demigod, was, in process of time, advanced to full divinity, and con-founded with his heavenly godfather.

Since the above article was compiled, we have been favoured with an original communication on the same subject from another hand, with the drawings which appear on the annexed Engraving. Though it must necessarily cause some repetitions, perhaps some contradictions, yet we have thought it best to present it to our readers entire as we received it.

Clouds of obscurity and doubt hang so heavily over this Egyptian deity, that it is almost impossible to decide whether he was a god or a man, or whether he ever existed at all. Armies of ancient historians and mythographers, supported by their still more numerous auxiliaries, the commentators, with their lexicons and glossaries, muster very strong; but, as they, of course, never agree, the enquirers are sadly puzzled, and the subject becomes neutralized; that is to say, vanishes by degrees from their sight, and, like the diamond placed in the burning focus of concentrically-reflecting mirrors, loses all claim to substantiality. To reconcile them, and bring their various opinions to an indisputable thesis, would be a more than Herculean task, which we do not intend to undertake; but we shall endeavour to place in a clear point of view what has been said of Osiris, leaving each reader at liberty to adopt the explanation which best agrees with his respective taste.

1. According to Tacitus and others, Osiris was the most ancient divinity to whom the Egyptians paid the public and private honours of worship, (Tacit. Hist. lib. iv. c. 84.) and it appears that, by him, they understood in the abstract *Omne principium facultate humectandi præditum*; "all principle endowed with the faculty of creating moisture." This definition seems to blow our skiff far from the land of discovery; since we are soon to find Osiris identified with the sun. It seems that he was originally black, *Homo niger, μελαγχρους*; and this countenance the opinion of those who, from the name of Adam, (which in Hebrew means dark, brown, the colour of the earth out of which man was made by the plastic hand of the Almighty,) pretend that the first-created human being was a perfect Negro, and that the fair complexion of the

white is but an alteration from the original tint of the skin, occasioned by the sun having receded from the arctic pole, or having lost a great deal of its native heat.

Osiris was the husband, the brother, and the son, of Isis; a sort of enigma which the Egyptian priests had solved, in supposing that Isis was made pregnant by Osiris in the womb of their mother; an allegory which probably alluded to the heat of the sun operating upon the earth, and rendering it fit for agriculture. However Typhon, who is an emblem of excessive drought, killed Osiris, the principle of moisture, and cut his body into several pieces, which Isis, after long search, fortunately found, except the private parts, which she caused to be imitated and exposed to the veneration of the Egyptians, under the name of *Phallus*, and instituted the *Pamyia*, festivals in which was carried about this *simulacrum*, of a size three times as big as nature; *αἰδοῖον τετραπλασιον*. Plut. de Isid. and Osir. We must observe, that ancient writers assert that no sort of indecent idea was then attached to this *Agalma* or idol.

In an ancient medal described by Reusch, Osiris is represented with a long robe; in allusion to which, Tibullus, who relates his fate in a most elegant manner, says, *Fusa sed ad teneros lutea palla pedes*; and this deep-yellow gown was adopted to represent the golden blaze of the sun. (See the annexed Plate, fig. 1.) for Osiris was a symbol of the sun, according to other authors, while Isis was intended to represent the moon. Agreeable to this idea, we find him among ancient *Abraxæ*, under the disguise of a sparrow-hawk, or, at least, with the head of this bird upon a human body; (see fig. 2.) because the hawk was, on account of his fleetness through the air, and his excellent ken, dedicated to the god of day. But here we are puzzled again, on account of the crescent with which he is crested; but, to escape from this difficulty, commentators pretend that it is the *calathus*, or basket, a symbol of that fecundity which Osiris, as the sun, naturally causes. Osiris is also armed with a whip; some say, because he was entrusted with the government of departed souls; and, consequently, becomes Mercury, whose duty it was to conduct droves of "gibberish" ghosts (*Odyss.*) to the infernal regions; others, in allusion to his being the same as the great charioteer Apollo. Horus or Orus, and Harpocrates, have been often supposed to be the same as Osiris.

2. Thus far we have considered Osiris as an Egyptian god; and mythology has done her duty. But, in considering him as a man, history will not, we are afraid, assist us in any comfortable way. Tacitus, (Hist. v. 2.) who wrote a great deal of curious nonsense, in relating what was the opinion about the Jews in his time, roundly asserts that they left Egypt when Osiris and Isis were sitting on the throne of that kingdom. Osiris, therefore, must be the same as Pharaoh. The Romans hated the Egyptians, Chaldeans, and Jews, as we do gypsies and fortune-tellers; but they did also, as some of our contemporaries do, pay these soothsayers, and abuse them, as a sort of indemnification for the loss of their money. Lucan, lib. viii. v. 833. says:

Nos in templa tuam Romana accepimus Isin,
Semideosque canes, et Sistra jubentia luctus,
Et quem tu plangens hominem testaris Osirim.

"Your Isis we received into our Roman temples, with your demi-gods of canine breed, and your doleful Sistrum, and *Osiris*, whom, by mourning for him, you declare to be (not a god but) a man."

3. We are come now to the consideration of Osiris as being neither a god nor a man; and, indeed, he appears to have been but an hieroglyphic symbol of the Sun, according to Herodotus, Diodorus, and many others; whereas Plutarch takes him to be the image of the lunar orb. But this last opinion must be wrong, since we find him in contraposition with the Moon; and that, most indisputably, in a very curious and excellent bas-relief preserved in the Albani Villa at Rome. Our readers will be pleased with an exact description of this mystical piece of antiquity,

OSIRIS.



J. Chapman, Sculp.

1, Osiris from an Antique Gem. 2, Osiris Teracomorphos, Ant Gem. 3, A Bass-relief representing Osiris, Mithra, & Isis, from the Villa Albani at Rome. 4, Osiris as a mummy. 5, Osiris crowned with the lotus.

quity, represented at fig. 3. In this specimen of ancient sculpture, Mithra, with the Persian or Phrygian mitre on his head, presses with his right knee upon a subjugated bull, whose tail ends in an ear of corn; his flowing mantle seems violently agitated by the element of air, whilst the production of the earth and water seems to assail the ox. On one side, the head of Isis issues from a half-moon; on the other is the head of Osiris, or Apollo. A bird of the raven kind seems to peck at the principal figure in the group. The Bull certainly means Agriculture; but why, subdued by Mithra, who with one hand holds one of his ears and his mouth with the other, he should be teased by the assaults of a young lion's whelp, a serpent, a scorpion, and a crab, we must leave for others to guess. We thought at first, that these animals might allude, in a distant view, to the signs of the zodiac; but that view was so distant, that the objects became imperceptible. Is Mithra, the principal agent, a symbol of that life which pervades the whole of the universe; as Virgil says, *Spiritus intus alit*? Is the bull, then, an emblem of the teeming earth, which produces harvest under the influence of the sun and moon? Do the water-animals, the serpent, the scorpion, the crab, designate moisture in such an abundance as to injure the growth of corn? All these, we are afraid, will prove *un-solvable* questions. Here the thick veil of antiquity defeats the keenest and most eager curiosity of the man of knowledge and research, and lets him down upon the same form with the most ignorant of school-boys.

Whatever this curious bas-relievo may mean, it will not be uninteresting to compare it with one which has been lately published in the *Archæologia* of the Antiquarian Society. See vol. xix. Part I. It is supposed to represent the *fascinum*, or evil eye, mentioned by Theocritus and Virgil, (*Nescio quis teneros oculus mihi fascinat agnos. Ecl. iii. v. 103.*) and to have been sculptured in the time of Septimius Severus, when the worship of Mithra began to be widely diffused in the western parts of the Roman empire. The eye is properly set in the centre; Mithra is above, and his back is turned towards the spectator; on his right is a warrior, or *mirmillio*-gladiator, armed with a trident and a short sword; another figure was probably corresponding on the other side, but it is lost. Beneath the eye we find the snake, the raven, and the scorpion, a crane, and part of a lion, nearly in the same position as they are represented in our Engraving at fig. 3. This is supposed (by the Rev. Stephen Weston) to allude to the ceremonies observed at the initiation of candidates to the Mithraic society, a sort of Freemasonry of those times; and to indicate that the neophytes were to be transformed for a certain number of years into these animals before they could obtain the purity necessary for their admission. But probably the eye represents the sun, *oculus mundi*, the eye of the world; the figure called Mithra, at top, denotes Osiris, who is the same; and the supposed gladiator certainly indicates Typhon, who, having killed Osiris with his *sword*, throws his severed limbs in the sea, hinted at by the *trident* which he holds in his right hand: from which we may conclude, that this sculpture has the same intent as the Albani bas-relief, and does not refer to any sort of fascination, but merely to agricultural pursuits.

Fig. 4. is a half-length figure of Osiris as a mummy, holding in his right hand a whip, and in his left a crooked staff; on the chin is a beard, or an ornament resembling one, such as is found on a number of Egyptian figures. Fig. 5. Osiris standing naked; his head dressed in a kind of mitre, with the lotus; the right hand raised, the left holding his phallus. According to Plutarch, Osiris was often represented thus; and the Greek Cyllenian Mercury resembled him, according to Pausanias. Both these gems were in the superb cabinet of the late baron Philip de Stosch; but derived to us through the medium of Mr. Tassie's Museum, in Leicester-square, London.

OSITH, or OSYTH (St.) an island of England, at the mouth of the Blackwater-river, or Malden-water, in the

county of Essex, with a village. It is said to have changed its name from Chiche to that of St. Osith, who was a virgin murdered here by the Danes, and canonized. A monastery of black Augustine canons was founded here to her memory by Richard Beaver bishop of London, in the year 1120. St. Osith is eleven miles south-east of Colchester.

O'SIUS, Bishop of Cordova in Spain, was born in 257. He became the friend of Constantine, who, by his persuasions, convened, in 323, the council of Nice, where Osius presided. Under Constantius he was so much persecuted, that he turned Arian. It should however be mentioned, that he was then very aged, being almost 100 years old. Having made his recantation, he was permitted to return to his diocese, where he died soon after, extremely penitent, and in his last moments renounced the Arian heresy with great fervour.

O'SIUS (Felix), a learned Italian, was born at Milan in 1587, and became professor of rhetoric at Padua, where he died in 1631. His principal works are, 1. *Romano-Græcia*. 2. *Traçtatus de Sepulchris Epitaphiis Ethnicorum et Christianorum*. 3. *Elogia Scriptorum illustrium*; and several other works, in high estimation at the period in which he flourished.

OSKAWA', a river of Moravia, which runs into the March near Olmutz.

OSKIPA'RA, a town of Persian Armenia: thirty-six miles north-west of Kanja.

OS'KOL, a river of Russia, which runs into the Donetz near Iziun, in the government of Charkov.

OS'KOL, a town of Russia, in the government of Kurfk, on the river Oskol: sixty miles south-east of Kurfk. Lat. 50. 50. N. lon. 37. 14. E.

OSKO'VA, a mountain of Bosnia: twenty miles south-east of Serajo.

OSLAWA', a town of Moravia, in the circle of Brunn: twelve miles west of Brunn.

OSLAWA', a river of Moravia, which runs into the Iglau near Eybenschtz.

OSMA, a decayed town of Spain, in Old Castile, on the Duero, the see of a bishop: forty miles south-east of Burgos, and fifty-two north-north-east of Madrid. Lat. 41. 45. N. lon. 2. 58. W.

OS'MAN A'GA, a town of Walachia: twenty-two miles south-west of Galacz.

OS'MAN TOPAL, a distinguished Turkish general, was born in 1673. He was brought up among the youth of the seraglio destined to public employments; and, by his proficiency in learning languages and military exercises, and his amiable disposition, obtained the esteem of his masters. He was appointed superintendent of the carriages; and, in 1698 or 1699, he was sent to Cairo with a message from the emperor. In his passage the vessel in which he had embarked was attacked by an Algerine cruiser, and taken, after an action, in which Osman, bravely fighting, was dangerously wounded in the arm and thigh. The consequences of the latter wound rendered him lame for life, and gave him the surname of *Topal*, which signifies "halting." The prize was carried to Malta, where it was visited by Vincent Arniaud, a native of Marseilles, then port-captain. Osman, on his coming on-board, said to him, "Do a generous action: ransom me: you will be no loser by it." Arniaud, struck with this address, asked the captain who took him, what he demanded for the ransom of this slave: the answer was, a thousand sequins. Arniaud turned to Osman: "I never saw you before in my life; I know nothing of you; and you ask me to pay a thousand sequins for you, on your bare word." "Both of us (replied Osman) act in character. For myself, I am in fetters; and it is natural that I should employ every means to regain my liberty. You naturally distrust my faith. I have no security to give but my word, in which you have no reason to confide; if, however, you will run the risk, I repeat, you will not repent it." Impressed with the frankness of his words

and manner, Arniaud agreed with the captain for five hundred sequins, which he paid down, and, putting Osman on-board a bark of his own, sent him medical assistance, and every thing necessary for his recovery. When cured, Osman proposed to him to write to Constantinople for re-payment of what he had advanced, and desired to be dismissed upon his parole. Arniaud would not be generous by halves; but gave Osman permission to take the bark, and dispose of it as he pleased. He immediately set sail for Damietta, whence he ascended the Nile to Cairo. He there paid the captain one thousand sequins on account of his benefactor, and presented him with two rich pelisses for himself. He executed his commission, returned happily to Constantinople, and was himself the bearer of the news of his captivity. His gratitude to Arniaud terminated only with his life; and, during all the steps of his elevation, he never intermitted a correspondence of letters and presents with him. He even extended his beneficence to all the Frenchmen with whom he had any concern.

In 1715, war having been declared between the Turks and the Venetians, the grand vizier Ali, intending to invade the Morea, assembled his army in the neighbourhood of the isthmus of Corinth, and gave in charge to Osman to force the passage, which he effected, and at the same time carried the city of Corinth by storm. In recompense, he was made a bashaw of two tails. He acted as second at the siege of Corfu in 1716; and, when it was raised, he remained three days after the general, to favour the retreat of the troops, not withdrawing till they were in safety. He was appointed seraskier, or chief commander in the Morea, in 1722, on which occasion he requested Arniaud to send him one of his sons, that he might give him a lucrative employment. He next rose to the rank of a bashaw of three tails, and was nominated to the government of Romelia. In 1731, Osman was called to the high dignity of grand vizier. He caused Arniaud to be informed of this promotion, who, with his son, visited Constantinople on the occasion, bringing with him twelve Turkish captives whom he had ransomed. The vizier received them in the presence of the great officers of the empire, to whom he related the story of his benefactor's generosity to him, adding, "Where is the Mussulman capable of such an action?" He treated them with the most affectionate familiarity, and gave them substantial proofs of his kindness. Osman in 1732 was deposed, more to the regret of the people, to whom he had restored plenty, than to his own; and he felicitated himself that he left his place with a good conscience, and without forfeiting the regard of his sovereign. He set out for the government of Trebisonde, to which he had been appointed; but, by the way, he received an order to take the command of the Turkish army in Persia. In July 1733, he fought a bloody battle with Thomas Kouli-Khan, in which the Ottoman arms were victorious; and his success was rewarded with an accession of power and dignity. A second battle, however, in the following September, proved extremely disastrous to the Turks, and fatal to Osman, who was killed in the field by two musket-shots. *Frazer's Life of Nadir Shah, 1742.*

OSMAND/GIK, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the government of Sivas: 140 miles north-west of Sivas, and eighty-fourth of Sinob. Lat. 40.45. N. lon. 35.10. E.

OSMAN'THUS, *f.* in botany. See OLEA.

OSMI, a town of Daghestan: twenty-eight miles north-west of Desbund.

OS'MINGTON, a village in Dorsetshire, near Weymouth; where is a quarry of stone called Horfeffesh. On the south side of the church-yard was a burial-place for the anabaptists; now an orchard. The church is a large ancient structure, with some ancient grave-stones.

OSMI'TES, *f.* [from *οσμη*, Gr. odour; on account of its powerful sweet smell.] In botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia, fruticosa, natural order of compositae discoidae, (corymbiferae, *Juss.*) Generic cha-

raeters—Calyx: common imbricate, gibbous; with the innermost leaflets augmented at the tip. Corolla: compound radiate; corollets hermaphrodite, several in the disk; female in the ray. Proper of the hermaphrodite tubular, five-cleft; of the female ligulate, entire. Stamina: in the hermaphrodite; filaments five, very short; anther cylindrical, tubular. Pistillum: in the hermaphrodites; germen oblong; style filiform, the length of the corollet; stigma bifid. In the females, germen smaller; style filiform, the length of the corollet; stigma obsolete. Pericarpium: none; calyx unchanged. Seeds: in the hermaphrodites solitary, oblong; with scarcely any pappus, or only margined; the pappus obsolete and somewhat chaffy: in the females, rudiments commonly abortive. Receptacle: chaffy.—*Essential Character.* Calyx imbricate, scarious; corolla of the ray ligulate; down obsolete; receptacle chaffy. There are five species.

1. *Osmites bellidiastrum*, or hyssop-leaved osmites: leaves linear, fleshy; stems scarious. Branches woody and thickish. Leaves oblong, narrow, acute, nearly of the same form and size with those of hyssop, sessile all over the branches to the very flowers, which are several in number, at the ends of the stems and branches; the disk of them is yellow, and the ray white.

2. *Osmites dentata*, or toothed osmites: leaves obovate, toothed, villose. Adopted on the authority of Thunberg.

3. *Osmites camphorina*, or sweet-smelling osmites: leaves lanceolate, subserrate, toothed at the base. Stems quite simple, with one peduncled flower. Leaves like those of *Chrysanthemum leucanthemum*, or ox-eye daisy, tooth-serrate, naked, gradually smaller towards the top; they are sessile, alternate, clustered, tomentose. Ray of the corolla white; disk yellow. It has a very strong smell of camphor, whence both its names. See the Plate, fig. 1.

4. *Osmites asteriscoides*, or faint-smelling osmites: leaves lanceolate, obsoletely-ferrulate. Stem thick. Leaves alternate, thickly set, slightly embracing the stem. Flowers capitate, terminal, sessile, yellowish-white. The smell of camphor is not so strong in this species as in the preceding. See fig. 2.

5. *Osmites calycina*: leaves lanceolate, naked; calyxes scarious. Stem erect. Leaves scattered, erect, narrow-lanceolate, naked, or very little pubescent, nerved underneath. Flowers terminating, solitary, sessile; corolla yellow.

These are all shrubs, natives of the Cape of Good Hope. This last species is made a distinct genus, *Lapeyrousia*, by Thunberg and Willdenow.

OSMIUM, *f.* See the article MINERALOGY, vol. xv. p. 508.

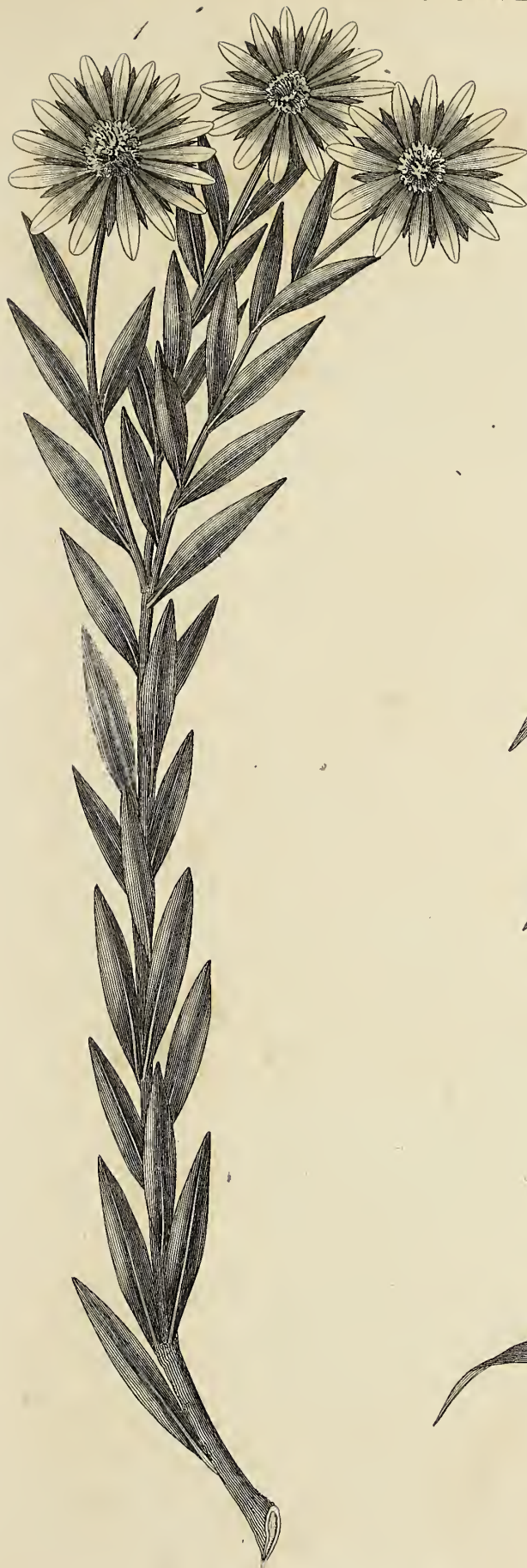
OSMOND (St.), was born in Normandy, of a noble family. In 1066 he followed the fortunes of William, who became the conqueror of England, and who made him the chancellor of this kingdom, and nominated him to the bishopric of Salisbury. He reformed the liturgy for his diocese, which form afterwards became general throughout the kingdom, under the name of the Salisbury Liturgy. He died in 1099, and was canonized by Calixtus III.

OSMONDS, *f.* in our old writers, a kind of iron anciently brought into England. It is mentioned in stat. 32 Hen. VIII. c. 14.

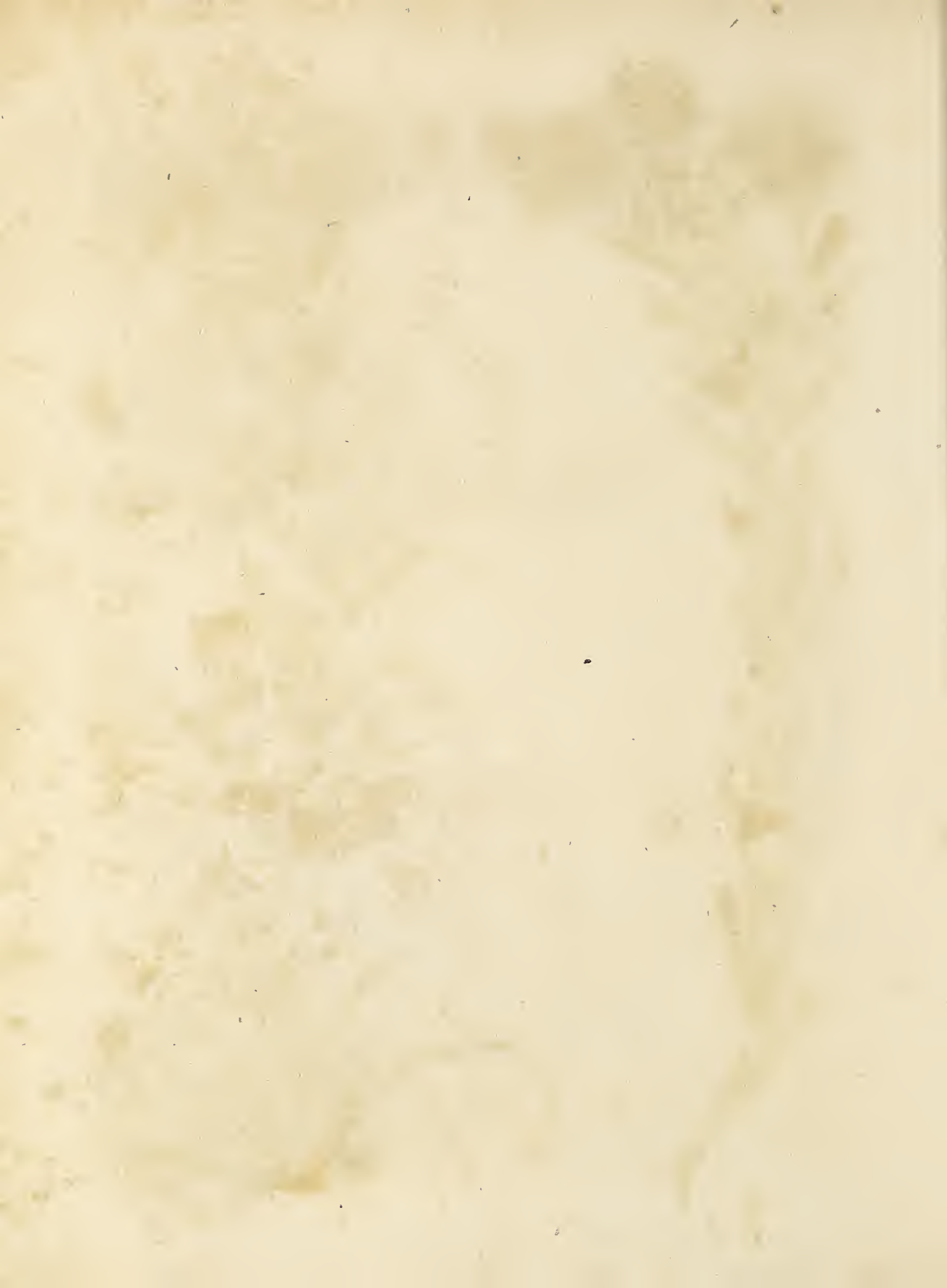
OSMONDSTON, or SCHOLE, a village in Norfolk, on the north side of the river Waveney, in the road from Ipswich to Norwich, it being on the borders of Suffolk. In the reign of Edward III. Schole was only a hamlet to Osmondston; but was so increased in the reign of Henry VIII. as to become the chief part of the town. Here is the White Hart, called the Schole-inn, formerly remarked for its fine carved-work, and images as big as the life. It is ninety-three miles from London.

OSMOR'ZSKOI, a town of Russia, in the government of Kolivan, on the Irtysh: 201 miles west-south-west of Kolivan. Lat. 53.15. N. lon. 76.14. E.

OSMUND,



1. Sweet-smelling Osmites 2. Taint-smelling Osmites.



OSMUND, or OSMUND ROYAL, *f.* A plant sometimes used in medicine. It grows upon bogs in divers parts of England. See OSMUNDA.

OSMUNDA, *f.* [a word of which no explanation has ever been given, and which Linnæus, in his *Philosophia Botanica*, mentions as one of those which can hardly be traced to any language. But *Osmund* is a Saxon proper name for a man, and expresses "domestic peace." Its application to the plant is found to have originated in England. The elegant *Filix florida*, or flowering fern, which first received it, and which is an aquatic plant, should seem, by Gerard's *Herbal*, a type or memorial of some "Osmund, a water-man," whose history had not come down, even to that old writer, but "whose heart (he says) was commemorated in the core of the root."] In botany, a genus of the class cryptogamia, order filices, natural order of filices, or ferns. Essential generic characters—Capsules distinct, disposed in a raceme in such a manner as to look the same way, or else heaped on the back of the pinna, or division of the frond, sessile, subglobular, opening transversely, without any ring. Seeds very many, extremely minute.

Some of the species (as *struthiopteris*, spicant, and *crispa*) do not belong to this genus, having the elastic ring common to the dorsiferous ferns, or ferns properly so called. *O. spicant* is referred to *Blechnum* by some, to *Acrostichum* by others, to *Struthiopteris* by Haller, Scopoli, and Weis. *O. crispa* is referred to *Pteris*; Villars makes it an *Acrostichum*; old authors, in general, name it an *Adiantum*. "Till the genera of ferns are better arranged, (says Mr. Professor Martyn,) I have left the twenty-seven species as I find them in the 14th edition of *Systema Vegetabilium*; though there is no doubt of the species named above being essentially different from the genuine *Osmundas*."

1. *Osmunda Zeylanica*: scape cauline, solitary; fronds verticillate, lanceolate, undivided. Plant a foot high, with a naked stem, terminated commonly by seven petioled undivided lanceolate leaves, placed in a ring, and erect; among them rises a cylindrical peduncled spike. Native of Ceylon and Amboyna.

2. *Osmunda lunaria*, or moon-wort: scape cauline, solitary; frond pinnate, solitary. Root fibrous. Plant three, four, or five, inches high; sometimes a little higher. The stem divides in the middle into two branches, one of which immediately puts forth leaflets on each side; the other supports a naked flowering raceme. Pinnas of the frond fleshy, crescent-shaped, semi-circular, and halbert-shaped, irregularly scalloped, from three to eight pairs, with an odd one. Spike, or rather panicle, from one to two inches long. The branches lean one way; two rows of globular capsules are affixed to them, green at first, but yellow when ripe, and bursting vertically from the top to the base; these capsules are divided by an annular zone, and contain numerous oval dust-like seeds.

Linnæus observes, that, within the base of the stem, early in the spring, we may find a complete rudiment of the next year's plant. Woodward remarks, that moon-wort so exactly resembles *Ophioglossum vulgatum* in habit and structure, that they ought by no means to be separated.

The difficulty, says Monf. Villars, of meeting with this plant, which is not common, and lies concealed among grass, the singularity of its leaves, and the superstitious reveries of Matthioli, who has attributed supernatural virtues to it, all conspire to make it sought after by philosophers, herbarists, and those who hunt after wonderful secrets and the philosopher's stone. After all, it is merely vulnerary, astringent, and a little mucilaginous. Native of most parts of Europe, in dry pastures; flowering from May to July. With us, near Linton and Chippenham, in Cambridgeshire; Colchester in Essex; Bury in Suffolk; Stratton-heath in Norfolk; Shotover-hill, and North-Leigh-heath, in Oxfordshire; Scadbury-park, Maidstone, Blackheath, and Chiffelhurst-common, in Kent; north

side of Bredon-hill, and near Stourbridge, in Worcestershire; near Bath in Somersetshire; Nottinghamshire; Lancashire; near Settle and Ingletton, in Yorkshire; in mountainous pastures of Westmoreland; in Scotland, on Ard-gath-hill, to the north of Linlithgow; near Dundonald's, two miles from Little Loch Broom, on the western coast of Ross-shire; in the Isle of Skye, &c. In Ireland, on the rising ground of a meadow, two hundred yards north of the second Lock of Lagan-canal; found by Mr. John Templeton, of Orange-grove, near Belfast.

There are several varieties of this curious little plant, with many leaves and spikes, and with the leaves cloven.

3. *Osmunda Virginica*: scape cauline, solitary; frond super-decompound. Native of North America.

4. *Osmunda ternata*: scape cauline, solitary; frond three-parted, super-decompound. Root composed of numerous filiform fibres in bundles, with few fibrils. Stipe simple at bottom, an inch high, and then dividing into a frond and a floriferous scape. Scape from the base of the petiole roundish, striated, erect, naked, smooth, twice as long as the frond, drooping and flowering at top. Native of Japan, about Nagasaki; flowering in October and November.

5. *Osmunda phyllitidis*: scapes cauline, in pairs; frond pinnate; stem even. Native of South America.

6. *Osmunda hirta*: scapes cauline, in pairs; frond pinnate; stem rough-haired. Root a bundle of small fibres. Stems six or seven, a foot high, brittle, green, with brown hairs. On the upper part of these are two opposite fronds, an inch and a half long, and half an inch wide, mucronate, toothed on the edge, green and smooth on the upper surface, but loaded with white hairs on the under. From the base of the fronds arise two scapes, half a foot long, slender, covered with a silky lanugo, and terminated by erect pyramidal racemes, two inches long. Found by Plumier in the island of Martinico.

7. *Osmunda hirsuta*: scapes cauline, in pairs; frond bipinnate, hirsute. This rises a foot or more, and is higher than the next species. In its higher spikes, which are double, it exactly agrees with it; but the pinnules are longer, narrower, not cut quite into the midrib, and of a paler-green colour, something, in their divisions, like the leaves of *Matricaria*. Native of Jamaica.

8. *Osmunda adiantifolia*: scapes cauline, in pairs; frond super-decompound. This is sometimes about a foot, but mostly six or seven inches, high, having a very slender green stalk, at first coming out of the earth of a dark colour. At about four inches from the ground, out of one side of the stalk arises one branch, on which twigs are set alternately, having several broad irregularly-figured roundish pinnules, sometimes deeply cut, at other times a little indented on the edges, of a pale-green colour, like *Adiantum album*, and having many furrows appearing radiated. From the axil of this branch rise two round small green stalks, two inches long, towards the tops of which are several small bunches of capsules, at first green, afterwards ferruginous. The root is covered with blackish hair, having several fibrils. Native of Jamaica, by the banks of Rio Cobre.

9. *Osmunda verticillata*: scapes radicate; racemes verticillate; frond super-decompound. 10. *Osmunda cervina*: scape radicate; frond pinnate; pinnas quite entire. 11. *Osmunda bipinnata*: scape radicate; frond pinnate; pinnas pinnatifid. Found in South America by Plumier.

12. *Osmunda peltata*: shoot creeping; fructifications pedate, distinct, roundish-halved, entire; fronds dichotomous, with linear segments. This is a native of Jamaica, where it was found by Swartz. According to the President of the Linnæan Society, it is a species of *Acrostichum*.

13. *Osmunda aurita*: scapes radicate; fronds bipinnate at bottom; pinnate at top; pinnas at the base eared upwards, serrate, convex, shining. Native of Jamaica, where it was found by Swartz.

C

14. *Osmunda*

14. *Osmunda filiculifolia*: scape radicate, paniced; frond super-decompound. Found in South America by Plumier.

15. *Osmunda regalis*, osmund-royal, or flowering fern: fronds bipinnate; racemiferous at the top. Root thick, externally fibrous, and covered with thin brown scales. Plant from two to four feet high, of a pleasant transparent green. Pinnules of the frond from six to ten pairs, with an odd one at the end, each about two inches long; lanceolate or linear-lanceolate, blunt; finely, but indistinctly, ferrated, divided by a midrib, from both sides of which arise numerous fine bifid dichotomous nerves, their ramifications capillary and parallel; the lower and younger ones often lobed at the base. The central leaves are terminated by a bipinnate branch of fructifications; the pinnules awl-shaped, and crowded with sessile clusters of globular capsules, green when young, but reddish-brown when ripe, and bursting vertically. The external leaves are barren. Native of several parts of Europe, and also of Virginia, in watery places, and bogs. It is the largest and handsomest of our British ferns; and is found near Yarmouth, and St. Faith's Newton-bogs near Norwich; in the New Forest; in Cornwall; in the isle of Anglesea; in several parts of Scotland; in Ireland, where it is called *bog-onion*, in Kirkistown-bog. In Gerard, the names are, water-fern, Osmund the Waterman, St. Christopher's herb. This is the only species of *Osmunda* which is noticed by Mr. Miller. A full idea of it will be acquired by inspecting the annexed Plate.

16. *Osmunda Claytoniana*, or Virginian osmunda: fronds pinnate; pinnae pinnatifid, closely-fructifying at top. Linnaeus remarks, that *O. regalis* connects the preceding with this, and that this connects the following species with that. Native of North America. Introduced in 1772 by Samuel Martin, M.D. It flowers in August.

17. *Osmunda Capensis*: fronds pinnate; pinnae cordate-lanceolate, crenulate. Frond leafy, more than a foot high, simply pinnate, with a chaffy stock. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

18. *Osmunda cinnamomea*, or woolly osmunda: frond pinnate; pinnae pinnatifid; scapes hirsute; racemes opposite, compound. Native of North America. Introduced in 1772 by Samuel Martin, M.D. It flowers in June.

19. *Osmunda struthiopteris*, bird's-nest, or Russian, osmunda: fronds pinnate; pinnae pinnatifid; fructifying scape distich. The fronds grow in a ring, forming a hollow disk, as in *Asplenium nidus* and *Scrophularia nodosa*, and thus affording an asylum to some of the amphibia, and a nest to birds; whence the name. It is a native of the north of Europe; and was cultivated in 1760 by Peter Collinson, esq. It is represented on Plate II.

20. *Osmunda lineata*: fronds pinnate, lanceolate; obliquely-cordate at the base, entire at the edge; the fructifying pinnae crenulate, scaly in the middle. 21. *Osmunda polypodioides*: fronds lanceolate, pinnatifid; segments confluent, entire, ascending, with raised dots at the edge; scape lanceolate; pinnae remote. Natives of Jamaica.

22. *Osmunda spicant*, or rough spleenwort: fronds lanceolate, pinnatifid; segments confluent, quite entire, parallel. Several barren leaves proceed from one fibrous root, disposed in a ring, half upright or reclining, from a span to a foot in length, resembling those of common polypody; the pinnae close, alternate, lanceolate, oblong, only about two lines broad, quite entire, curved upwards; the middle ones largest, an inch or an inch and a half in length; the upper and lower ones shorter, ribbed, the edge cartilaginous, very slightly notched, and bent backwards.

Dr. Withering, who in his second edition had made this fern an *Acrostichum*, in his third introduces it as a *Blechnum*, in compliance with the opinion of Dr. Smith and Mr. Robson, though, from the narrowness of the leaflets, it is not easy to determine whether the rows of capsules may more properly be considered as contiguous and

parallel to the midrib, which is the character of that genus, or as disposed along the edge of the leaf, which would refer it to the *Pteris*. It appears, however, from Hedwig's microscopical dissections, that the antheræ are found upon the midrib; and that circumstance seems sufficient to determine that the rows of capsules more properly belong to that than to the edge of the leaf, notwithstanding Hedwig himself has determined it to belong to the genus *Acrostichum*. Wherever botanists may at length agree to fix this fern, it is clear that it cannot be an *Osmunda*. It is a native of several parts of Europe, in woods and on moist heaths, producing its fructifications from July to September. It is not uncommon in Great Britain.

23. *Osmunda crispa*, curled osmunda, or, stone-fern: leaf-stalks from two to seven inches long, waved, green; leaf from an inch and a half to three inches long. Capsules surrounded with an elastic ring; and therefore this fern is not an *Osmunda*. Native of several parts of Europe, as Switzerland, Denmark, the south of France, Italy, and Great Britain. With us, in the county of Rutland; Cader Idris in Wales; Shap, near Kendal, &c. in the northern counties, on rocks, heaths, and old walls, common; on rocks and stones upon the highland mountains of Scotland. The fructifications are ripe in September.

24. *Osmunda Japonica*: frond bipinnate; pinnae cordate-lanceolate, ferrate. Stipe of the frond round, yellow, smooth. Frond bipinnate, with an odd leaflet. It differs from *O. regalis*, which it resembles very much, in having the fertile fronds distinct. Native of Japan; flowering in April and May.

25. *Osmunda lancea*: frond bipinnate; pinnae lanceolate, ferrate. This also has the fertile fronds distinct, with the flowering spikes super-decompound, ternate. Native of Japan; flowering in April and May.

26. *Osmunda discolor*: fronds pinnate; pinnae oblong, sharpish, entire, sessile, alternate, approximating. 27. *Osmunda procera*: fronds pinnate; pinnae remote, ovate-oblong, acuminate, ferrate, sessile. Natives of New Zealand.

Propagation and Culture. Osmund-royal, and the other European sorts, except moon-wort, will grow in a moist shady situation in gardens; but will not thrive very well without bog-earth. Moon-wort must have a dry situation. See *ACROSTICHUM*, *BLECHNUM*, *BOTRYCHUM*, *ONOCLEA*, and *PTERIS*.

OSNABRUCK TOWNSHIP, the fourth township in the county of Stormont, in Upper Canada, in ascending the river St. Lawrence. In front of this township is the rapid called the Long Sault.

OSNABURG, or **OSNABRUCK** (Bishopric of), a principality of Germany, bounded on the north and west by the bishopric of Munster, on the east by the counties of Ravensberg and Diepholz, and principality of Minden, and on the south by the county of Ravensberg; about forty miles long, and from sixteen to twenty-four wide. Almost half of this bishopric consists of heath-lands, which yield several sorts of turf and pasturage. The best spot in it lies about Quackenbruck, and is called *Artland*. This country produces as much rye as supplies the necessities of the inhabitants, and five hundred stills; but considerable quantities of wheat, oats, and barley, are imported from the principality of Minden, and the county of Schauenburg. The breeding of cattle is but small: out of East Friesland, during harvest-time in particular, large numbers of cattle are brought hither. In this country, too, is little wood; but, besides turf, it produces coal. Bishop Ernest Augustus II. established a salt-work at Dissen. Marble is also found here in plenty; and bishop Ernest opened a silver-mine, but this was afterwards abandoned. In the whole country are four principal towns, and three smaller, and about 20,000 fire-places or hearths; and in each of these two families frequently reside. The inhabitants are diligent and industrious. Of the peasants, about the number of 6000 go yearly to Holland, where they mow, till, cut turf, and do other work, for hire. The religion



Osmunda Royal, or Flowering Fern.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Indica.



Aφ A60

Monograms of Ostade.

Birds'-nest or Russian Osmunda.

J. R. S. S.

Engraved for the Long slip edition of the Osmunda.

religion of this country is partly Roman-catholic, and partly Lutheran. No Jews are tolerated.

The greatest and most beneficial occupation of the inhabitants of this country consists in the spinning of yarn, and the manufacturing a coarse kind of linen, which is conveyed by the Dutch, English, and Spaniards, to Guinea and America, and annually brings into this country 1,000,000 of rix-dollars.

The bishopric of Osnaburg is the first and oldest in all Westphalia, being founded by the emperor Charlemagne. In 1648, it was settled that this bishopric should alternately have a Roman-catholic and a Lutheran bishop, and that the chapter might choose and select the former, either from among themselves or elsewhere; but that they should always select the latter out of the house of Brunswick-Luneburg, and therein out of the posterity of duke George, and, on the full extinction of these, out of the posterity of duke Augustus. At the settling of the indemnities in 1802 at Ratisbon, it was agreed, that the bishopric should devolve to the house of Brunswick in perpetuity, on condition that the king of England, as elector of Hanover, should resign all pretensions to Hildesheim, Corvey, and Hoxter; and abandon his rights in the cities of Hamburg and Bremen; that he should cede the bailiwick of Wildhausen to the duke of Oldenburg, and his right of succession in the county of Sayn Altenkirchen to the prince of Nassau Usingen. By the peace of Tilfit, the new kingdom of Westphalia was announced, and Osnaburg annexed to it, and formed part of the department of the Weser. That short-lived kingdom being now defunct, the territory of Osnaburg has returned to the house of Brunswick.

OSNABURG, the chief city of the above-mentioned principality, has its name from a bridge over the river Hase, or Ose, which divides it into the Old and New Town; and stands seventy-five miles west of Hanover, and thirty north-east of Munster; being surrounded with walls and ditches, but commanded by a mountain within cannon-shot. It stands in a fine plain, and is adorned with several good buildings; and on the mountain there is an abbey. The magistracy of this city, which is re-chosen yearly on the 2d of January, is Lutheran; and the churches belong, some to the Lutherans, and some to the Papists. Both parties have the full and free exercise of their religion, whether the bishop be protestant or papist. The bishop's palace, called *Peterburgh*, was built by bishop Ernest Augustus, brother to king George I. It is well fortified, and separated from the town by a bridge. It is a hexagon, with a court in the middle, and at each corner a turret. In the town-house are still preserved the pictures of the plenipotentiaries that assisted at the conferences there for the famous treaty of Westphalia. In the treasury of the cathedral are still to be seen some ornaments given by Charlemagne; as also his crown, which is only of silver gilt, and his comb and baton, six feet in length, both of ivory; together with other curiosities. They have the best bread and beer that is to be met with in all Westphalia; and have a pretty good trade in bacon and linen, as also by brewing a palatable thick sort of beer called *buse*. This city is noted for a treaty between the emperor and the king of Sweden in 1648, wherein the affairs of the Protestants were regulated, which was a branch of the treaty of Westphalia. The town, with the rest of the principality, is subject to its bishop, who is a count of the empire, and by the treaty of Westphalia must be alternately a protestant and papist. The papist bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Cologne; but the protestant bishop is indeed a temporal prince, and always of the house of Brunswick. Frederic duke of York, brother to his majesty George IV. is the present bishop. The cathedral is in the hands of the Roman-catholics, with the church and monastery of the Dominicans in the old city, and the collegiate church of St. John in the new. The Protestants are masters of the great parochial church of St. Mary in the old city; and both religions have a

voice in the election of the magistrates. The bishop's palace is fortified like a castle; here it was that George I. was born, on the 28th of May, 1660, his father Ernest-Augustus being then bishop and prince of the place; and here also he died, in the night of the 10th of June, 1727; and, as some say, in the very room in which he was born.

Not far from this city are to be seen the ruins of an old church and castle called *Beelem*, which some say was built by king Wittekind, upon his conversion; and about two miles from it lies the monastery of Rulle, on the bank of a lake, so deep, that report says it could never yet be fathomed. This was the first town in Westphalia which received the Lutheran doctrine. Osnaburg is twenty-four miles north-north-east of Munster. Lat. 52. 17. N. lon. 7. 4. E.

OSNABURG, a township of North America, in the state of Ohio, and in Stark-county; containing 300 inhabitants.

OSNABURG HOUSE, a settlement or station of the Hudson's Bay Company in North America, situated at the north-east corner of lake St. Joseph, 100 miles west-by-south of Gloucester-house. Lat. 51. 0. N. lon. 90. 15. W.

OSNABURG ISLAND, a small island in the South Pacific Ocean, supposed to have been first discovered by Quiros, in 1606, who called it *Dezana*; Bougainville called it *Boudoir*; Capt. Wallis, who visited it in 1769, called it *Osnaburg*; the natives name it *Maita*. The form is nearly circular, and the land elevated, but no anchoring-place was found. In some parts it appeared covered with cocoa-nut and other trees, and in others nothing but a naked rock; the inhabitants were well clothed, and seemed to be of a humane disposition: they made use of canoes to visit the neighbouring islands: some hogs were seen. Captain Cook visited this island in the year 1769. Lat. 17. 51. S. lon. 147. 30. W.

OSNABURG ISLAND, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, discovered by Capt. Carteret in the year 1767. It is a small flat island, covered with trees. Lat. 22. S. lon. 141. 34. W.

OSNABURGS, *f.* White and brown coarse linens imported from Osnaburg in Germany. A cloth resembling them is manufactured in Angus in Scotland.

OSNEY. See the article OXFORD.

OSOKOL'SKO, a town of Russia, in the government of Archangel, on the river Mezen: 104 miles east-north-east of Archangel.

OSO'LA, a town of the island of Sardinia: fourteen miles north-north-east of Sassari.

OSONA'LA, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Ultra: ten miles east-south-east of Aquila.

OSO'PO, a fortress of Italy, in Friuli: five miles west of Gemona, and fifteen north-west of Udina.

OSO'RIO (Jerome), a learned Portuguese prelate, who flourished in the sixteenth century. Flattery and sabbie deduce the family of the Oforios from no less a person than Osiris, who figures in the fabulous history of Portugal. Without going back to the demigods, Jerome was descended by both his parents from illustrious families, and born at Lisbon in the year 1506. From early childhood he discovered a strong inclination for learning, and astonished his masters by the rapidity with which he became such a proficient in the Latin language as to be able to converse in it. At the age of thirteen he was sent to the university of Salamanca, where he perfected himself in Latin and Greek, and afterwards, by the command of his parents, applied for some time to the study of the civil law, carefully reading the best writers in that faculty. When he was nineteen years old he removed to Paris, where he studied dialectics and natural philosophy under the celebrated professors in that city. From Paris Oforio went to Bologna, where he devoted himself entirely to the study of divinity, the sacred scriptures, and the Hebrew language. The character which he here acquired for profound skill in theological and biblical knowledge, induced king John, upon Oforio's return to his native

native country, to appoint him professor of sacred literature at the university of Coimbra, where he explained the prophet Isaiah, and the Epistle of St. Paul to the Romans, with great applause. Some time afterwards he was ordained priest, when the infant Don Louis presented him to the benefice of Tavara. Not long after this, cardinal Henry, brother to the king, and archbishop of Evora, made him archdeacon of his church; upon which occasion he voluntarily resigned his benefice of Tavara, that he might afford no ground for suspicion that he had devoted himself to the ecclesiastical profession from interested motives. He retained this post till Catharine of Austria, the widow of king John, and regent of the kingdom during the minority of her grandson Sebastian, promoted him to the bishopric of Sylves. He now applied to the government of his diocese with exemplary diligence and fidelity. Every third year he regularly visited the whole of it, exercising the strictest vigilance over the characters and morals of his clergy; and, where his admonitions failed in correcting the profligate and insufficient, supplying their places with well-informed and worthy successors. Instead of accumulating his revenues, or expending them in needless ostentation, he devoted the whole, beyond what his frugal and necessary demands required, to useful and benevolent purposes. His palace was the resort of learned and worthy men, whom he supported and encouraged in their honourable pursuits. He was free of access to all; and the poor and afflicted found in him a kind adviser and generous benefactor.

When king Sebastian arrived at his majority, he determined to attempt the conquest of Africa, against which Oforio earnestly admonished and humbly entreated him, foreseeing and predicting the disastrous consequences that would necessarily result from it. When he found his remonstrances unavailing, he went under various pretences to Rome, that he might not be a witness to the calamities which he was sensible were impending over his country. He was favourably and respectfully received by Gregory XIII. Sebastian, though he would not follow the advice of this prelate, could not bear that he should be absent from his country, and recalled him to Portugal within twelve months of his departure. He returned, and almost immediately received the fatal intelligence of the destruction of his sovereign and his army in the battle of Alcazar against the Moors. (See the article PORTUGAL.) We cannot in this place enter into the miseries in which the consequences of that battle involved Portugal, particularly after the death of king Henry. On this last event, Oforio, always the friend of peace, advised submission to the claims of Philip II. king of Spain to the crown, and he laboured to preserve the people of his diocese from taking a part in the tumults which distracted and laid waste the kingdom. These disorders he took so much to heart, that it is said he died with grief, in the year 1580, when about the age of seventy.

Dupin gives him the following character as an author: "He wrote with ease and eloquence. He is entitled to the denomination of the *Portuguese Cicero*, since no writer has more closely imitated that Roman, whether we regard his style, his choice of subjects, or his manner of treating them." Notwithstanding the eulogium of this critic on his style, our countryman Bacon condemns "the weak and waterish vein" of Oforio. His works are numerous, partly political and partly theological. The latter chiefly consisted of Paraphrases on Job, the Book of Psalms, the Book of Wisdom, and Isaiah; and Commentaries upon several of the books of the Old Testament. These works, with twenty-one Sermons, were collected together, and published at Rome in 1592, in four volumes, by his nephew Jerome, canon of Evora, who also wrote, 1. A Life of his uncle, which he prefixed to the collection of his works. 2. Notationes in Hieronymi Oforii Paraphrasim Psalmorum, printed in the third volume of the above-named collection; and said by Dupin to con-

tain valuable critical observations on the Hebrew text. 3. Paraphrasis et Commentaria in Ecclesiastem nunc primum edita; et Paraphrasis in Canticum Canticorum et in ipsum recens auctæ Notationes, 1611, 4to.

"The work (says Mr. Southey) by which the bishop of Sylves is best known, is his history *De Rebus Emmanuelis, Lusitanæ Regis, &c.* of which a new edition appeared so lately as 1791, at Coimbra, in 3 vols. 12mo. Of this work, which is beautifully printed, there is a French translation, and also an English one. The kings of Portugal, as their history was more splendid than that of all others, seem to have been of all sovereigns most desirous that it should be fully related and extensively known. Not content therefore with the works of Castanheda, Bras d'Albuquerque, and Joam de Barros, they would have their eastern conquests chronicled in Latin, that all learned men might become familiar with triumphs so glorious. Pursuant to the desire, two histories in Latin of the discovery of India, and the conquests there, appeared about the same time, one by the Jesuit Maffæus, and the other this work by Oforio. Oforio's library was carried off by the English fleet on their return from Cadiz in 1596. The Bodleian was opened the ensuing year; and Essex gave sir Thomas Bodley a considerable part of this collection. *Gen. Biog.*

OSOR'NO, a town of Chili, situated in a district abounding in gold mines: forty miles south-east of Valdivia. Lat. 40. S. lon. 73. 40. W.

OSPRAY, or OSPREY, *f.* [corrupted from *osifragus*, Lat. *Johnson*.—Serenius derives it from the Goth. *os*, the mouth of a river, and *prey*.] The sea-eagle. See FALCO osifragus, vol. vii.—Among the fowls that shall not be eaten, are the eagle, the osifrage, and the *ospray*. *Lev. xi. 13.*

I think he'll be to Rome,
As is the *ospray* to the fish, who takes it
By sovereignty of nature. *Shakespeare's Coriolanus.*

OSPRINGE. See FEVERSHAM, vol. vii. p. 343.

OS'QUES, or OP'QUES, a people of Italy, called also Ausonians, or Aurones; and thought to be the most ancient inhabitants of Italy, and the original possessors of Herculeum. A Grecian colony which established itself upon the neighbouring coasts, and founded the city of Cuma, dispossessed the Osques of all the coast on the gulf of Naples, and consequently of Herculeum. See *Gen. Mag.* for 1755. p. 123.

OSRHOENE, in ancient geography, a small state of Asia, which occupied the northern and most fertile part of Mesopotamia, between the Euphrates and the Tigris. Under the Seleucidæ, a part of this country took the name of *Mygdonia*, with the title of kingdom. Polybius speaks of this kingdom in connection with Antiochus the Great. The capital of this kingdom was EDESSA; which see. The feeble sovereigns of Osrhoene, placed on the dangerous verge of two contending empires, were attached from inclination to the Parthian cause; but the superior power of Rome exacted from them a reluctant homage, which is still attested by their medals. After the conclusion of the Parthian war under Marcus, it was judged prudent to secure some substantial pledges of their doubtful fidelity. Forts were constructed in several parts of the country, and a Roman garrison was fixed in the strong town of Nisibis. During the troubles that followed the death of Commodus, the princes of Osrhoene attempted to shake off the yoke; but the stern policy of Severus confirmed their dependence, and the perfidy of Caracalla completed the easy conquest. Abgarus, the last king of Edessa, (A.D. 216.) was sent in chains to Rome, his dominions reduced into a province, and his capital dignified with the rank of colony; and thus the Romans, about ten years before the fall of the Parthian monarchy, obtained a firm and permanent establishment beyond the Euphrates.

OSRUSH'NAH, a town of Turkestan, and capital of a district,

a district, or province, to which it gives name: sixty-five miles north-north-east of Samarcand, and seventy south-west of Kojend. Lat. 40. 30. N. lon. 64. 40. E.

OSSA, a lofty mountain of Thessaly, near the Peneus, which runs between this mountain and Olympus; famous in the fabulous story of the giants; (Homer, Virgil, Horace, Seneca, Ovid.) The bending and unbending of its pines, on the blowing of a strong north wind, formed a clashing sound like thunder; (Lucan.) It was once the residence of the Centaurs, and was formerly joined to Mount Olympus; but Hercules, as some report, separated them, and made between them the celebrated valley of Tempè. This separation of the two mountains was more probably effected by an earthquake, which happened about 1885 years before the Christian era. Its greatest celebrity arises from its being one of those mountains which the giants in their wars against the gods heaped up one on the other, to scale the heavens with more facility.

OSSA, a river of Prussia, which runs into the Vistula fifteen miles below Culm.

OSSABAW', an island in the Atlantic, near the coast of Georgia, twenty miles in circumference. Lat. 31. 42. N. lon. 81. 17. W.

OSSABAW' SOUND, a channel of the Atlantic, between the islands of Great Waffaw and Ossabaw. Lat. 31. 43. N. lon. 81. 12. W.

OSSAPE'E. See OSSIPPEE.

OSSA'RA, a town of Hindoostan, in Mohurbunge: eighteen miles north of Harriopour.

OSSAT (Arnaud d'), Cardinal, was born in 1536, of parents in humble life, at a village near Auch: he was left an orphan at an early age, and rose in the world wholly by his own merit and industry. Entering into the service of a young nobleman of the house of Marca, he studied with him, and in time became his preceptor. In 1559 he took his pupil, with two other young persons, to Paris, where he carefully superintended their education, at the same time taking care not to neglect his own studies. In philosophy he was a disciple of Ramus, and composed a work in his master's defence. After he had made what he deemed sufficient progress in his legal studies, he practised at the bar in Paris, and was greatly admired for his masculine eloquence. He obtained the post of a counsellor in the presidial court of Melun: after this he went with Paul de Foix, archbishop of Toulouse, who had been nominated by Henry III. ambassador to the court of Rome, as his secretary. After the death of that prelate, in 1584, Ossat took holy orders, and was received into the house of cardinal d'Este. The secretary of state, Villeroy, made him chargé d'affaires for the French court; and in this quality, at the beginning of Henry IVth's reign, he was highly serviceable in promoting the reconciliation of that king with the see of Rome. In 1598 he was honoured with a cardinal's hat; and, in three years afterwards, was made bishop of Bayeux. He died in 1604. An eminent French writer gives him the following character: "He was a man of great penetration, and singularly prudent and circumspect in the management of affairs; so that it is said of him, that he never made a false step." He left behind him a great number of Letters relative to the negotiations in which he was engaged, which are reckoned models of political sagacity. The best edition is that of Amelot de la Houssaye, in 1698, in two vols. 4to. and five vols. 12mo.

OSSEGG, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Leitmeritz: eighteen miles north-north-west of Leitmeritz.

OSS'LEET, *f.* [Fr. a little bone.] A very hard excrescence, resembling a little bone, on the inside of the knee, (and never on the outside,) appearing to be of the same substance with the rest of the knee, and only distinguishable from the knee by its extending a little lower.

OSS'EN, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Oels: two miles south-west of Mittelwald.

OSSEN'GA, a town of Italy, in the Veronese: six miles north of Verona.

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OSS'EOUS, *adj.* [offeus, Lat.] Bony; resembling a bone. —To pursue the *osseous* and solid part of goodness, which gives stability and rectitude to all the rest. *Brown's Chr. Morals.*—A medullary, and consequently *osseous*, substance. *Biblioth. Bibl.*

OSS'ETT, a village in the West Riding of Yorkshire, containing about 3500 inhabitants, of whom 1000 are employed in trade and manufactures. It is three miles west of Wakefield.

OSS'ERBACH, a river of Germany, which runs into the Wichra near Frobburg, in the margravate of Meissen.

OSSI'ACH, a town of the duchy of Carinthia, on the lake Ossiacher: four miles south-west of Feltkirchen.

OSSI'ACHER SEE', a lake of Carinthia, four miles long and two wide: four miles north-east of Villach.

OSS'IAN, [*O'Sian*, Irish and Gothic, the Man of Song.] A Celtic bard, who, as well as Fingal and other heroes whom he is said to have celebrated in his poems, is claimed both by the Highlanders of Scotland and by the Irish. It is highly probable, that the name of Ossian and his heroes would have been confined to these people, had not Macpherson, about the middle of the last century, published two volumes of poems, as the genuine offspring of this Celtic bard. The circumstances which he stated as having attended the discovery of these poems, and the nature and description of the poems themselves, excited strong suspicions of their authenticity, almost as soon as they were given to the world: the controversy to which these suspicions gave birth, contributed to render them known and popular; however, it would be unfair to deny, that their intrinsic merits, though certainly very much misrepresented and overrated, also obtained them popular applause and favour. There were also other circumstances, besides the singular and suspicious nature of their discovery and publication, and the poetic merit which they possessed, or were supposed to possess, which fixed on them the curiosity and interest of men of philosophy and literature. They exhibited a most uncommon and unparalleled picture of human manners; a picture which, if it were drawn from nature, would confound all the principles which philosophy had deduced from the history of mankind: they also related events, not easily reconcilable to the authenticated history of the country where the scene was laid. On these accounts, the interest of almost all classes was fixed upon them: they were admired by the lovers of poetry, who, in their admiration, had not time or inclination to investigate their authenticity; while, by those who viewed them more coolly and philosophically, and who could not permit themselves to admire before they were convinced of their authenticity, strong and various objections were urged against their claim to be considered as the poems of Ossian. The interest which they excited was still farther increased, by the Highlanders taking up the question, both respecting their authenticity and their poetical merits, as one in which their honour and pride were immediately and deeply concerned: they could not tamely or quietly abandon the belief that Ossian wrote these poems; and, when Macpherson was charged with having forged them, the firm conviction they had expressed of their authenticity, joined to the disgrace which, through Macpherson, they thought would fall on themselves, rendered them most obstinate in their original belief.

Whether Ossian and his heroes were Scotch or Irish—the period during which they flourished—and the controversy respecting the authenticity of the poems—are points to which more attention has been given than to the real merits of the compositions themselves.

Although the claims of the Highlanders to Ossian and his heroes have been more urgent and repeated than those of the Irish, there is good reason for believing that the latter possess the greatest justice. There are numberless traditions in Ireland concerning the *Fions*, a species of militia inhabiting Leinster, and commanded by Fin Mac Coul: that this Fin Mac Coul is the same as the Fingal

of Macpherson is clear, from the identic name of the father Cowal, the son Oisín, and the grandson Oskir; and from the old Scotch poets, who sometimes call him Fingal, and sometimes Fin Mac Coul. Among the warriors of this ancient militia, the Irish traditions and histories hand down the names of Goll Mac Morn, (Gaul the son of Morni,) of Osgur the son of Oisín, evidently the Oisían of Macpherson, of Fergus O'Fillan, and other warriors. Ossian himself, also, is celebrated among the Fions. Besides these heroes, Irish traditions and ancient manuscripts mention a military order in Ulster of earlier date, the chief ornament and support of whom was Cuchullin. This evidence undoubtedly ascribes Ossian and his heroes to Ireland; but it is farther corroborated, even by the traditions and old songs and poems of the Highlands; though the passages in the latter which describe Ireland as the native country of Ossian, Fingal, &c. have been altered for controversial purposes: it is needless to cite all these passages. The following, from Erse poems, collected in the Highlands by Dr. Young bishop of Clonmore, and published in the first volume of the Irish Transactions, may suffice. In the combat of Con the son of Dargo, and Gaul son of Morne, the Fions are called "the noble Fions of Ireland:" this, in the Perth edition of this poem, is changed into "the nobles and great chieftains." In the combat of Osgar, and Illan son of the king of Spain, for "the Fions of Ireland," the Perth edition substitutes the "noble Fions." In a poem called the Death of Oscar, of which Macpherson made use in the first book of Temora, Ireland is expressly mentioned as the country of that prince: "The death of Oscar grieved my heart; our loss is great in the prince of the chiefs of Ireland:" and, in another poem on this subject, still current in the Highlands, Oscar is called the "prince of Ireland: the prince of the heroes of fertile Ireland." Even so late as the time of Gawin Douglas, Ireland seems to have been regarded as the country of Fingal and the other heroes of Ossian:

Great Gow Mac Morn, and Fin Mac Coul, and how
They should be gods in Ireland, as men say.

There is another circumstance, which considerably strengthens the opinion that the Fions were natives of Ireland. No Highlander ever heard of *Selma*, except through the poems published by Macpherson; whereas *Almhuin* is pointed out by every old Irishman as the abode of Fingal: the name of this place occurs frequently in the poems which were collected in the Highlands by Dr. Young; it is always mentioned as the palace of Fingal; neither Selma, nor any other place of residence, is given in these poems to this hero; and it is worthy of remark, that Macpherson, in the use he has made of these poems, has either omitted altogether the name of Almhuin, in order that no trace of Fingal's real country might exist, or changed it into *Albin*, in order to countenance the idea that he was a native of Scotland; as will appear from the following passages: "Greater love seized all the heroes of Fin of Almhuin." On this passage Dr. Young remarks: "The palace of Fin Mac Cumhal in Leinster, was seated on the summit of the hill of Allen, or rather, as the natives of that country pronounce it, Allowin: the village and bog of Allen have thence derived their name. There are still the remains of some trenches on the top of the hill, where Fin Mac Cumhal and his Fions were wont to celebrate their feasts. The country hereabouts abounds in wonderful tales of the exploits of these ancient heroes. These two lines are omitted in the Perth edition." Irish Transactions, i. 76.

In the Dublin copy of the poem on the invasion of Ireland by Erragon, which Macpherson appears to have made use of in his battle of Lora, these words occur: "To Almhuin in Leinster, the residence of the Fions, they took their voyage across the sea;" in this place Macpherson has substituted the word *Albin*, though, as Dr. Young remarks, there can be no excuse for this alteration, "as the king of Lochlin is represented steering his fleet boldly

to the coasts of Ireland, and challenging the heroes of Innisfail. The infidelity therefore of the queen of Lochlin could not be said to have been the cause of spilling Scottish blood, since the scene of the whole transaction is laid in Ireland, and they are the heroes of Innisfail who fell in battle."

As therefore the Irish traditions respecting the Fions are uniform and consistent; as, even in the poems which celebrate their exploits, and which are current and popular in the Highlands, many passages occur, in which Ireland is expressly mentioned as their native country; and as, besides, the palace of Fingal is a place not known in the Highlands, but is still pointed out, at least by similarity of name, in Ireland, we are justified in concluding that Ossian and his heroes were natives of Ireland. This conclusion will be still farther strengthened, if we examine the vague and inconsistent notices which Scotch tradition and history records of Ossian and his heroes. Indeed, in Scottish history they were never heard of till Bruce claimed them as of Scotch extraction; for, in the passages quoted by the Highland Society (in their Report on the Poems of Ossian), Fingal, and the other heroes of that bard, are mentioned, without any reference to the country of which they were natives. The Highland Society lay great stress on the proverbs which are current in the Highlands respecting Ossian, and the names of places corresponding with the names of his heroes. *Ossian dale*, blind Ossian, is a person as well known there as strong Sampson, or wise Solomon: the very boys, in their sports, cry out for fair play, "the equal combat of the Fingalians:" and "Ossian, the last of his race," is proverbial, to signify a man who has had the misfortune to survive his kindred. Old people (says Mrs. Grant) can very well remember, before Mr. Macpherson ever thought of translating these remains, when many comparisons and allusions to be found in them were as current as Scripture-quotations in the last age among the peasants of the west. "She is as beautiful as Agandecca, the daughter of the snow; she is musical as Malvina; he is as forlorn as Ossian after the departure of the Fingalians; such a one is alert and nimble as Cuchullin:" were phrases in common use. Whatever embellishments or whatever anachronisms the injudicious vanity of a translator may have grafted on these poems, no person who lived in the country of their reputed author ever doubted their existence or antiquity: there every stream and mountain, every tale, song, or adage, retained some traces of the generous hero, or the mournful bard. And, in answer to the queries which were transmitted by the Highland Society, several of their correspondents mentioned the names of various places in their neighbourhood, tending to show the universal ancient traditionary belief of the existence of Fingal and his heroes. "Among many others, were enumerated the well-known cave of Staffa, first made known by the description of sir Joseph Banks; the whirlpool, or gulf, set down in Blair's Atlas Scotiæ, published A. D. 1662, called *Coire Fin Mac Coul*, or the Whirlpool of Fion son of Comhal; and the hill in the isle of Sky, known by the name of *Ait Suidh Fhinn*, or Fingal's Seat. Indeed, there are few districts in the north-west of Scotland, where such instances may not be found." Report on the Poems of Ossian. Poems by Mrs. Grant of Laggan.

But all these circumstances, even when collected and taken together, do not amount to a proof that Ossian and his heroes were natives of the Highlands of Scotland: they merely prove the antiquity of the tradition and belief respecting them. In Ireland, on the other hand, there are not only similar proverbial and local notices (if the expression may be allowed) of Ossian and his heroes, but there is historical evidence that the Fions were Irish, and the palace of their chief is still recognised and pointed out. None of the traditions, or genuine poems, preserved in the Highlands, which have reference to them, name or claim them as natives of that country; whereas, in several passages of the latter, they are clearly and expressly declared to have been natives of Ireland, and to have re-

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sided there, and there to have carried on their military exploits. But it may be asked, how happens it, if Ossian and his heroes were Irish, that the tradition of them is so strong and prevalent in the Highlands, the proverbial expressions relating to them so marked and numerous, and the places named after them so common. The solution of this difficulty is very easy: it is well known that, at the period when the Fions lived, the intercourse between that part of Ireland where they are said to have resided, and the Highlands of Scotland, was frequent; and it is also highly probable, as will afterwards be shown, that an Irish colony, nearly at, or immediately subsequent to, this period, passed over to that part of the Highlands where the traditions and notices of Ossian are most commonly met with.

It is not very easy accurately and satisfactorily to fix the period when Fingal and Ossian flourished: the era which Macpherson assigns them must be given up. Later Irish manuscripts, traditions, and poems, both in Ireland and the Highlands, represent Ossian as contemporary with St. Patrick; but, if we may depend on the account of the Irish militias of Ulster and Leinster, Fingal must have preceded St. Patrick nearly two centuries; and, consequently, his son Ossian could not have been contemporary with him. According to the Irish annals (on the authenticity of which, however, much stress ought not to be laid), Fingal flourished under Cormac O'Cuin, about the year 254. That Ossian was not contemporary with St. Patrick, is, however, most satisfactorily proved from Jocelin, a writer of the twelfth century, in his life of that saint, who places Fin Mac Coul above a hundred years before him. Ossian and his heroes may therefore be placed about the end of the third and the beginning of the fourth century; and it may be inferred, that all poems that refer them to a later period, are not the genuine poems of Ossian. It will be proper to keep this remark in our recollection when we come to discuss the authenticity of the poems which have been ascribed to this bard.

There are scarcely any notices respecting these poems to be found in old authors who treat either of Ireland or of Scotland: the bards or *seanachies* of the latter country do not trace up their kings to the Fions, or heroes of Fingal, but to the Dalriadic monarchs. At the coronation of Alexander III. a Highland genealogist is introduced by Fordun to recite the royal pedigree; but, instead of ascending from Fergus Mac Erth, to Erth Congal, Fergus, Fingal, and from thence, according to Ossian, to Comhal, Trahal, and Trenmor, he proceeds through the whole race to Fergus I. a sufficient proof that there was no tradition then of "the six kings of Morven," nor any poems which treated of the exploits of Fingal and his heroes. Had these poems existed in the time of Monro dean of the Isles, he would have appealed to them in his genealogy of the clans. Buchanan indeed, in his account of the family of Buchanan, mentions the militia of Fin, and speaks of "rude rimes," on the actions of Fin Mac Coul, as retained by the Irish and Scottish Highlanders. There is, however, a passage in bishop Carswell's introduction to his translation of the Forms of Prayer into Gaelic, printed at Edinburgh in the year 1567, which is quoted in the Report of the Highland Society, in order to give an idea of the general impression and delight which the recital of the poems or ballads (of Ossian) produced among the inhabitants of the Highlands. In this passage the bishop complains, that "great is the blindness and sinful darkness, and ignorance, and evil design, of such as teach, and write, and cultivate, the Gaelic language, that, with a view of obtaining for themselves the vain reward of this world, they are more desirous and more accustomed to *compose* vain, tempting, lying, worldly histories, concerning the *Tuatha de dannan*, and concerning warriors and champions, and Fingal the son of Cumhall, with his heroes, and concerning many others which I will not at present enumerate, than to write, and teach, and maintain, the faithful word of God, and of the perfect way of truth." Now this passage, cited by the Highland Society,

in order to prove the currency and popularity of Ossian's poems, actually proves, that the bards were accustomed, in the time of bishop Carswell, to *compose* poems concerning Fingal, which poems were probably in subsequent ages considered as the genuine poems of Ossian.

The first person who seems to have conceived the idea of collecting the poems and ballads of the Highlands, was a young man, Jerome Stone of Dunkeld, who had acquired a knowledge of the Gaelic language. Of one of the poems which he collected he published a translation in rhyme, in the Scotch Magazine for January 1756. Nearly about the same time, Mr. Pope, minister of Reay in Caithness, entertained the design of making a collection of the ancient poetry of the Highlands; but, in consequence of the death of the gentleman who engaged with him in this undertaking, he seems to have dropped it very soon.

The next collector of Gaelic poetry was Mr. James Macpherson. In the year 1759, Mr. Home, the author of Douglas, met him at Moffat; in the course of a conversation on the manners of the Highlands, Macpherson informed him that one of their favourite amusements "was to listen to the tales and compositions of their ancient bards, which he described as containing much pathos and poetical imagery; and, at Mr. Home's desire, he translated some fragments which his memory served him to recollect. The beauty of these fragments struck Mr. Home, and his friends at Moffat, to whom he communicated, them so forcibly, that they prevailed on Mr. Macpherson, who was rather averse to the undertaking, to publish them in a small volume at Edinburgh, of which they agreed to superintend the publication, and defray the expense." (Report of the Highland Society on the Poems of Ossian, p. 27.) This small volume contained the opening, and some episodes, of Fingal; and an intimation was given, that, if it were favourably received, the whole of Fingal might be recovered. A subscription was accordingly set on foot, to enable Macpherson to perform a tour through the Highlands, to collect larger and more complete specimens of Gaelic poetry. When he returned to Edinburgh, he communicated to his literary patrons the result of his expedition; and, soon afterwards, FINGAL, an Epic Poem in Six Books, was published, along with some small detached pieces. In the year 1765, he published another epic poem, entitled TEMORA. To one of the books of this poem he annexed what he called the original Gaelic; but of the rest he only published the translations. At his death, however, he left 1000*l.* to defray the expense of the publication of the originals of the whole; on which publication we shall afterwards offer some remarks.

The success which attended Macpherson's researches, and the fame he acquired by the publication of the poems of Ossian, incited several others to proceed into the Highlands, and to collect, from tradition or manuscripts, Gaelic ballads; while, as a suspicion of the authenticity of what Macpherson had published arose in the minds of many, enquiries were also set on foot, for the purpose, if possible, of detecting the supposed imposture. There is reason to believe, too, that some of the poems which were given to the world, after the success and fame of Macpherson, were not genuine Gaelic poems, nor even founded on the traditionary ballads of the Highlands, but entirely the fabrication of those who published them.

Previously to the year 1780, Mr. Duncan Kennedy, formerly a school-master in Argyleshire, and afterwards practising as an accountant in Glasgow, began to collect and transcribe from oral recitation, among the natives in the western Highlands, several fragments of Gaelic poetry; and his collection, consisting of three thin manuscript volumes in folio, was purchased by the Highland Society of Scotland, in whose possession they still remain. It is however very uncertain what part of these MSS. is genuine ancient Gaelic poetry, and what is to be ascribed to the collector as his own composition; since he has avowed himself the author of two of the poems, and has hinted

hinted that various passages in others of them were either composed or altered by him. Whether or not we are to set these confessions to the account of Mr. Kennedy's vanity, it is impossible for us to determine; but it is generally allowed that at least a considerable part of the MSS. is of an ancient date.

In the year 1780, Mr. John Clark, land-surveyor in Badenoch, published translations of Gaelic poetry. The principal of these was a regular poem in three books, two of which were afterwards published in a verse-translation by Mrs. Grant of Laggan. In the same year, Mr. Hill, in a tour through the Highlands, collected, chiefly from one Macnab, a blacksmith in Argyleshire, copies of several ancient poems; which, from the incidents they contain, and other internal evidence, must be deemed of a later date than that which Macpherson is disposed to attribute to the poems which he published. Along with translations of these poems Mr. Hill gave the Gaelic original; and to the whole he subjoined remarks on the authenticity of Macpherson's Ossian, which at that time had become the subject of keen controversy.

But the most voluminous collector of Gaelic poetry, since the time of Macpherson, was Dr. Smith, minister of Comletown in Argyleshire. In the year 1780, he published "*Dissertations on Gaelic Antiquities*," to which he annexed a "*Collection of Ancient Poems, translated from the Gaelic of Ossian, Ullin, Oran, and others*;" and afterwards, in 1787, he published the original Gaelic poems from which he professed to have translated that collection. Of these compositions, too, much has been ascribed to Dr. Smith as an author; and, as the doctor declined giving a categorical answer to the questions of Dr. Graham on this delicate point, we may perhaps construe his silence into a tacit confession that he had at least a share in the formation of the poems. It appears evident, however, from Dr. Graham's literal translations of passages in Smith's Gaelic poems, compared with the English versions published by the latter gentleman, that these poems were originally composed in Gaelic, which is at least a strong presumption in favour of their antiquity; for, whatever the opposers of Macpherson may allege respecting the poetical abilities of this gentleman, and other later collectors of Gaelic poems, it is improbable that, in the present state of Gaelic literature, (when the language is confessedly declining in use,) and in the present altered state of manners and society in the Highlands, (which is by no means favourable to poetic genius,) persons should still be found capable of composing, in that language, poems equal in beauty and sublimity to what we might expect from a much more ancient, and, as far as genuine poetry is concerned, a more enlightened period.

Some years after Dr. Smith had published his *translations*, but a year previous to the appearance of his *originals*, a large collection of Gaelic poetry, ancient and modern, was printed by Mr. John Gillies, a bookseller at Perth. Of this work we know nothing; but, in the opinion of Mr. Mackenzie, it has considerable merit; though it is evident, from the manner in which it is arranged, that it was not prepared for the press with sufficient accuracy and attention.

About the year 1784, Dr. Young, afterwards bishop of Clonmore, made an excursion through the Scottish Highlands, for the purpose of collecting all the information in his power concerning the authenticity of Macpherson's Ossian. The result of his enquiries and investigation he gave to the world in the first volume of the *Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy*. It consisted of some rude ancient Gaelic poems respecting the race of the Fions, which we have already had occasion to notice and quote. These poems Dr. Young transcribed letter for letter from the copies current in the Highlands, except so far as they were corrected by the edition published at Perth. Dr. Young does not mention the apparent antiquity of the MSS. from which he transcribed these ballads.

These are the principal collections of Gaelic poetry

which have been published, as preserved by tradition or in manuscript, in the Highlands of Scotland. In Ireland a collection made its appearance soon after Macpherson's Ossian; this consisted of a translation in rhyme, by Miss Brooke, of some Irish ballads, which she supposes to be of a later date than that in which Ossian flourished, and probably of the eighth, ninth, and tenth, centuries. Most of these Irish poems relate to the Fingalians; but they differ both in the incidents which they relate, and in their manner and style, from the poems under similar titles which have been collected in the Highlands of Scotland. One most striking difference consists in the magical machinery of the Irish poems, instead of the mere reference to the belief of the employment and intervention of departed spirits, which the Fingalian poetry of the Highlands exhibits.

Before we proceed to inquire into the authenticity of the poems of Ossian, we shall endeavour to point out, in very few words, their most striking characteristics.

On the first perusal of these poems, the reader is struck with their obscurity; he finds it necessary to pause and reflect, before he can ascertain the meaning of many passages, or perceive and trace the connection of the narrative. Even after he has become accustomed to the style, he is obliged to leave in despair many parts as absolutely unintelligible, or at least as conveying no clear and distinct idea or image to his mind. Besides this great fault, the poems labour under the imputation of being excessively bombastic and turgid; so that a reader of taste and judgment has several difficulties to overcome, before he can sit down to their perusal in such a state of mind and feeling as will permit and enable him calmly and impartially to appreciate their merits. And, even after he has got over the repugnance excited by their obscurity and bombastic style, he will be in danger of being repelled and disgusted by their sentimental effusions, which, in many instances, are of the most romantic and sickly character. Still, however, there is something in the poems which gets the better of all these objections, and which is more powerful in its attractions than the faults which we have noticed are in their repulsive quality. The great characteristics of Ossian's poetry, are undoubtedly, as Dr. Blair remarks, tenderness and sublimity; but the tenderness is pathetic, melancholy, and solemn; and the sublimity is dreary, desolate, and gloomy. There is nothing gay or cheerful; the mind of the reader is prepared for the grave and solemn events which they record, by the wild and romantic scenery which they describe. The extended heath by the sea-shore; the mountain shaded with mist; the torrent rushing through a solitary valley; the scattered oaks, and the tombs of warriors overgrown with moss; all produce a solemn attention in the mind, and prepare it for great and extraordinary events. We agree with the French poet Lebrun:

Homère, au soleil de la Grèce,
Emprunte ses plus doux rayons;
Mais Ossian n'a point d'ivresse:
La lune glace ses crayons.

Sa sublimité monotone
Plane sur de tristes climats;
C'est un long orage qui tonne
Dans la saison des noirs frimas.

De manes, de fantômes fombres,
Il charge les ailes des vents;
Et le souffle des pâles ombres
Refroidit même les vivans.

Upon the whole, the merits of Ossian's poetry must be allowed to be great; it has also great faults: to those whose judgment and taste have been disciplined by study, and formed on the models of antiquity, the faults will seem to counterbalance the beauties; but, in the opinion of the multitude, the beauties will preponderate, and with them the poems of Ossian will always be popular.

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Though the publication of *Fingal* and *Temora* procured for Macpherson a considerable share of public favour, and were supported by all the abilities and enthusiasm of Dr. Blair, yet, even on their first appearance, persons of talent and critical acuteness openly avowed a disbelief of their authenticity. Many others, though disposed to favour the poems and their editor, expressed scepticism with respect to the manner in which the originals were said to have been obtained, and the fidelity with which they had been translated. Among these may be ranked David Hume, who, in his letters to Dr. Blair on this subject, written in 1763, and reprinted by the Highland Society in the beginning of their Report, intimates the suspicions which he and others entertained, and points out the method in which he thinks these doubts are most likely to be removed. From the first of these letters, it appears that, immediately after the publication of the poems, many literary men rejected them with disdain and indignation, as a palpable and most impudent forgery; on the grounds, that the manners described in the translations were not such as were likely to prevail at the early period which was assigned as the era of Ossian; and that it was scarcely possible for such long and connected compositions to be preserved, by oral tradition alone, during the lapse of fourteen centuries.

Notwithstanding the statement of these difficulties, the editor refused to satisfy the world respecting those points in which his veracity had been called in question; and nothing of importance was published on either side, till Dr. Johnson and Mr. Boswell returned from their northern tour. During that journey, they had made several inquiries concerning the traditinary poems said to exist among the Highlanders; but these inquiries were unsuccessful, and tended to confirm the preconceived notions of Johnson; who, always prejudiced against Scotchmen and Scottish literature, had, almost without examination, condemned Macpherson as a literary felon. Dr. Johnson's objections to the authenticity of Ossian's poems rest almost entirely on the idea that no written poems in the Gaelic language were then extant, and of course that the published translations must be a forgery: to this charge Macpherson replied only by menaces and abuse; a conduct which tended materially to injure his cause, and still farther to impugn his veracity.

The spirit of scepticism was not confined to the English literati; but none of Mr. Macpherson's countrymen appeared openly as his opponents, till Mr. W. Shaw, author of the *Gaelic Dictionary and Grammar*, published in 1781 "*An Enquiry into the Authenticity of the Poems ascribed to Ossian*." The arguments and assertions adduced in this inquiry were truly formidable, and to many readers appeared perfectly conclusive. Mr. Shaw seemed to have proved that both the fable and the machinery of Macpherson's principal poems were Irish; that none but Irish MSS. had been or could be offered to the inspection of the public; that many of the testimonies adduced by Dr. Blair were either falsehoods or misrepresentations; and that the principal literary characters of Scotland had engaged in a combination to support the cause and credit of their countrymen, at the expense of honesty and truth.

Ossian and his editor soon encountered a much more formidable, because more respectable, antagonist, in Mr. Malcolm Laing, who, at the end of his *History of Scotland*, published in 1800, gave an elaborate "*Dissertation on Ossian's Poems*;" in which he minutely examined the compositions in question, and compared them with other publications of Mr. Macpherson. In the controversy on this subject, before Mr. Laing took it up, the whole jet of the argument and proof lay on the existence, in tradition or manuscript, of poems in the Highlands, composed by Ossian, and similar in all their leading features to those published by Macpherson: the *internal evidence*, though generally mentioned by the disbelievers in their authenticity as strongly in favour of their opinion, was never minutely and thoroughly examined, before Mr. Laing in-

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vestigated it. The objections to the authenticity of these poems may be thus stated and arranged.

1. It is highly improbable, that, at the time when Ossian lived, he could compose such long and regular poems, without the use and assistance of letters; and the most sturdy and zealous advocates for these poems will not contend that letters were known in the Highlands in the third century. It may indeed be urged, that Homer composed his *Iliad* and *Odyssey* when he was equally a stranger with Ossian to the use of letters; but of this assertion there is no proof: the presumption, on the contrary, is, that in the time of Homer letters were known in Greece. It is scarcely necessary to dwell on the position here laid down, that, if letters were unknown in the Highlands in the time of Ossian, that bard's compositions must have been very short, and probably very irregular; certainly not of the description of poems which Macpherson published in his name, and which Dr. Blair, in his *Dissertation*, has proved to be written in exact conformity to the rules which Aristotle lays down for the composition of an epic poem.

Even allowing that such long and regular poems could have been composed without the use of letters, it is not credible that they could have been transmitted from the time of Ossian to the time of Macpherson, or at least to the time of the date of the most ancient manuscripts found in the Highlands. This objection cannot be put in a stronger way, than in the words in which Hume has expressed it, in a letter to Gibbon: "It is indeed strange, that any man of sense could have imagined it possible, that above 20,000 verses, along with numberless historical facts, could have been preserved by oral tradition, during fifty generations, by the rudest, perhaps, of all civilized nations, the most necessitous, the most turbulent, and the most unsettled. There is nothing similar to this in any other language, or among any other nation: the Gothic poems are all short; the Death-song of Radnor Lodbrog, which is amongst the longest pieces of Gothic poetry supposed to be traditionally preserved, extends but to twenty-nine octavo stanzas, of short lines; and, in order to relieve the memory in this and other Gothic poems, there is always a burden. Besides, these ballads were written only a few centuries before letters were common among the Gothic nations; and, consequently, their preservation (independently of the circumstance of their shortness) cannot be considered as in the least similar to the supposed preservation of Ossian's poems."

2. The inconsistency of the events related in these poems with the Roman history of Britain, and with the history of the middle ages, has been pointed out by Mr. Laing, as another proof of their forgery. "The arrival or return of the Scots from Ireland, under Fergus Mac Erth, and his brother Loarn, is established by the concurrence of every Scottish and Irish historian; and their first arrival is marked by Bede, under Riada their leader, from whom their settlement was named *Dalriada*:" hence it is an historical fact, that there was not a Highlander in Scotland, of the present race, at the beginning of the era assigned to *Fingal*. This observation will derive great additional weight, if we have proved that *Fingal* and his heroes belong originally to Ireland; and, consequently, were probably introduced to the knowledge of the Highlanders at the era of the Dalriadic settlement in Scotland. *Fingal*, in the poems published by Macpherson, is connected with Caracalla in 208, and with Carausius in 286; and his reign and exploits are prolonged in the *Temora* to the battle of Gabhra, in 296; "with the same propriety (Mr. Laing observes) as if a youthful patriot, who resisted a union in the Scotch parliament, were again introduced at the end of the century, opposing a union with Ireland in the British senate!"

3. With respect to the MSS. said to have been procured by Macpherson, he always refused to produce them, except one, which Mr. Laing examined, and which, instead of being a MS. of Ossian's poems, is an Irish MS. in a character

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character and language which scarcely any Highlander can distinctly read; and which, as far as it has been made out, contains no poems, either of Ossian or of any other bard. It has been already mentioned, that Macpherson left a sum of money for the purpose of publishing his Gaelic MSS. after his death; from some cause or other, their publication was delayed till the year 1807, when they appeared, with a literal translation into Latin by the late Robert Macpherson, A.M. together with a Dissertation on the Authenticity of the Poems, by Sir John Sinclair; a translation on the abbé Cefarotti's Dissertation on the Controversy, with Notes, and a Supplemental Essay, by Dr. Mac Arthur: the work was published under the sanction of the Highland Society of London. The editors of this work thought that they should decide the controversy; but there were certain awkward and troublesome questions asked: the Gaelic poems thus published were all in Macpherson's hand-writing; what had become of the MSS. which he pretended to have got in the Highlands, and from which, if they really existed, he must have made his copy? To this no satisfactory answer can be given. On the margin of the first edition of his Ossian, Macpherson marked, with his own hand, the time when the Gaelic was delivered to Mr. John Mackenzie, the secretary to the Highland Society; among these memoranda, the following are found: "Delivered the three Duans of Cathlode, as *complete as the translation*." Does not this expression warrant the belief that the Gaelic was written after the English? else why say, "as complete as the translation?" It would be natural and proper to talk of a translation being as complete as the original, but to speak of an original being as complete as the translation, would scarcely have occurred to any one whose thoughts and language had not been at direct variance. Again, he says, "Delivered all that could be found of Carthon;" but, if the English Carthon had been the translation, why could he find little more than half the original from which the translation was made? The mere circumstance of the poems of Ossian being published in Gaelic, from MSS. in Macpherson's hand-writing, can prove nothing in favour of their authenticity; nor be a satisfactory answer to those who called for MSS. before they would give up their scepticism; unless there had been satisfactory evidence, that this Gaelic Ossian had been copied from old MSS. for Macpherson could forge poems as well in Gaelic as in English; and the undoubted facts, that he never would show any old MSS. that he delayed publishing the Gaelic during his life-time, and that he was very slow in delivering it over to those to whom he committed the publication, confirm the suspicion of Mr. Laing, that he translated his English Ossian into Gaelic, and that this translation he left for publication after his decease.

4. But Macpherson, in various passages of his prefaces and introductions, seems disposed to acknowledge the imposture, and to claim the higher merit of an original poet: in one place he says, "Those who alone are capable of transferring ancient poetry into a modern language might be better employed in giving originals of their own, were it not for that wretched envy and meanness, which affects to despise contemporary genius. I assure my antagonists, I should not translate what I could not imitate." And in his preface he says, "Without increasing his genius, the author may have improved his language, in the eleven years that the poems have been in the hands of the public." And again, "In a convenient indifference for a literary reputation, the author hears praise without being elevated, and ribaldry without being depressed;" and, in the conclusion, he says, "the translator *who cannot equal his original*, is incapable of expressing its beauties." These passages, when considered in connection with all the other suspicious circumstances; with Macpherson's inability to produce any ancient MSS. with the plagiarisms contained in the poems; and with the internal marks of forgery which they display; tell strongly against their authenticity. But there is more direct and positive proof that Macpherson confessed the imposture:

The late venerable bishop of Dromore, in a letter to a friend, (quoted by the British Critic, for 1809, p. 275.) says, "I repeatedly received the most positive assurances from sir John Elliot, the confidential friend of Macpherson, that all the poems published by him as translations of Ossian, were entirely of his own composition. This I did not understand so strictly as that Macpherson might not have introduced some fragments of ancient Erse poetry, preserved by tradition; but that he had no genuine originals of Ossian's composition. This, sir John Elliot did not communicate to me as the result of one single conversation, but what he was fully assured of, by repeated conversations, during the intimacy of many years."

We have now enumerated the most important objections that have been stated at various times against the authenticity of Ossian's poems; from which objections has even arisen a doubt whether ever "Fingal fought, or Ossian sung."

It was not to be expected that the admirers of Ossian, and the friends of his translator, should regard these hostilities with that silent contempt and pertinacious forbearance which Macpherson himself seems to have gloried in displaying. At a very early period of the dispute, the respectable professor, who had at first attempted to prove the authenticity, and point out the beauties, of the poems, stood up in defence of his adopted child; and, in deference to the advice of his friend Hume, he collected and published numerous testimonies in favour of its legitimacy. These testimonies consist chiefly of eleven letters from gentlemen and clergymen of respectability in the Highlands, and are reprinted by the Committee of the Highland Society, at the head of the Appendix to their Report: they tend to prove that, at the time in which they were written, viz. 1763, there were living in the Highlands and Islands of Scotland several persons who either possessed ancient Gaelic MSS. or could recite long passages from traditional Gaelic poems, which agreed in their subject, and often in their composition, with those that had been published in English by Macpherson. These testimonies, though satisfactory as far as they go, are by no means complete; and much more was wanting to satisfy the doubts and remove the scruples of the English literati.

In consequence of the serious attack made by Mr. William Shaw on the authenticity of the poems, and on the literary and moral character of Mr. Macpherson and his advocates, but particularly to vindicate his own reputation against the attacks of that author, Mr. John Clark, member of the society of Scottish Antiquaries, and translator of the Caledonian Bards, published in 1781, "An Answer to Mr. Shaw's Enquiry into the Authenticity of the Poems ascribed to Ossian." In this Answer, Mr. Clark not only repelled the allegations of Mr. Shaw against himself, and exposed Mr. S.'s ignorance of the Gaelic language and antiquities, but affirmed, on what appeared to be the fullest evidence, that the accusations of Mr. Shaw had been dictated by private pique and resentment, and were in numerous instances false and malicious; that Mr. S. had really been shown an ancient Gaelic manuscript, referring to Oscar the son of Ossian, which, however, he appeared scarcely to understand; and that he had never applied to Mr. Macpherson for a sight of the MSS. in Mr. M.'s possession, as he had asserted.

For the purpose of throwing the fullest light on this far-famed controversy, and procuring the most complete evidence which the nature of existing circumstances would allow, the Highland Society of Scotland, some time previous to the year 1797, appointed a committee of their body to inquire into the nature and authenticity of the poems of Ossian. In the time of nominating this committee, the society were peculiarly fortunate: Dr. Blair, Professor Ferguson, Dr. Carlyle, and Mr. John Home, the principal advisers and promoters of the original publication of Macpherson, and many other gentlemen of respectability, who had been intimately acquainted with

with Mr. Macpherson, and had either assisted him in his researches, or witnessed the prosecution of his undertaking, were still living; and the immediate descendant of the last of the Caledonian bards remained, to give his testimony as to the manner in which Macpherson had become possessed of an ancient Gaelic MS. which was said to have supplied him with a great part of his materials. By the direction of this committee, queries, very distinctly and accurately worded, were transmitted to every one who, from personal knowledge or opportunities of enquiry, was supposed capable of throwing light on the subject. In 1805 the report of this committee was published, sanctioned by the name of Mr. Henry Mackenzie, chairman. The line of conduct pursued by the committee was very similar to that which had been chalked out by Hume, in a letter to Blair, soon after the first appearance of the poems of Ossian by Macpherson. Dr. Blair had written to Hume respecting the reception, in England, of his dissertation on these poems. Mr. Hume, in his answer, mentions the general incredulity of the English literati on their authenticity arising partly from the behaviour of Macpherson, who refused to satisfy any one who doubted of his veracity, and partly from the extreme improbability that such long connected pieces should have been preserved by oral tradition for fourteen centuries. Mr. Hume there points out the line of conduct which it would be necessary for Dr. Blair to pursue, if he wished to silence this general scepticism: "The testimonies may, in my opinion, be of two kinds. Macpherson pretends that there is an ancient MS. of part of Fingal in the family, I think, of Clanranold: get that fact ascertained by more than one person of credit; let these persons be acquainted with the Gaelic; let them compare the original and the translation; and let them testify the fidelity of the latter. But the chief point in which it will be necessary for you to exert yourself will be, to get positive testimony from many different hands, that such poems are vulgarly recited in the Highlands, and have there been long the entertainment of the people. This testimony must be as particular as it is positive. It will not be sufficient that a Highland gentleman or clergyman say, or write to you, that he has heard such poems: nobody questions that there are traditional poems in that part of the country, where the names of Ossian and Fingal, and Oscar and Gaul, are mentioned in every stanza. The only doubt is, whether any of these poems have any farther resemblance to the poems published by Macpherson. Generality must be carefully guarded against, as being of no authority."

It is evident from these precautionary directions, that Mr. Hume was well aware of the loose and unsatisfactory evidence which most probably would be produced in support of the authenticity of Ossian; and the Highland Society, notwithstanding they transmitted very clear, precise, and distinct, queries, received, in most cases, only very general answers: such was the impatient zeal, or such the clouded understandings, of the Highlanders on this subject, that they either would not permit themselves to reply to any objections with an appeal to facts, or they misapprehended the question, and supposed it was the existence of traditional poetry respecting Ossian and Fingal, and not the fidelity of Macpherson's translation, on which they were requested to give evidence. The consequence was, that much of the evidence produced on the report of the Highland Society is quite exceptionable, on the grounds which Hume states and wishes to guard Dr. Blair against; and the evidence which goes to the point, only confirms that scepticism which it was intended to remove; since it only proves that there were in the Highlands MSS. and traditional ballads respecting Fingal and his heroes, attributed to Ossian, of which ballads Macpherson had made use, but which were *not* the originals of his poems.

In the report it is expressly admitted that, "The committee has not been able to obtain any one poem the

same in title and tenor with the poems published by Macpherson." This admission is sufficient to put the seal upon the question of their forgery: and the Highland Society, after this admission, should have disdained the unworthy and ridiculous substitute to which they have had recourse, in order to make out something like an original for some of Macpherson's poems.

There can be no doubt that Macpherson collected Gaelic poetry, and made use of it in his Ossian; but his materials were few and scanty, and of a very different character, in every respect, from the poems which he constructed from them. Fingal is principally founded on a ballad narrating the invasion of Ireland by Magnus the Bare-footed: this ballad contains about fifty stanzas of four lines each; which Macpherson has enlarged into six books, and thrown into the form of a regular epic poem. The story of the ballad bears some resemblance to that of Fingal; but, in the former, there is no mention of the battle between Cuthullin and Siwaran, nor of those circumstances related by Macpherson in such detail, and by means of which he has swelled Fingal into six books. Besides this ballad of Magnus, Macpherson, in the composition of his Fingal, has made use of other small genuine pieces of Celtic poetry.

The Battle of Lora, the next piece for which any authority has been discovered, is founded on a poem called Erragon: the incidents are nearly the same, but the manner of relating them, the sentiments, and the language, are extremely unlike; and these sufficiently prove, that the peculiarities of Ossian's poetry are, in fact, the offspring solely of Macpherson's muse.

Carthon, the next poem, is founded on the tale of Conloch, natural son of Cuthullin, who, being educated in Scotland, comes to Ireland, encounters his father there, without being known to him, and is slain by him. Macpherson has altered the incidents in some respects; and, as usual, substituted his own sentiments and language. There is good reason for supposing that the famous address to the sun, with which this poem concludes, is not genuine. No Gaelic original has been discovered for the death of Cuthullin. Darthula is well known in the Highlands under the name of *Deidre*; but Macpherson has very materially altered the story. The ballad of Lammon Mor seems to have been the foundation of Macpherson's "Luthmon;" but, in the latter, the story is told differently; and the night-attack, by Ossian and Gaul, with the imagery which Blair extols, are not in the ballad. For the first book of Temora there is some authority, in a poem celebrating the fatal battle of Gabhra, in which Oisur and most of the Fions were slain: as however Macpherson intended, when he published the first book of Temora, to add a second, he has omitted this catastrophe: and the Fions still live and fight. Such are the slender materials on which Macpherson constructed the pieces contained in his first publication: for those contained in his second volume no genuine authorities can be found.

The result, therefore, of the enquiries of the Highland Society, must be considered as having finally and completely settled the question respecting the authenticity of Ossian's poems. As published by Macpherson, they are much more his own, even in incidents, and most especially in sentiment, imagery, and language, than the composition of Ossian, or any Celtic bard; and the ballads which he employed in their construction, or such as exist in MS. or in tradition in the Highlands, can on no positive or probable evidence be ascribed to Ossian, nor indeed traced up to any particular bard or era whatever.

It seems not to have been the design of the Society to refute the objections urged by Mr. Laing, in his Dissertation; or at least they have not attempted to carry such a design into execution. This task, therefore, was left to some other admirer of Ossian's poems, and it has been performed by two writers, Mr. Archibald Macdonald of Liverpool, and Dr. Graham. The former of these gentlemen

tlemen has published "Some of Ossian's lesser Poems, rendered into verse; with a Preliminary Discourse, in answer to Mr. Laing." But the latest, and by far the most respectable, tract on this side of the controversy which we have seen, is an "Essay on the Authenticity of the Poems of Ossian, in which the Objections of Malcolm Laing, Esq. are particularly considered and refuted; by Patrick Graham, D.D. Minister of Aberfoyle. To which is added, an Essay on the Mythology of Ossian's Poems, by Professor Richardson, of Glasgow College." Our limits, however, preclude us from entering farther into this controversy, which indeed we think absolutely settled by what we have already adduced. But we may refer our readers to the Monthly Review for December 1810, where that work and four others are examined with great judgment and liberality; and we may add, that Dr. Graham's work is written with some degree of elegance, and, what is not usual in controversy, with temper and moderation.

OSSICLE, *f.* [*ossiculum*, Lat.] A small bone.—There are three very little bones in the ear, upon whose right constitution depends the due tension of the tympanum; and, if the action of one little muscle, which serves to draw one of these *ossicles* fixt to the tympanum, be lost or abated, the tension of that membrane ceasing, sound is hindered from coming into the ear. *Holder on Speech.*

OSSIFIC, *adj.* [from the Lat. *os*, a bone, and *facio*, to make.] Having the power of making bone, or changing carneous or membranous to bony substance.—If the caries be superficial, and the bone firm, you may, by medicaments, consume the moisture in the caries, dry the bone, and dispose it, by virtue of its *ossific* faculty, to thrust out callus, and make separation of its caries. *Wise man.*

OSSIFICATION, *f.* Change of carneous, membranous, or cartilaginous, into bony substance.—*Ossifications* or indurations of the artery, appear so constantly in the beginnings of aneurisms, that it is not easy to judge whether they are the cause or the effect of them. *Sharp.*

OSSFRA'GA, *f.* in botany. See **EUPHORBIA**.

OSSIFRAGE, *f.* [*ossifragus*, or bone-breaker, Lat.] A kind of eagle.—The *ossifragus*, or osprey, is thus called, because it breaks the bones of animals in order to come at the marrow. It is said to dig up bodies in churchyards, and eat what it finds in the bones, which has been the occasion that the Latins call it *avis bustaria*. *Calmet.*—See, however, **OSPRAY**.—Among the fowls that shall not be eaten, are the eagle, the *ossifrage*, and the ospray. *Lev. xi. 13.*

OSSIFRAGOUS, *adj.* [from the Lat. *os*, a bone, and *frango*, to break.] Breaking the bones.

OSSIFRANGENT, *adj.* Breaking the bones.

To OSSIFY, *v. a.* To change to bone.—The dilated aorta every-where in the neighbourhood of the cyst is generally *ossified*. *Sharp's Surgery.*

OSSIG, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Neisse: three miles east-north-east of Grotkau.

OSSIG, a town of Saxony, in the bishopric of Naumburg: four miles south of Zeitz.

OSSIPE'E, **OSSAPEE**, or **OSAPY**, a post-town, mountain, and lake, in Strafford-county, New Hampshire, North America. The town was incorporated in 1785, and has 1205 inhabitants: it is forty miles north of Concord. The lake lies north-east of Winnepiscogee-lake, between which and Ossapee-lake is the Ossapee-mountain. Its waters run east, and are joined by South-river, from Great Ossapee-river, which discharges itself into Saco-river, near the division-line between York and Cumberland counties in Maine, and between Limeric and Gorham, in lat. 43.46. N. lon. 70.45. W.

OSSIPEE GO'RE, a township of the same state and county; with 125 inhabitants.

OSSIV'OROUS, *adj.* Devouring bones.—The bore of the gullet is not in all creatures alike answerable to the body or stomach; as in the fox, which feeds on bones, and swallows whole, or with little chewing; and next, in

a dog, and other *ossivorous* quadrupeds, it is very large.—*Derham.*

OSSNO'BIAN, or **ASSENEBOYNE**, a river of North America, which runs into Winnipeg-lake in lat. 50. 3. N. lon. 97. 0. W.

OSSNOBIAN or **ASSENEBOYNE INDIANS**, a tribe of savages found about the source of the above river, far west of Lake Superior. The Moravian missionaries report, that these men, instead of cultivating the land, live wholly upon animal food, or at least restrict themselves to the spontaneous productions of nature, denominating those who dig the ground "slaves." Bread is unknown to them; and they reject it from their mouths, calling it rotten wood. These Indians, as well as those numerous nations who inhabit the country from Lake Superior towards the Shining Mountains, are great admirers of hunting-horses, with which the country abounds. The Ossnobiens have no permanent place of abode; and live in tents made of buffalo and other hides, with which they travel from one place to another, like the Arabs; and, as soon as the food for their horses is expended, they remove, and pitch their tents in another fertile spot: and thus they emigrate, without scarcely ever returning to the same spots again.

OSSO'LA, or **OSEL'LA**, a district of Italy, between the Valais and Lake Maggiore, about thirty-five miles in length, and from fifteen to twenty-five in breadth; the country is composed of mountains and valleys, but is fertile and populous. Domo d'Ossello is the capital.

OSSOLIN, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Sandomirz: twenty miles west of Sandomirz.

OSSOO'RAH, a town of Hindoostan, in Bengal: sixteen miles north of Bissunpour.

OSSORY, the name of a bishopric in Ireland, the cathedral of which is at Kilkenny. It includes almost the whole county of Kilkenny, a good part of the Queen's County, and some of the King's County, extending forty-six English miles in length and twenty-nine in breadth, and containing 136 parishes. Such however are the unions of parishes, that there are only fifty benefices, and of these twenty were without churches when Dr. Beaufort published. There is also a barony called Ossory, which gave the title of earl to the eldest son of the dukes of Ormond.

OSSUARY, *f.* [*ossuarium*, Lat.] A charnel-house; a place where the bones of dead people are kept.

OSSUERO. See **OSERO**.

OSSUN, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Pyrenées: six miles south-south-west of Tarbe, and twelve north of Argellez.

OSSUNA, an ancient and well-peopled town of Spain, in the province of Seville. It derives great advantage, in case of a siege, from a fountain in the middle of it, which furnishes water to the inhabitants, whilst the whole country, for eight miles round, is totally destitute of that necessary article. When Cæsar besieged Ossuna, he was obliged to bring his provisions, and particularly water, from a great distance. It is forty-five miles north-east of Seville.

OST, or **OUST**, *f.* A kiln where hops or malt are dried. See **OAST**.

OSTABAT, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Pyrenées: six miles south of St. Palais, and nine west of Mauleon.

OSTA'DE (Adrian Van), an eminent painter of the Dutch school, was born at Lubeck in 1610. He studied his art at Haarlem under Francis Hals, and was fellow-pupil with Brouwer, with whom he contracted a great intimacy. His taste and style were perfectly those of the country in which he practised, being characterised by a most exact imitation of nature, with great beauty of colouring and exquisite finish, but the lowest possible choice of subjects, which are uniformly taken from ale-houses, kitchens, and places of vulgar resort, and often exhibit

objects of disgust. Mr. Fuseli, in his edition of Pilkington's Dictionary, describes him as an artist in the following energetic terms: "He has contented himself to trace the line which just discriminates the animal from the brute, and stamps his actors with instinct rather than with passions. He has personified the dregs of vulgarity without recommending them by the most evanescent feature of taste; and yet decoys our curiosity to dive with him into the habitation of filth, beguiles the eye to dwell on the loathsome inmates and contents, and surprises our judgment into implicit admiration, by a truth of character, an energy of effect, a breadth and geniality of touch and finish, which leave no room for censure. If he is less silvery, less airy, than Teniers, he is far more vigorous and gleaming; if his forms be more squat and brutal, they are less fantastic and more natural; if he group with less amenity, he far excels the Fleming in depth and real composition."

Ostade long resided at Haarlem, where he attained a high reputation. The approach of the French troops in 1672, drove him to Amsterdam, where he died in 1685. His genuine works of his best time and manner are very scarce, and bear extremely high prices. Those of his brother *Jsaac*, who painted in the same style, but with much inferior excellence, often pass for his; many of them, indeed, are copies of his works. Adrian was frequently solicited by cotemporary landscape-painters to add figures to their pieces, which has given them a great additional value. He etched a number of his own designs, and several eminent engravers have wrought from his pictures. The ciphers he used to his own engravings may be seen on the preceding Plate.

OSTAKRE, a town of the kingdom of the Netherlands: four miles north of Ghent.

OSTAL'RIC, a town of Spain, on the Tordera. In 1694, this town was taken by the French, who quitted it the year following, after having destroyed the fortifications: twenty-two miles south-west of Gerona, and twenty south-east of Vique.

OSTA'NO, a town of Italy: ten miles north of Como.

OSTASCH'KOV, a town of Russia, in the government of Tver, near the lake Seliger: eighty miles west of Tver. Lat. 56. 50. N. lon. 33. 34. E.

OST'BY, a town of Sweden, in Angermanland: sixty miles north of Hernofand.

OST'E, a river which rises in the south part of the duchy of Bremen, passes by Bremervorde, &c. and runs into the Elbe, at its mouth, in lat. 53. 54. N. lon. 8. 54. E.

OSTELLA'TO, a town of Italy, in the department of the Lower Po: fourteen miles south-east of Ferrara.

OST'EN, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Bremen: eleven miles north-west of Stade.

OSTEN'D, a strong seaport-town of the kingdom of the Netherlands, in the province of West Flanders; with a good harbour, and well fortified.

Among the flourishing and numerous cities of the Netherlands, Ostend formerly held a distinguished rank. It had, however, long declined, though its port continued to be frequented. About the commencement of the French revolution, it appeared almost a desolate and deserted place. That event, if it did not restore it to its former opulence, at least prevented its utter decay. By the various circumstances of the revolutionary war, Ostend acquired a partial revival of its commerce and consequence. In the long line of coast from the Texel to Brest, there is not one good natural harbour; for the embouchures of the Rhine and Scheldt, though accessible at all times of the tide in fine weather, yet are so blocked up and impeded by sand-banks and shifting sands, that the approach in bad weather, or during dark nights, is very dangerous. The other ports are factitious tide-harbours, dry at low water, and some of them even at half-tide. Of these, Ostend (which word signifies *East Port*) is among the best. The harbour is formed by a natural inlet of the sea, which has forced a passage between two

sand-hills. The south-western bank, or beach, is of a triangular shape, and possesses some degree of elevation above high-water mark and the surrounding flat country, so that, at half-tide, it is completely peninsulated; and on this bank the town is built. This inlet has been improved at different times. The ground has been scooped out so as to form the interior harbour or basin, which terminates in the great canal of Bruges, to which it is connected by superb flood-gates, piers, and sluices. Externally the channel is confined and deepened by two piers or jetties: their construction is simple, yet effective, being nothing more than double rows of piles driven into the sand, and connected by a flooring of strong planks. Not above a hundred yards from the end of the piers there is a bar, which runs across the harbour's mouth, upon which, in neap-tides, there is not more than seven or eight feet water; at high-water, in ordinary tides, there are twelve feet; and, in lunar tides, twenty-five feet and upwards on the bar. If these jetties were carried out so as to rest upon the sand-bank which forms the bar, it would deepen the water, and prevent the further accumulation of sand, which is constantly thrown by the northern current on the east side of the harbour.

During the period of its commercial prosperity, that is, between the years 1720 and 1780, the town of Ostend became greatly enlarged. Ramparts were demolished to make room for buildings, and a new town was regularly laid out and completed. It in some respects resembles an English town, being built of brick, with flagged footways, a convenience not met with any where else on the continent: yet the inhabitants persist in walking in the middle of the street, amidst heaps of dung, carts, horses, &c. so inveterate are prejudice and habit. The beauty of the new town consists principally in a fine quay, which borders the inner harbour, where the large and handsome hotel of the *ci-devant* East-India Company makes at this day a conspicuous figure.

The old town has a shattered and somewhat shabby appearance. It contains, however, two good squares. The *Maïson de Ville*, or town-house, forms the entire side of one of them. It was formerly reckoned among the most magnificent structures of the kind in the Netherlands, being ornamented with two fine towers at each wing, and a dome in the centre; but this superb building was nearly ruined by the bombardment of 1745. The body of the town-house still subsists; but of its dome and two beautiful towers, there only remains the stump of one of them, surmounted by a wooden cupola. The church is a large heavy building of brick, without the smallest claim to architectural merit; but the inside is richly ornamented. It has a lofty octangular steeple, with a very clumsy spire; affording, however, an excellent sea-mark, which may be seen at a great distance, when nothing else on land can be discerned. The Pharos is also a striking object. It is a simple column, standing solitary, like Pompey's Pillar, on the beach. It supports a large reverberating lantern. Near the Pharos is a flag-staff, on which a blue flag is gradually hoisted, in proportion as the tide flows into the harbour. The fortifications of Ostend are more than two miles in circumference. They were dismantled, but had not been essentially injured. They are now undergoing repairs and additions, which will make them very formidable. As the place is situated on an elevated beach, the ramparts tower above the flat country, which, being lower than high-water mark, can be speedily and extensively inundated. The only hostile approaches are along the high sand-hills to the north and south: the former is protected by a strong redoubt, built by the late French government, called Fort Napoleon; and there are at present two thousand men at work constructing another on the south side. By a census made ten years ago, the inhabitants of Ostend were found to amount to 10,570 individuals, exclusive of the garrison.

The civil and military history of Ostend is interesting. Like many of the towns of modern Europe, it was indebted for its origin to ecclesiastical establishments, the signiory being invested in the abbey of St. Bertin at St. Omer's. Mankind owes more to saints and their reliques than an incredulous world is willing to allow. If some of these never had existence, we know that their foster-fathers, the monks, had; that, like the martins that built their nests in Macbeth's castle, they enjoyed an instinctive perception in the choice of the most healthy, fertile, and picturesque, situations, for their habitations; and that to their selection we are indebted for some of the finest and most flourishing cities of Europe. On this sanctified ground Robert le Frison count of Flanders built a church, dedicated to Notre Dame, in the year 1072. This Robert was an usurper, and, like most usurpers, was a man of talent and courage. He dispossessed his nephew, the true heir, who fled to Philip I. king of France. Philip marched with a great army to reinstate him; but the usurper totally defeated the French, and the nephew fell in the battle. Robert being now established in the possession of Flanders, the pope enjoined him, as a penance, to build churches and found abbeys. Robert did not dispute the mandate of his holiness; he was one of the first improvers of the country; and, after a long reign, left it in a flourishing condition. The church, like that of Dunkirk, was soon surrounded with dwellings, and became a considerable town; but, on the 22d of November, 1334, both church and town were swallowed up by a sudden influx of the sea. The very next year, however, a new church and a new town, fortified with palisades, were built higher up on the beach, which have braved the fury of the elements ever since. In 1445, Philip le Bon count of Flanders surrounded Ostend with walls, erected the four gates, and formed the harbour. About this period Ostend acquired maritime importance, and became the most noted fishing-station on the whole coast. Its fishermen are commemorated for catching mermaids, sea-monsters, and odd fishes. This species of fishery has of late declined.

It was not until the year 1583 that Ostend was regularly fortified, by Maurice of Nassau prince of Orange, who made it the seaport of the great cities of Ghent and Bruges, which he had recently taken. The same year Alexander Farnese prince of Parma attempted to carry the newly-fortified town by a *coup de main*, in which he failed. But the archduke Albert, the Spanish governor of the Netherlands, having lately espoused Isabella, infant of Spain, daughter of Philip II. thought that he could not better signalize the outset of his government than by the reduction of so important a place. Ostend was therefore invested by the Spaniards with a powerful army in 1601. For two years the siege was prosecuted with that calm fortitude and steady perseverance which so eminently distinguish the Spanish character; but it was defended by that obstinate valour and that indefatigable exertion for which the Dutch were no less remarkable. The latter, moreover, threw in succours by sea, of which they had the undisputed possession. Duke Albert, finding that no serious impression was made on the place, whilst the losses of the besiegers were immense, had the good sense to discover the superior talents of Ambrose Spinosa, then a junior general, to whom he entrusted the future conduct of the siege, notwithstanding the open discontents of his superiors. Spinosa soon changed the aspect of affairs. His first care was to equip a flotilla of galleys, to cut off the supplies by sea; and, though this fleet was defeated in an attempt to raise the siege of Sluys, then besieged by the prince of Orange, yet it partly effected its purpose. Meanwhile Spinosa pushed on his approaches through sands and marshes, which were supposed to be utterly impassable, with the utmost vigour. He succeeded at length in raising his batteries within point-blank shot, from which the works were incessantly battered by cannon of a large calibre, carrying fifty-pound

balls. The fire was returned with equal spirit by the besieged; and it is reported, that the noise of the firing was heard as far as London. At last, the place being totally destroyed, the remnant of the brave garrison capitulated on the 14th of September, 1604, and obtained honourable terms, after a siege, for ever memorable, of three years, three months, and three days. Ostend was commanded during the siege by four successive governors: Charles Vandernoot and Robert de Vere (an English general) were killed, and Frederic van Dorp was dangerously wounded. Daniel de Hortain lord de Marquette survived, and signed the capitulation.

The archduke Albert and his consort Isabella made their triumphal entry into what they expected to find the city; instead of which, their terrified looks glanced over the horrors of an immense cemetery, where mutilated human bodies were intermingled with masses of smoking ruins. They could not contemplate such a scene without reflecting, that so much important time had been thrown away, so much blood and treasure expended, for the forrowful conquest of a sterile bank of sand and a misshapen heap of rubbish. During the siege the garrison was frequently renewed: the besieged sustained a loss of about 50,000 men, whilst that of the besiegers amounted to more than 80,000. See an anecdote connected with this siege under the word ISABELLA, vol. xi. p. 394.

Ostend, being a convenient seaport, soon rose from its ashes. The Netherlands having passed to the house of Austria, it remained under that government till the French revolution. In 1648, the French attempted to carry the place by a *coup de main*. They embarked in bateaux for that purpose a select corps of two thousand men; but the flotilla was intercepted, and most of the troops killed or made prisoners. The town was compelled to sustain another siege in the year 1706. The allies, commanded by field-marshal Nassau de Overkerke, sat down before it on the 23d of June, whilst it was blockaded by an English Squadron under admiral Fairborn. After undergoing a furious bombardment, which again reduced the place to ruins, it surrendered, on capitulation, the 6th of July following. Ostend then received a Dutch garrison; but it was restored to the emperor by the barrier-treaty, concluded in 1715. From this date, Ostend began greatly to prosper. The emperor Charles VI. established an East-India Company there, which had so much success, that it excited the commercial jealousy of the Dutch, English, and French. The court of Vienna was induced to abandon this fertile source of wealth, from political and diplomatic intrigue. It is even affirmed, that a *douceur* of ten millions of florins caused the India-Company of Ostend, with all its rights and charters, to be transferred to Amsterdam. After this, the place soon began to decline: two thousand of its richest and most commercial citizens transported themselves, their wealth, experience, and industry, to other places; and, though various attempts were made to revive its trade, for which purpose, in 1781, it was declared a free port, yet it never could recover itself.

Before its absolute decay, Ostend was fated once more to suffer a destructive siege. When the battle of Fontenoy had laid open all Flanders to the French, Ostend was besieged by count Lowendhal. He sat down before the place on the 23d of August, 1745; and, after thirteen days' open trenches, and five days' bombardment, (which dilapidated the greater part of the buildings, and, among the rest, the superb Maison de Ville,) it surrendered upon honourable terms. The garrison amounted to 3600 men, most of whom were English. Louis XV. made his triumphal entry into Ostend on the 3d of the following September; but it was again restored to Austria by the peace of Aix la Chapelle. When the emperor Joseph II. caused all the towns of the Austrian Netherlands to be unfortified, Ostend was dismantled, but its ramparts remained entire.

On the breaking out of the French revolution, the battle

battle of Jemappe put this maritime fortrefs into the hands of the republicans. The fubfequent reverfes of Dumourier reftored it to the Auftrians. Become now a fort of military shuttlecock, it was again placed at the difpofal of the French; when the fatal battle of Fleurus opened all the Netherlands, and Holland itfelf, to the enemy. The Englifh government having at all times appreciated the importance of Oftend, planned an expedition, in 1700, to furprife the place, or at leaft render it ufelefs to the enemy. About three thoufand men, under the command of fir Eyre Coote, difembarked without oppofition near the city, and immediately proceeded to deftroy the flood-gates, and blow-up the locks which joined the inner harbour to the canal of Bruges, and fituated about a mile and a half outfide the fortifications. After effecting this fervice, the troops attempted to re-embark; but, in the mean time, the weather had become ftormy, and fo great a furf broke on the beach, that no veflel, not even a boat, could approach it. The little army was therefore obliged to bivouac on the fand-hills; and the next day, the wind blowing ftill frefter, it found itfelf furrounded by numerous military corps, called in from all the neighbourhood. A partial action took place, in which the Englifh had about a hundred men killed and wounded, the general being among the latter. No way of efcape being open, the fmall force had the mortification to ground their arms and become prifoners, even within view of the fleet, which could not poffibly affift it. Napoleon meditated great improvements for Oftend; but the fuperior importance of Antwerp engroffed all his care. That city and Oftend were the laft places which the French reluctantly evacuated, agreeably to the late treaty of Paris. Oftend lies twelve miles weft of Bruges, ten miles and a half north-eaft of Nieuport, thirty-one miles and a half north-eaft-by-eaft of Dunkirk. It is fcarcely twenty marine leagues eaft-by-fouth from Ramfgate. Lat. 51. 30. N. lon. 3. 3. E. from London. *Ackerman's Repository*, vol. xiv.

OSTEN'D, a town of Africa, on the Ivory Coaft: thirty miles north-eaft of Cape Palmas.

OSTEN'SIBLE, *adj.* [*oftendo*, Lat. to fhew.] Such as is proper or intended to be fhown.—I take this opportunity of expreffing my furprife, that this *oftenfible* comment of the dumb-flew fhould not regularly appear in the tragedies of Shakfpeare. *Wharton's Hift. E. P.*—Colourable; plaufible.—He had, as dictator, an *oftenfible* right to the cuftody and command of this; and, under pretext of this oftenfible, he by force of arms feized it. *Pownall on Antiq.*

OSTEN'SIO, *f.* A tax anciently paid by merchants, &c. for leave to *fhew*, or expofe their goods to fale, in markets.

OSTEN'SIVE, *adj.* Showing; betokening.

OSTEN'T, *f.* [*oftentum*, Lat.] Appearance; air; manner; mien:

Ufe all the obfervance of civility,
Like one well ftudied in a fad *oftent*,
To pleafe his grandam. *Shakfpeare's Merch. of Ven.*
Show; token. Thefe fenfes are peculiar to Shakfpeare:
Be merry, and employ your chiefeft thoughts.
To courtfhip, and fuch fair *oftents* of love,
As fhall conveniently become you there. *Shakfpeare.*

A portent; a prodigy; any thing ominous:

Latinus, frighted with this dire *oftent*,
For counfel to his father Faunus went. *Dryden.*

To OSTEN'TATE, *v. a.* [*oftento*, Lat.] To make an ambitious difplay of; to difplay boaftingly.—Who is fo open-hearted and fimple, but they either conceal their defects, or *oftentate* their fufficiencies, fhort or beyond what either of them really are? *Bp. Taylor's Artif. Handfom.*—So far I muft needs *oftentate* my reading, as to affure you, that I have viewed with my own eyes, and tranfcribed from all the originals, whatever I have fet down. *Fleetwood's Chron. Pretiofum.*

OSTENTA'TION, *f.* [Fr. from *oftentatio*, Lat.] Outward fhew; appearance.—March on my fellows; make good this *oftentation*. *Shakfpeare's Coriol.*

You are come

A market-maid to Rome, and have prevented

The *oftentation* of our love. *Shakfpeare.*

Ambitious difplay; boaft; vain fhew. *This is the ufual fenfe.*—He knew that good and bountiful minds were fometimes inclined to *oftentation*, and ready to cover it with pretence of inciting others by their example, and therefore checks this vanity: Take heed, fays he, that you do not your alms before men, to be feen. *Atterbury.*

With all her luftre, now, her lover warms;
Then out of *oftentation* hides her charms. *Young.*

A fhew; a fpectacle. *Not in ufe.*—The king would have me prefent the princes with fome delightful *oftentation*, fhew, pageant, antic, or firework. *Shakfpeare's Love's Lab. Loft.*

OSTENTA'TIOUS, *adj.* Boaftful; vain; fond of fhew; fond to expofe to view.—Your modefty is fo far from being *oftentatious* of the good you do, that it blufhes even to have it known; and therefore I muft leave you to the fatisfaction of your own confidence, which, though a filent panegyric, is yet the beft. *Dryden.*

OSTENTA'TIOUSLY, *adv.* Vainly; boaftfully.

OSTENTA'TIOUSNESS, *f.* Vanity; boaftfulnefs.

OSTENTAT'ITIOUS, *adj.* Oftentatious. *Cole.*

OSTEN'TATIVE, *adj.* Apt to boaft; oftentatious. *Phillips.*

OSTENTA'TOR, *f.* [Fr. from *oftento*, Lat.] A boafter; a vain fetter to fhew. *Sherwood.*

OSTENTIFEROUS, *adj.* [from the Lat. *oftentum*, a prodigy, and *fero*, to bring.] Producing omens; bringing prodigies.

OSTEN'TOUS, *adj.* Fond of fhew; fond to expofe to view.—Sometimes we ought to be thankful for an enemy. He gives us occafion to fhew the world our parts and piety, which elfe, perhaps, in our dark graves would fleep and moulder with us quite unknown; or could not otherwife well be feen without the vanity of a light and an *oftenfuous* mind. *Feltham.*—Such rude and imperfect draughts being far better, in their efteem, than fuch as are adorned with more pomp, and *oftentatious* circumftances. *Evelyn.*

OSTEOCOLLA, *f.* [from the Gr. *oflon*, bone, and *κόλλα*, to glue together.] A white or afh-coloured fparry fubftance, in fhape like a bone, and by fome fupposed to have the quality of uniting broken bones, on which account it is ordered in fome plafter; a fuppofition, we fear, which is not warranted by experience.

It is found in long, thick, and irregularly-cylindric, pieces, which are in general hollow, but are fometimes filled up with a marly earth, and fometimes contain within them the remains of a ftick, round which the ofteocolla had been formed; but, though it is plain from thence, that many pieces of ofteocolla have been formed by incrustations round fticks, yet the greater number are not fo, but are irregularly tubular, and appear to be formed of a flat cake, rolled up in a cylindric fhape. The ofteocolla is found of different fizes, from that of a crow-quill to the thicknefs of a man's arm. It is compofed of fand and earth, which may be feparated by wafhing the powdered ofteocolla with water; and is found both in digging, and in feveral brooks, in many parts of Germany, and elfewhere. It is called *hammofteus* in many parts of Germany. It has this name in thefe places from its always growing in fand, never in clay, or any folid foil, nor even in gravel. Where a piece of it any-where appears on the furface, they dig down for it, and find the branches run ten or twelve feet deep. They ufually run ftraight down; but fometimes they are found fpredding into many parts near the furface, as if it were a fubterraneous tree, whole main ftem began at twelve feet depth, and thence grew up in a branched manner till met by

by the open air. The main trunk is usually as thick as a man's leg; and the branches that grow out from it are thickest near the trunk, and thinner as they separate from it. The thinnest are about the size of a man's finger.

The osteocolla found in the earth is at first soft and ductile; but in half an hour's time, if exposed to the air, it becomes as hard as we find it in the shops. The method to take up a perfect piece for a specimen, is to open the ground, clear away the sand, and leave it so for an hour or thereabouts: in this time it will harden, and may be taken out whole. It is certain that the osteocolla is produced at this time; for, if a pit be cleared of it, there will more grow there in a year or two, only it will be softer, and will not harden so easily in the air as the other.

The above account is chiefly from the Phil. Transf. N° 39. for the year 1668. And, in a subsequent volume, for 1739, two surgical cases are given, in which the exhibition of osteocolla as medicine and as food, was supposed to have contributed very considerably to the formation of bone, so as to restore what had been lost by compound fracture and exfoliation. Mr. Ambrose Bearer, of Norimberg, (Phil. Transf. 1748.) endeavours to prove, that osteocolla is the petrified root of the black poplar-tree, *Populus niger*. But see the experiments of Margraf, in the Mem. of the Berlin Academy for 1748.

OSTEOCOPE, *f.* [from the Gr. *οστέον*, a bone, and *κοπέω*, to cut.] Pains in the bones, or rather in the nerves and membranes that encompass them.

OSTEOLOGER, *f.* A describer of the bones.—*Osteologists* have very well observed, that the parts appertaining to the bones, which stand out at a distance from the bodies, are either the adnate or the enate parts. *Smith on Old Age.*

OSTEOLOGIST, *f.* An anatomist; one skilled in osteology.

OSTEOLOGY, *f.* [from the Gr. *οστέον*, bone, and *λογος*, a discourse.] A description of the bones.—Richard Farlow, well known for his acuteness in dissection of dead bodies, and his great skill in *osteology*, has now laid by that practice. *Taitler.*

OSTEOSPERMUM, *f.* [from the Gr. *οστέον*, bony, and *σπέρμα*, seed; in allusion to its hard bony seeds.] In botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia necessaria, natural order of compositæ discoidæ, (corymbiferae, *Juss.*) Generic characters—Calyx: common simple, hemispherical, many-leaved; leaflets awl-shaped, small. Corolla: compound rayed; corollets, hermaphrodite very many in the disk; females about ten in the ray. Proper of the hermaphrodite tubular, five-toothed, the length of the calyx; of the female ligulate, linear, three-toothed, very long. Stamens: in the hermaphrodites; filaments five, capillary, very short; anther cylindrical, tubulous. Pistillum: in the hermaphrodites; germen very small; style filiform, scarcely the length of the stamens; stigma obsolete: in the females, germen globular; style filiform, the length of the stamens; stigma emarginate. Pericarpium: none; calyx unchanged. Seeds: in the hermaphrodites, none; in the females, solitary, subglobular, coloured, at length hardened, inclosing a kernel of the same shape; pappus none. Receptacle: naked, flat.—*Essential Character.* Calyx simple, or in two rows, many-leaved, almost equal. Seeds globular, coloured, bony, (berried or nucamentaceous, *Gartner.*) Down none; receptacle naked. There are seventeen species, all natives of the Cape of Good Hope.

1. *Osteospermum spinosum*, or prickly osteospermum: spines branched. This is a low shrubby plant, which seldom rises above three feet high, and divides into many branches; the ends of the shoots are beset with green branching spines; the leaves are very clammy, especially in warm weather; they are long and narrow, and set on without any order. The flowers are produced singly at the ends of the shoots; they are yellow, and appear in

July and August. It is very nearly allied to the next species. The fruit hangs down on an oblong peduncle, and consists of dusky-purple, bony, globular, berries, disposed in a ring. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. Cultivated in 1700 by Dr. Uvedale. It flowers from February to October.

2. *Osteospermum pififerum*, or smooth osteospermum: leaves lanceolate, mucronate, subpetioled, smooth, ferrate; branchlets angular-toothletted. Stem four or five feet high, dividing into many branches towards the top, which spread out flat on every side; they have a purplish bark. Leaves of a thick consistence, and succulent, alternate, of a light-green colour, from two to three inches long, and one inch broad in the middle; more pointed than in the rest. Berry oval, at first green, then red, but, when fully ripe, of a dark-purple colour, having a thin pulp, which covers one hard seed. It produces tufts of yellow flowers at the extremity of the shoots, from spring to autumn; and frequently ripens seeds. It was cultivated in 1757 by Mr. Miller.

3. *Osteospermum moniliferum*, or poplar-leaved osteospermum: leaves obovate, ferrate, petioled, subdecurrent. This rises with a shrubby stalk seven or eight feet high, covered with a smooth grey bark, and dividing into several branches. Flowers in clusters at the ends of the branches, six or eight coming out together on petioles an inch and a half long; they are yellow, and shaped like those of ragwort (*Senecio Jacobæa*), having about ten ligulate florets in the ray. This plant flowers but seldom in England; the time of its flowering is July or August. It was cultivated here in 1714.

4. *Osteospermum ilicifolium*, or holm-leaved osteospermum: leaves oblong, tooth-angulate, rugged, half-embracing; branches grooved. Leaves sessile, angular, with three teeth on each side, rolled in at the edge; above rugged, beneath villose.

5. *Osteospermum ciliatum*, or fringe-leaved osteospermum: leaves elliptic-lanceolate, crenate, ciliate. This is a woolly shrub, with oblong, toothed, ciliate, leaves.

6. *Osteospermum junceum*, or reedy osteospermum: leaves linear, acute, keeled, distant; panicle terminating. Stem five feet high, upright, stiff and straight, even. Leaves awl-shaped or linear, stiff, even, sessile, very remote.

7. *Osteospermum triquetrum*, or three-sided osteospermum: leaves linear, three-sided. Stem suffruticose; leaves even, a finger's length, abundant. Flowers from the uppermost axils, solitary, yellow.

8. *Osteospermum corymbosum*: leaves lanceolate, smooth; flowers panicled. Stem upright, the thickness of a finger. Leaves alternate, sessile, stiff, a finger's length, on the flowering branches smaller, rugged at the edge. Flowers yellow. Seeds oblong, larger than grains of wheat.

9. *Osteospermum imbricatum*: leaves ovate, blunt, imbricate. Stem two feet high. Peduncle terminating, filiform, the length of the flower; one-flowered, pubescent, leafless; corolla yellow. It differs from *O. polygaloides*, in not having the leaves lanceolate, or acute, or keeled; and the peduncles without a linear leaflet.

10. *Osteospermum herbaceum*: leaves ovate, subsessile, spatulate, ferrate; stem herbaceous. This resembles a *Verbesina*. Leaves exactly spatulate.

11. *Osteospermum niveum*: leaves ovate, petioled, toothed, woolly. The whole herb is covered with a thick and very white lanugo.

12. *Osteospermum perfoliatum*: leaves ovate, petioled, angular-toothed, tomentose underneath, petioles perfoliate-embracing. This is singular in having the petiole dilated at the insertion, like a little wheel round the stem.

13. *Osteospermum polygaloides*: leaves lanceolate, scattered, decurrent, smooth, quite entire, axils woolly. Stalk about four feet high, dividing into many small branches. The flowers come out at the end of the branches, standing singly on peduncles about an inch long.

long. The stem between the leaves has frequently villose hairs on it, like those on the bag of the silk-worm. It was cultivated by Mr. Miller in 1759.

14. *Osteospermum calendulaceum*: leaves lanceolate, sessile, toothed, rugged; stem fleshy, lax. This resembles *Calendula arvensis* very much, and thence has its name; but it differs in the seeds not being winged, but cylindrical, bony, and smooth.

15. *Osteospermum arctotoides*: leaves lyrate, petioled; petioles eared at the base, half-embracing, tomentose. In the surface, the figure of the herb, and leaves, and almost in the flower, this species resembles an *Arctotis*, but in the smoothness of its seeds an *Osteospermum*. *Linn. Suppl.*

16. *Osteospermum rigidum*, or rigid *osteospermum*: leaves toothed-pinnatifid, hairy; branches unarmed. Introduced by Mr. Francis Masson in 1744. It flowers from April to July.

17. *Osteospermum cæruleum*, or blue-flowered *osteospermum*: leaves pinnate; pinnas toothed. This is an undershrub, three feet high, with a strong smell. Root woody, branching, fibrous. Stem somewhat woody, erect, round, regularly branched, grey. Leaves alternate, spreading; they are without veins, and have only one nerve prominent beneath; they are of the same colour on both sides, and fragrant; from an inch and a half to two inches in length, and fifteen lines in breadth. Flowers blue, an inch wide. Seeds obovate, somewhat angular and rugged, not at all bony. *L'Heritier.*

Propagation and Culture. These plants, being too tender to live in the open air in England, are placed in the green-house in October, and may be treated in the same manner as myrtles, and other hardy green-house plants, which require a large share of air in mild weather; and, in the beginning of May, the plants may be removed into the open air, and placed in a sheltered situation during the summer-season. The first and second sorts must have plenty of water, being very thirsty plants. They are propagated by cuttings, which may be planted in the summer-months upon a bed of light earth, and should be watered and shaded until they have taken root, which they will in five or six weeks, when they must be taken up and planted in pots: for, if they are suffered to stand long, they will make strong vigorous shoots, and will be difficult to transplant afterwards, especially the second and third sorts. During summer the pots should be frequently removed, to prevent the plants from rooting through the holes at the bottom of the pots into the ground, which they are very apt to do when they continue long undisturbed, and then they shoot very luxuriantly; and, on their being removed, these shoots, and sometimes the whole plants, will decay. See *POLYMNIA*.

OSTER, a river of Russia, which runs into the Desna near Kozeltz, in the government of Kiev.

OSTER, a town of Russia, in the government of Kiev, at the union of the rivers Oster and Desna: twenty-four miles north of Kiev. Lat. 50. 58. N. lon. 31. 14. E.

OSTER CAPPELN, a town of Westphalia, in the bishopric of Osnaburg: ten miles east-north-east of Vorden.

OSTER O'EN, an island near the coast of Norway: twenty miles north-west of Bergen.

OSTERBURG, a town of Westphalia, in the Old Mark: thirty-six miles north-west of Brandenburg, and sixty west-north-west of Berlin. Lat. 52. 48. N. lon. 11. 56. E.

OSTERBY, a town of Sweden, in the province of Upland. This place is remarkable for its furnaces; and near it is the iron-mine of Dannemora, one of the largest and richest in Sweden. It was first opened in 1527; and the ore yields from 70 to 90 per cent. to the amount of 18,000 tons annually: twenty-four miles north of Upsal.

OSTERFELD, a town of Saxony, in the bishopric of Naumberg: eight miles west of Zeitz, and seven south-east of Naumberg. Lat. 51. 5. N. lon. 11. 53. E.

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OSTERHOFEN, a town of Bavaria, on the Danube: nine miles north-west of Vilzhofen, and twenty north-west of Passau.

OSTERHOLZ, a town of the duchy of Bremen. The principal trade of the inhabitants is digging peat or turf, of which they sell to the amount of 18,000 rix-dollars yearly to the inhabitants of Bremen: seven miles east of Bremen.

OSTERLOF, a town of Sweden, in the province of Schonen: eight miles north of Christianstadt.

OSTERMARK, a town of Sweden, in East Bothnia: eighteen miles north-east of Christianstadt.

OSTERO, a small island on the east side of the gulf of Bothnia. Lat. 63. 23. N. lon. 21. 39. E.

OSTEROD, a town of Norway: twenty-eight miles north-north-west of Drontheim.

OSTERO'DE, a town of Westphalia, in the principality of Grubenhagen, on the Saal. It contains about 800 houses, and a magazine for corn, which is delivered out to the miners of Harz Forest always at a fixed price. Here is a manufacture of woollen stuffs. It is sixteen miles south-west of Goslar, and eighteen east-south-east of Einbeck. Lat. 51. 44. N. lon. 10. 16. E.

OSTERO'E, one of the Feroer-islands, east of Stromoe, from which it is separated by a narrow channel. Lat. 61. 50. N.

OSTERRO'DE, a town of Prussia, in the province of Oberland, on the river Dribentz, defended by a castle: sixty-five miles south-east of Dantzic, and seventy south-south-west of Königsberg. Lat. 53. 36. N. lon. 19. 52. E.

OSTERSUND, a town of Sweden, and capital of Jamtland, on the east side of the lake Storfio: ninety-five miles west-north-west of Hernofand, and eighty-six north-west of Sundswall. Lat. 63. 10. N. lon. 14. 27. E.

OSTERSUNDOM, a town of Sweden, in the province of Nyland: nine miles north-east of Helsingfors.

OSTERTZ, a town of Croatia: fourteen miles south-west of Varasdin.

OSTERVALD (John-Frederic), a celebrated Swiss protestant divine, was descended from an ancient and noble family, and born at Neufchatel in the year 1663. He commenced his academical studies at Saumur, where his proficiency was so rapid, that he was admitted to the degree of M.A. before he was sixteen years of age. Afterwards he pursued his studies at Orleans and Paris, and was admitted to the office of the ministry. We have no account of his settlement with any church in the capacity of pastor before the year 1699, when he entered into that relation with the church at his native place. He contracted an intimate friendship with the celebrated John Alphonfus Turretin of Geneva, and the learned Samuel Werenfels of Basil; and the union of these three theologians, which was called the *triumvirate of Swiss divines*, lasted till their deaths. M. Osterwald died in 1747, about the age of eighty-four. He was the author of several useful works, written in the French language, of which the principal are, 1. A Treatise concerning the Causes of the present Corruption of Christians, and their Remedies, 8vo. 2. A Catechism, explaining the Grounds and Principles of the Christian Religion, 8vo. prefixed to which is An Abridgment of the Sacred History, which was adopted by the Society at London for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, and translated into Arabic, in order to be sent to the East Indies; and the author also had the compliment paid him of being admitted an honorary member of the society. 3. A Discourse against the Sin of Uncleanness, 8vo. 4. A Collection of Sermons. 5. Ethica Christiana. 6. Theologia Compendium. 7. A Treatise on the Sacred Ministry, 8vo. The three pieces last mentioned were collected from his public discourses and lectures, and printed without his knowledge; but met, nevertheless, like all his other performances, with a very favourable reception from the public. The three first pieces on the above list were translated into the Eng-

G lish,

lish, Dutch, and German, languages. M. Ostervald also published an edition of the Geneva French version of The Holy Bible, with arguments and reflections, in folio.

His eldest son, JOHN RODOLPH OSTERVALL, became pastor of the French church at Basil, where he worthily sustained the honour of being a descendant from so excellent a man, and published a treatise held in much estimation by French Protestants, and entitled "The Duties of Communicants," 12mo. *Ency. Brit.*

OSTERWICK, a town of Pomerelia: ten miles south-south-east of Dantzic.

OSTERWICK, a town of Westphalia, in the principality of Halberstadt, on the Ilse, containing several woollen manufactures: thirteen miles west of Halberstadt, and fifteen north-east of Goslar. Lat. 50. 59. N. lon. 10. 33. E.

OSTERWITZ, a citadel of the duchy of Carinthia: four miles east of St. Veit.

OSTERZELLE, a town in the kingdom of the Netherlands: nine miles south-south-east of Ghent.

OSTHAMMAR, a seaport-town of Sweden, in the province of Uppland, formerly a staple-town, on a small rocky island called *Gold Sheor*, in the Aland's Haff, near the coast. It is thirty miles north-east of Upsal. Lat. 60. 15. N. lon. 18. 19. E.

OSTHAN, or OSTEN, a river of France, which runs into the Chiers three miles above Montmedy.

OSTHEIM, a town of the duchy of Wurzburg: two miles west-north-west of Volckach.

OSTHEIM, a town of Germany, in the margravate of Anspach: four miles east of Wassertrudingen.

OSTHEIM, a town of Germany, in the county of Henneberg: eight miles south-west of Meinungen.

OSTHEIM, a town of Bavaria, in the territory of Rothenburg: five miles south of Rothenburg.

OSTHEIM VOR DE RHÖNE, a town of Germany, in the county of Henneberg: six miles south-west of Meinungen.

OSTHOFEN, late a town of France, in the department of Mont Tonnerre: two miles north-north-west of Manheim, and five north of Worms.

OSTIA, a town of Italy, situated at the mouth of the Tiber, about twelve miles to the westward of Rome. It was built by Ancus Martius, the fourth king of Rome; and was called *Ostia Tiberina*, in the plural number, i. e. the Two Mouths of the Tiber, which were separated by the Holy Island, an equilateral triangle, whose sides were each of them computed at about two miles. The colony of Ostia was founded immediately beyond the left or southern, and the port immediately beyond the right or northern, branch of the river; and the distance between their remains measures something more than two miles on Cingolani's map. In the time of Strabo, the sand and mud deposited by the Tiber had choked the harbour of Ostia; the progress of the same cause has added much to the size of the Holy Island, and gradually left both Ostia and the port at a considerable distance from the shore. Its port was one of the most stupendous works of Roman magnificence, and it was a long time one of the best towns on the coast; but, having been destroyed by the Saracens, and the harbour choked up, as mentioned above, it has not been able since to recover itself. Though it be an inconsiderable place, and but poorly inhabited, by reason of the badness of the air, yet it is the see of a bishop, who is always deacon of the cardinals, and crowns the pope. The Old Ostia, where are the ruins of the ancient harbour, is beyond New Ostia, towards the sea; the latter is but a little cluster of houses, built round the cathedral, with a small castle. It is twelve miles south-west of Rome. Lat. 41. 46. N. lon. 12. 13. E.

There were salt-works in Ostia, called *Salinae Ostiensis*, as early as the time of Ancus Martius (Livy); from which the *Via Salaria*, which led to the Sabines, took its name (Varro). It gave name to one of the gates of Rome, which was called *Ostiensis* (Ammian).

OSTIAKS, a people of Siberia in Asia, subject to the Russians, and comprehending three tribes. Before the Russians conquered Siberia, it was under the dominion of the Tartars, who gave the name of *Ouschtaiak*, signifying "savage," to the nations who inhabit it, as a mark of their contempt: hence they were called Ostiaki. The Ostiaks are divided into three very distinct people, both in descent and language; viz. the Ostiaks of the Oby, of the Narym or Narym, and of the Yenissey.

The Ostiaks of the Oby are held to be the most numerous of the three tribes; but accurate statements of the amount of their population are wanting. The Ostiaks of the Southern Oby call themselves *Ajjaks*, from the river Oby, which in their language is called *Yak*; the northern, *Khondi Khui*, People of Konda, because they withdrew from that river towards the north.

The Narym Ostiaks, who are also called Morases, are about the upper parts of the Surgut, in the districts of the Oby quite to the Narym, and about the mouths of the rivers Ket and Tom.

The Yenissey Ostiaks, though they resemble the two other nations of that name in appellation and mode of life, yet speak a language so entirely different from that of the Ostiaks, as well as from all the Siberian tongues, that they might rather be taken for a race of a particular nation, though not the smallest indications of their origin have been hitherto discovered. These dwell about the inferior Yenissey, near and between the Samoyedes. When the Russians, in the seventeenth century, had extended their conquest hither, these Ostiaks not only immediately submitted, but also assisted the Russians to subdue the neighbouring nations.

The Ostiaks are the most numerous nations of Siberia, where the population, on account of the rigour of the climate, is not very great. These people seldom exceed the middle size, and are not remarkable for their beauty; their complexion is yellowish, and their hair generally a deep-red; yet they are not ill made. They are in a state of great barbarism; and get their living chiefly by hunting and fishing, as none of them cultivate the soil. They have neither horses, oxen, nor sheep; their live stock consists of rein-deer, which they employ in draught. Their dress is generally formed of the skins of different animals and furs. They wear short trowsers; their stockings are made of skin, which go all over the feet, and serve them for boots, which they strengthen by placing the skin double for the sole. They have a sort of jacket next their skin; and over all they put a long coat with close sleeves, which has a hood that entirely covers the head, and only leaves out the face; and, in very cold weather, they even wear another over this. *Costume of the Russian Empire*; 1804.

In the winter they build their huts in woods and forests, where they find the greatest plenty of game, and dig deep in the earth, to secure themselves from the cold, laying a roof of bark or rushes over their huts, which are soon covered with snow. In summer they build above ground on the banks of the rivers, to enjoy the convenience of fishing; and make no difficulty of forsaking their habitations. They have a sort of princes among them, in one of whose houses some European travellers found four wives. One of these had a red cloth coat on, and was set off with all sorts of glass beads. There was no other furniture than cradles and chests, made of the bark of trees sewed together. Their bed consisted of wood-shavings, almost as soft as feathers.

Their religion is pagan; and they have some little idols, representing men and animals, made of wood and earth, all of which are dressed in silks, in the manner of Russian ladies. In general, however, they are ill made, every man being his own carver. They place them on the tops of hills, in groves, and in the pleasantest places their country affords, and sometimes before their huts; yet they have no set time for performing religious worship, but apply to their gods for success in their occasional undertakings.

takings. As they have no regular priests, every old man may devote himself to that service; and the office is frequently performed by the masters and heads of families. Strahlenberg says that, when he was among them, he saw one of their temples, which was built of wood in an oblong form, like a great barn, covered at the top with birch-bark. At the end of the wall supporting the gable was a kind of altar, made of timber, on which were placed two idols, representing a man and woman, dressed in all sorts of tawdry rags; and round these were other small figures, as deer, foxes, and hares, all which were roughly carved in wood, and also clothed. They did not appear to have much devotion, nor any great reverence for their idols. When they offer sacrifices, they present the beast to the idol; and, having bound it, an old man puts up the petitions of those who brought the offering; he then lets fly an arrow at the beast, and the people assist in killing it. It is then drawn three times round the idol; and, the blood being received into a vessel, they sprinkle it on their houses; they afterwards dress the flesh and eat it, rejoicing and singing their country-songs: they also besmear the idol with the blood of the sacrifice, and grease their mouths with the fat. What they cannot eat they carry home to their families, and make presents of it to their neighbours: they as often sacrifice a fish as a beast. At the conclusion of the feast they shout, to show their gratitude to the idol for his attending and accepting their devotions; for they are persuaded that the saint or hero represented by the image always attends their sacrifices, and that, when they are over, he returns to his abode in their air.

The Ostiaks are obliged to take an oath of fidelity to the Russian government; and on these occasions they use the following ceremony. After laying down a bear-skin and an axe, and holding over it a piece of bread on a knife, they say, "In case I do not to my life's end prove true and faithful to the supreme government of the country, or if I knowingly and willingly break through my allegiance, or be wanting in the duty I owe to the said supreme government, may the bear tear me to pieces in the wood; may the bread I eat stick in my throat and choke me; may the knife stab me, and the axe cut off my head."

OSTIA'NO, a town of Italy: twelve miles north-east of Cremona.

OSTIA'NY, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: forty miles south-east of Wilna.

OSTIARY, *f.* [*ostium*, from *os*, mouth, Lat.] The opening at which a river disembogues itself.—It is received that the Nilus hath seven *ostiaries*; that, is by seven channels disburtheneth itself into the sea. *Brown*.—Formerly an ecclesiastical officer.—The office of the *ostiary* was to open and shut the church-doors, to look to the decent keeping of the church, and the holy ornaments laid up in the vestrie. *Weever*.

OSTICO, a small lake of America, in Onondago-county, New York, which sends its waters from the north end by a stream of sixteen miles long to Salt-lake.

OSTIGLIA, a town of Italy: ten miles east-south-east of Mantua.

OSTIMURI, a town of New Mexico, in the province of Hiaqui: forty miles east of Riochico. Lat. 29. 12. N. lon. 110. 56. W.

OSTINGHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in Westphalia: eight miles west of Lippstadt, and four north-east of Werl.

OSTINS TOWN, or CHARLES TOWN, a town of the island of Barbadoes.

OSTIONES, a small island in the Pacific Ocean, near the coast of America. Lat. 4. 10. N.

OSTISCO, or OSTICO, a lake of New York: eight miles south-west of Onondago Castle.

OSTLER, *f.* [*hofselier*, Fr.] The man who takes care of horses at an inn.—The smith, the *ostler*, and the boot-catcher, ought to partake. *Swift*.

OST'LERY, *f.* [*hofselerie*, Fr.] The place belonging to the ostler.

OST'MEN, *f. pl.* [*i. e.* *Eastmen*, as coming from a country *east* of Ireland. *Ostmanni*, low Lat.] Danish settlers in Ireland.—Anlave was chief of the *Ostmen* in that island, and styled king of Dublin. *Ld. Lyttelton*.

OSTRACH, a village of the grand duchy of Baden, in the territory of Salmsweiler: five miles north-east of Pfullendorf.

OSTRACH, a river of Germany, which runs into the Danube about a mile below Scheer.

OSTRA'CION, *f.* the TRUNK FISH; in ichthyology, a genus of the order branchiostegi. Generic characters.—Teeth round, pointing forwards, blunt; aperture of the gills linear; body mailed by a complete bony covering; no ventral fins.

This genus of fishes is easily distinguished by a hard bone or shell covering the whole body except the tail. They resemble consequently the tortoise, but especially the echini; for, like these, their armour is in divisions ornamented with pearly tubercles; and, like the former, their shells are occasionally shed, or come away in the dressing. These bony plates generally have an hexagonal form, decorated with radiated figures or a slight network. The head is truncated; the mouth is small, opening at the extremity; the teeth are blunt, standing close together, and of an orange-colour; the lips are movable, and red; the tongue is short, fixed, and smooth, as is the palate. The eyes are at the top of the head, near together, with a bony ledge or eyebrow hanging over, to protect them from accidents; these ledges form a furrow on the top of the head. The nostrils are small and long, sometimes single, sometimes double, and near the eyes. The gill-aperture is long, narrow, and curved. The back is sharp, and arched in some species, and in others it is broad. The sides are very long, high, and compressed above. The surface of the belly is broad and long; and the vent is near the tail-fin. The tail is naked, smooth, and movable, below the round furrow which is seen on each side of the shell. There is no appearance of lateral line or of scales. They have five fins; two pectorals under the aperture of the gills, which, having the same direction as in the Diodon mola, or sun-fish, cannot assist its progressive motion, but only enable it to keep a balance, or to turn on one side; but, the tail being at liberty, the fish can, by its means, turn any way, or go forwards; for this organ, which is very strong, performs the office of pectoral and tail fin in most fish, and of dorsal and tail in the sun-fish. The other three fins are the dorsal, anal, and tail; the two first are small, like the pectorals; but the fin of the tail is large. The fins are all of a round figure, with branched rays; ventral fins, none. These are carnivorous fish, and haunt the East and West Indian Seas, and the Red Sea. Their flesh is little in quantity, but well-tasted. Gmelin's Linnæus has ten species, Turton's twelve; Cope has fifteen, of which he makes four divisions.

1. Ostracion triquetrum, the smooth trunk-fish. Specific character, the body triangular and without spines, the pieces of shell convex. There are 17 rays in the pectoral fins, 12 in the anal, 14 in the tail, and 11 in the dorsal. The under is the narrowest of the three sides; all three are broad in the middle, and diminish towards the extremities; they form together an acute angle, and a convex rim at the back and belly; the lower rims are smooth and blunt, the upper one sharp and uneven. If the fish be cut in pieces directly through, or from back to belly, each piece forms a triangle, not entirely regular. The shell is in hexagonal pieces rising up towards the middle, upon each of which is a white tubercle. The nostrils are long, and near the eyes. The pupil of the eye is black, in a white iris inclosed in a yellow circle. The body is of a red-brown; the fins yellow. The tail is long, ornamented with round white spots edged with dark-brown.

The

The fins are rounded with ramified rays. This species is from the East and West Indies, living on shell-fish, and growing to the length of a foot and a half. It is so much esteemed as food, that only the rich can procure it; for, according to Brown, it surpasses all the fish of America. This large species is shown on the annexed Plate, at fig. 1.

2. *Ostracion concatenatus*, the fettered trunk-fish: body triangular, without spines, and marked with chain or network. There are 12 rays in the pectoral fins, 9 in the anal, 8 in the tail, and 10 in the dorsal. The sides are narrower, the back less arched, and the extremities of the back and belly more even, than in the preceding. By help of a magnifier, a curious arrangement is observable on the surface of the shell; each piece is composed of six triangles, four of which have almost equal sides, and the two middle ones have long sides; these last being connected with their bases, and their angles touching the adjoining piece, form that chain-work of which we have spoken; but those interfections disappear by degrees towards the belly, because all the triangles become isosceles, or of equal sides. The edges of these pieces are raised, and of a white colour. The aperture of the mouth is small; the upper jaw rather the longest, and five teeth in each. The pupil of the eye is black, with a yellow border, and a green iris. The head is ash-colour, with some stripes of blue. The sides are violet inclining to grey; and the belly is white, as is the network on the shell. The tail is brownish; the fins of a dirty-red. Plumier found this in the Antilles.

3. *Ostracion trigonus*, the triangular trunk-fish: the back arched, 14 rays in the dorsal fin, subcaudal spines 2. There are 12 rays in the pectoral fins; 7 in the tail, 9 in the anal. The surfaces of the three sides are higher in this fish than in any of the other species of this genus; the head is also larger, and more truncated. The mouth is very small; there are ten teeth in the upper jaw, eight in the lower. On the sides, the pieces of armour are raised in the centre, on the belly at the rims; they are marked with lines, on which are strong pearly tubercles. The eyes are large, with a black pupil and golden iris. The head is grey, inclining to yellow; the body yellow, shaded with brown; the fins are yellow, inclining to blue at the extremities, with strong ramified rays; the spines at the anus are very strong, and channelled or fluted. This fish grows a foot long or more. It is natural to the Antilles and Brasil, feeding on coral and the animals it finds therein; Marcgrave found sand or gravel in the stomach, which probably had been taken in to help digestion, as in many birds. The same author found one of these in the stomach of a spotted perch, (*Perca guttata*;) which proves that the hard shell it is covered with does not protect it from the voracious tribes. Duterre says, that, when caught, it grunts like a hog, which has gained it the name of *sea-hog*. The flesh is hard and tough. It is caught with a net; it will bite at a bait; but, if not drawn up quickly, it bites the hook in two with its strong teeth.

4. *Ostracion biaculeatus*, the two-spined trunk-fish: the body triangular and spotted, two spines near the anus. There are 13 rays in the pectoral fins, 9 in the anal, 8 in the tail, and 10 in the dorsal. The eyes are large, with a black pupil and reddish iris; the nostrils are single, and near the eyes. There are sixteen teeth in the upper jaw, and twelve in the lower. The surface of this fish is rough to the touch, and covered all over with black spots, as is the tail and its fin, but not the other fins. The colour of the body is grey, mixed with pale-yellow; the fins are yellow, which is darker towards the extremities, with ramified rays. This species is found in the East Indies; it is from a foot to a foot and a half long; its food is like the preceding.

β. There is a variety of this, which Lister, Ray, Artedius, and Klein, have made a separate species. But the construction is entirely the same; the only difference is, that, instead of the round black spots, each piece of armour has the appearance of a star with six rays. Perhaps

both are only varieties of the *O. trigonus*. The pectoral fins have but 11 rays.

5. *Ostracion tricornis*, the three-spined trunk-fish: body triangular; one spine on the back, and one over each eye. The spines on the forehead are nothing more than prolongations of the bony covering near the eyes, extending to a point, and directed forwards. It is found in the Indian Sea.

Cepede remarks, that the authorities brought by Gmelin for this species belong to other ostracions; and that the remarks of Daubenton and Bonaterre, in the *Encyclop. Method.* should have been applied to Lister's trunk-fish, and not to this.

6. *Ostracion quadricornis*, the four-spined trunk-fish: body triangular, with four spines. There are 6 rays in the pectoral fins, 8 in the anal, 10 in the tail, 7 in the dorsal. In this species, the surfaces of the sides are somewhat broader than the preceding, and the forehead not so flat. The eyes are oval, with a dark-blue pupil enclosed in a yellowish iris. There are fourteen teeth in the upper jaw, and twelve underneath. The shell is rough to the touch, because of the little tubercles with which it is beset. The colour of this fish is brown inclining to red, with long brown spots in various directions. The fins are yellow, with branched rays; the tail is of the same colour; with black spots; its fin is large, but the dorsal and anal are short. The back is arched. Two of the spines are upon the forehead, the other two under the tail. This species inhabits the seas of Jamaica, the Antilles, Guinea, and the East Indies, growing about fifteen inches long. It is not very fleshy, nor much esteemed as food.

7. *Ostracion Lister*, the five-spined, or Lister's, trunk-fish: body triangular; one large spine under the tail. This species has five spines, four of them placed similar to the *quadricornis*; but the two under the belly seem to have been overlooked by Artedius, Daubenton, and Bonaterre, (or rather the two latter have copied the former,) for they have called it the three-spined. As Lister (ap. Will. Ichthyol. p. 19.) first described it properly, Cepede has given it his name. The spine on the tail, below or behind the armour of the body, is hard, pointed, and as long as the anal fin; it is nearer the caudal fin than to the edge of the bony case. The dorsal fin is nearer to the head than the anal is. The scales on the tail cannot be distinguished during the life of the fish. On the back, and on the sides of the head, appear large undulated spots. Its native country is not known.

8. *Ostracion turritus*, the sea-camel: body quadrangular, with a large elevation; one spine on the eyebrows and back, 4 on each side the belly. There are 12 rays in the pectoral fins, 10 in the anal, tail, and dorsal. This fish is broader at bottom than at top. The lower edges are sharp, the upper rims blunt or round. At the lower edge are from three to five short strong spines bent back; it is probable that their number increases with the age of the fish; and there is a spine of the same kind over each eye. The upper surface rises gradually on each side into an eminence or hump, which is broad, thin, and radiated, crowned with a short thick strong spine, bending backwards. The divisions of the shell are marked with lines, and their edges are raised; and, being composed sometimes of six triangles, sometimes of seven or eight, they are either six, seven, or eight, sided; and, the raised edges being of a white colour, the body seems as if covered with a net. The colour of the body is faint-yellow; the head brown, the fins grey; a few round spots of a brown colour are seen on different parts of the body. The head is large and truncated; the mouth a little protruded. There are twelve teeth in the upper jaw, and eight in the lower. The pupil of the eye is black, not entirely round, with a golden iris. The gills have a large aperture; the membrane has only one ray. This species inhabits the Red Sea and the East Indies; it is particularly plentiful about the Molucca Isles. Some say it grows to the length of ten

OSTRACION.



1. Smooth Trunk-fish. 2. Sea Cucumber. 3. Horned Trunk-fish. 4. Caudal Trunk-fish. 5. Beaked Trunk-fish.
Engraved for the Encyclopædia Britannica 1840.

or twelve inches; Cepede says a foot and a half; Linnæus, four inches. Its modes of living are the same as the other species of this genus. The flesh is tough and hard; the liver is large, and yields plenty of oil. The Europeans in the Indies despise it; but the negroes have a method of cooking it so as to make a palatable dish. It is represented, from a small specimen, at fig. 2.

9. *Ostracion cornutus*, the horned trunk-fish: body square, armed with four long spines, two at the head and two at the anus. There are 11 rays in the pectoral fins, 10 in the tail, 9 in the anal and dorsal. Of the four sides, the belly is the broadest, the back the narrowest; the four form an acute angle. The head is short, and much truncated, the rostrum declining almost perpendicularly. The eyes are large, with a black pupil, the iris yellowish-green; and near them are the nostrils. There are usually ten teeth in the upper jaw, and eight in the lower. The pieces of armour rise in the middle, and are rough to the touch; some of these pieces are hexagonal, some heptagonal. The body is of a yellowish-brown colour; the fins yellowish, except the tail, which is brown, and very dark towards the end; the tail and its fin are very long. This singular fish is found in the East Indies, and at the Moluccas. It is eight or ten inches long, and lives in the manner of the preceding species. It is known also at the Bahama Isles, where however it seldom exceeds four inches in length. Its spines defend it from the voracious tribes; only the *Anarhichas lupus*, or wolf-fish, will venture to attack it; and he sometimes loses his life by the spines wounding his entrails. The flesh is hard, tough, and difficult of digestion; so that only the common people eat of it: according to Renard, the liver is so fat, that it melts almost entirely into oil. This is represented at fig. 3.

10. *Ostracion auritus*, the eared trunk-fish: brown, with a spine over each eye, two on each side the back and abdomen, and one on each side the body. Habit thick, broad, and short, with the back very convex; shape subtriangular; above each eye a very strong, thick, sharp-pointed, spine, curving backwards, so as to give the resemblance of a pair of ears; on each side the middle of the ridge of the back two others of similar appearance: on each side the abdomen two more, and on each side the middle of the body a single spine, shorter than the rest. Colour of the whole animal deep-brown, except the spines and fins, which are pale: length of the specimen described, about four inches and a half; pectoral fins somewhat lanceolate; tail nearly even, but with a slight approach towards a lunated shape. Native of the Indian Seas: observed during the voyages of Capt. Cook; and preserved in the British Museum. It is represented at fig. 4. from Dr. Shaw's Gen. Zool. and Nat. Miscel.

11. *Ostracion striatus*, the striped trunk-fish: yellow and blue stripes on the body; a spine over each eye, two on each side the back and abdomen, and one on each side the body. Size and habit of the preceding. Colour a beautiful variation of bright-blue and yellow, in the form of lines disposed in different directions, but principally in a longitudinal one, over the whole fish; above each eye a strong spine as in the former; on the ridge of the back two pair, disposed as in that species; and on each side the abdomen three, the middle of which is higher than the rest. Fins and tail pale-blue, the dorsal and anal fin blue and yellow at the base, and the tail (which is slightly lunated) edged with yellow; all the spines are of a blue colour. Whether this fish be a sexual difference, or a distinct species, may perhaps be doubted; for the eared trunk-fish may in reality be no other than the present animal, changed entirely in colour from having been long preserved in spirits of wine. Described by Dr. Shaw, from a drawing by Capt. G. Tobin, by whom it was observed about the coasts of Adventure Bay in Van Diemen's Land.

12. *Ostracion tetragonus*, the dotted trunk-fish: body quadrangular; little radiated tubercles, but no polygonal figures, on the bony covering; small white spots all over the body. There are 10 rays in the pectoral fins, 9 in the

dorsal, 11 in the anal, 10 in the tail, which is rounded. Commerçon found this species in the Mauritius, or Isle of France. It is only about six inches long. The white lenticular spots are innumerable, not only on the shell, but on the bare parts; they are somewhat larger on the back; larger still, and running one into the other, upon the belly; and are the more remarkable, as the ground-colour is brown. The jaws are equally protruded; the teeth frequently of a dark colour, and commonly ten in each jaw. Under each eye there is a broad, flat, or rather hollowed, space, carved out in a very peculiar manner.

13. *Ostracion tuberculatus*, the tuberculated trunk-fish: body quadrangular, four large tubercles at right angles upon the back, but no spines. This species differs from the preceding only in the tubercles mentioned above; they lie pretty far back, distant from the head. Native of India.

14. *Ostracion oblongus*, Commerçon's trunk-fish: body quadrangular; a tubercle above the mouth, another below. Ten rays in each pectoral fin, 9 in the dorsal and anal, 10 in the tail, which is rounded. This species also is described by Cepede from Commerçon's MSS. It is covered with hexagonal plates and radiated tubercles; the plates on the back are black in the centre; but the general colour of the armour is dirty-red. The fins are brown; the extremity of the tail, the iris of the eye, the intervals of the pieces about the opercula of the gills, are of a bright-yellow; the under parts of the body are of a faint dirty-yellow. The snout is blunt; the mouth small; the teeth are brown, ten in each jaw. The tubercles, which form the specific character, are whitish, and of a cartilaginous substance; one in front of the aperture of the mouth, the other, which is the largest, underneath. The tongue is a shapeless cartilage, somewhat rounded, and whitish. The nostrils are small, and very near the eyes. The gills are four on each side; the concave part of the semicircles which sustain them are minutely serrated. It grows a foot long: was observed by Commerçon at Isle Pralin.

15. *Ostracion gibbosus*, the hunch-back trunk-fish: body quadrangular, a bunch on the back; no spines. Gmelin doubts whether it may not be a variety of the *triqueter*, or smooth trunk-fish; he leaves it a distinct species, however, to which the singular rising on the back seems to entitle it. Knorr has a figure and description of a fish which has been taken for an *Ostracion*, and is called *porte-crête* in the plates of the *Encyclopédie Methodique*; that fish seems to belong to the *Lophius*; but the design is very incorrect, and was probably made from a mutilated specimen, so that no reliance can be placed upon it. Inhabits Africa.

16. *Ostracion cubicus*, the square fish: body quadrangular, with white spots; each fin has 10 ramified rays, no spines; sides flattish, narrow, and long, the lower broader than the upper. The shell in this species is divided into hexagonal pieces, upon each of which is a white spot inclosed in a brown circle; these pieces are of a darker colour towards the back than in the centre. The lips are large; the upper jaw has twelve teeth, the lower ten. The eyes are oval; pupil black; iris yellow. The apertures of the gills are smaller than in the other species. The sides are grey; the head yellowish; the tail brown; the pectoral fins reddish, the others mostly grey. There are little risings on the shell, which render it rough. This fish is caught in the waters of Arabia, and in the East Indies, especially in the Mauritius. It grows about a foot long, living on worms and insects, like the rest of the genus. Forskael says its flesh is very well tasted; Renard adds, that it may be tamed so as to come to the surface and eat out of your hand.

17. *Ostracion nasus*, the beaked trunk-fish: a nasal protrusion above the mouth; nine strong branched rays in each fin. The four sides of this fish are nearly of equal length; they meet in acute angles; and, being long and narrow, the fish forms nearly an oblong square, or parallelogram.

leogram. Each piece of armour is composed of seven smaller pieces, which, by their raised edges, form a star with six rays; in the centre of each star is a round red spot made up of small tubercles; and several spots of the same colour appear upon the head and back. The eyes are large, with a black pupil and white-and-green iris. There are fourteen teeth in the upper jaw, and twelve in the lower. The principal colour of this fish is grey; the fins are reddish; and there are brown spots on the head and tail. This species is found at the mouth of the Nile, and in the Nile. In other respects it resembles the preceding. This is shown at fig. 5.

18. *Ostracion meleagris*, the speckled trunk-fish: body quadrangular, blackish-brown, speckled with white. Length from six to eight inches; habit similar to that of the *O. cubicus*, being of the same square shape; mail divided into hexagons, and of a deep blackish chestnut colour, each division being marked with numerous small white spots; naked or projecting part of the body marked in the same manner; fins and tail whitish, with chestnut-coloured rays; eyes white. Native of the Indian Seas: observed during Capt. Cook's voyages about the coasts of New Holland, Otaheite, &c. *Shaw's Naturalist's Miscellany*, t. 253.

OSTRACISM, *f.* [ὀστρακισμός, Gr.] A manner of passing sentence, in which the note of acquittal or condemnation was marked upon a shell which the voter threw into a vessel. Banishment; public censure.—This man, upon a slight and false accusation of favouring arbitrary power, was banished by *ostracism*; which in English would signify, that they voted he should be removed from their presence and councils for ever. *Swift*.

Hyperbolus by suffering did traduce
The *ostracism*, and sham'd it out of use. *Cleveland*.

OSTRACISM, in Grecian antiquity, denotes the banishment of such persons whose merit and influence gave umbrage to the people of Athens, lest they should attempt any thing against the public liberty. This punishment was called *ostracism*, from the Greek word ὀστρακον, which properly signifies a shell; but, when applied to this object, it is used for the billet on which the Athenians wrote the names of the citizens whom they intended to banish. The learned are divided with regard to the substance of which this billet was formed: some insist that it was a small stone, or a piece of brick; some that it was a piece of bark; and others assert that it was a shell. The word admits most of these interpretations. But what determines its true sense, is the epithet given it by ancient authors, of *ceramitè mastix*; which words signify, "the punishment of potter's clay:" and this expression seems to us a proof, that the word ὀστρακον, when applied on this occasion, signifies a piece of baked earth in the form of a shell; and, undoubtedly, the Latin authors had this idea of the word here, for they translated it by *testula*.

The ancients are likewise divided with regard to the time when ostracism was instituted; but they all agree, that the person who moved the law was its first victim: but, as to the name of its patron, and the time of its establishment, they differ extremely.

However that be, the punishment of ostracism was inflicted by the Athenians when their liberty was in danger. If, for instance, jealousy or ambition had sowed discord among the chiefs of the republic; and if different parties were formed, which threatened some revolution in the state; the people assembled to propose measures proper to be taken, in order to prevent the consequences of a division which in the end might be fatal to freedom. Ostracism was the remedy to which they usually had recourse on these occasions; and the consultations of the people generally terminated with a decree, in which a day was fixed for a particular assembly, when they were to proceed to the sentence of ostracism. Then they who were threatened with banishment omitted no assiduity or art which might gain them the favour of the people.

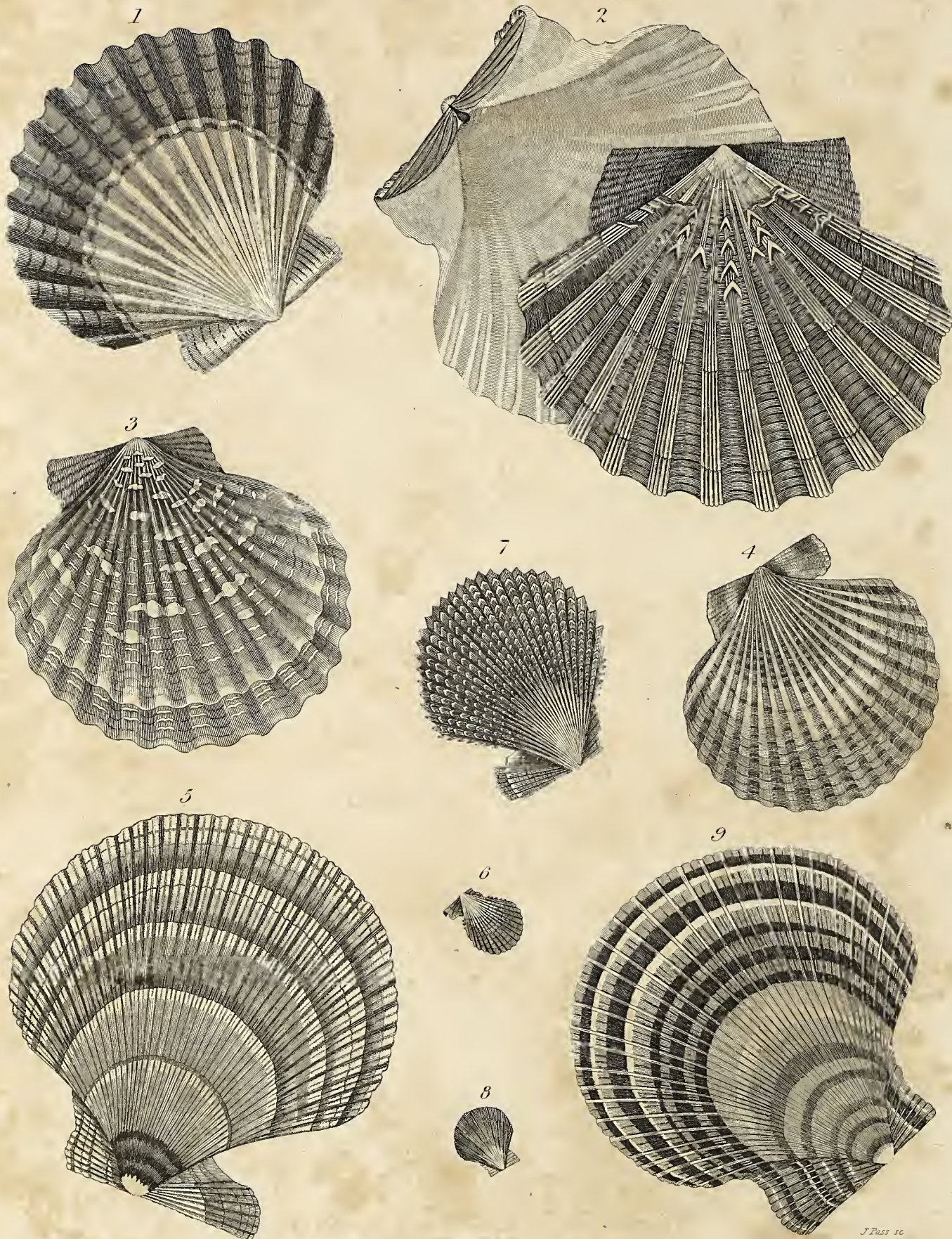
They made harangues to evince their innocence, and the great injustice that would be done them if they were banished. They solicited, in person, the interest of every citizen; all their party exerted themselves in their behalf: they procured informers to vilify the chiefs of the opposite faction. Some time before the meeting of the assembly, a wooden inclosure was raised in the forum, with ten doors, that is, with as many as there were tribes in the republic; and, when the appointed day was come, the citizens of each tribe entered at their respective door, and threw into the middle of the inclosure the small brick on which the citizen's name was written whose banishment they voted. The archons and the senate presided at this assembly, and counted the billets. He who was condemned by six thousand of his fellow-citizens, was obliged to quit the city within ten days; for six thousand voices, at least, were requisite to banish an Athenian by the ostracism.

The Athenians, without doubt, foresaw the inconveniences to which this law was subject; but they chose rather, as Cornelius Nepos hath remarked, sometimes to expose the innocent to an unjust censure, than to live in continual alarm. Yet, as they were sensible that the injustice of confounding virtue and vice would have been too flagrant, they softened as much as they could the rigour of ostracism. It was not aggravated with the circumstances which were most dishonourable and shocking in the ordinary mode of exile. They did not confiscate the goods of those who were banished by ostracism. They enjoyed the produce of their effects in the places into which they were banished; and they were banished only for a certain time. But, in the common banishment, the goods of the exiles were always confiscated, and no hopes were given them of ever returning to Athens.

This punishment, far from conveying the idea of infamy, became, at Athens, a proof of merit, by the objects on which it was inflicted; as Aristides the sophist justly observes, in his second declamation against the Gorgias of Plato, that ostracism was not an effect of the vindictive spirit of the people against those whom it condemned; that it was only meant to prune the luxuriant growth of transcendent merit; that it condemned to an exile of ten years only those illustrious men who were accused of being exalted far above other citizens by their conspicuous virtue; and that none of that public indignation was shown to the exiles by ostracism, which commonly breaks out against criminals.

Such were the mitigations with which this law was introduced among the Athenians; and by them we see that they were sensible of all the inconveniences to which it was subject. They were indeed too enlightened a people not to foresee the many instances of injustice which it might produce; that, if in some respects it would be favourable to liberty, in others it would be its enemy, by condemning citizens without allowing them a previous defence, and by making a capricious and envious people arbiters of the fate of great men. But, however great these inconveniences were, this law would still have been of service to the state, if the people by whom it was instituted had always had discernment to give it force on such occasions only as endangered liberty. But the people of Athens, naturally jealous and envious, at length availed themselves of it to remove men of eminent merit from the state, by whose presence they were reprovved or intimidated. The fear of tyranny was commonly but a specious pretext with which they veiled their malignity. The repeated victories which they had gained over the Persians, had rendered them, says Plutarch, proud and insolent. Intoxicated with their prosperity, they arrogated all its glory to themselves; they were jealous of those citizens whose political and military talents were the subjects of public eulogium. They thought the glory acquired by great men diminished their own reputation. An Athenian no sooner distinguished himself by a splendid action, than he was marked out as a victim by public

OSTREA.



1. The large Pecten, or Pilgrims Scallop. 2. the Jacobea. 3, 4 the subrufa. 5. the obliterated. 6, 7. varia. 8. Absoluta. 9. Islandica.

public envy. His reputation was a sufficient reason for his banishment. Such was the case with Aristides and some others. See the article GREECE, vol. viii. p. 856.

OSTRACITE, *f.* [from *ostrea*, Lat.] The common oyster in its fossil state. Ostracites are of various shapes and kinds; and the name is by some authors made to signify the shell itself, when preserved in its native state and condition, as is the case with those found about Woolwich and Blackheath; and by others, the stones cast or formed in those shells, or in cavities from whence they have been washed away and dissolved. In both these cases the stone carries the exact resemblance of the shell, even in its nicest lineaments; in the first case, bearing every mark of the inside, in the other, of the outer surface. We have this stone in great plenty in many parts of England; and it is very famous, in some places, for its virtues in cases of the gravel, and the like complaints. Dr. Home, in the Phil. Trans. says, the ostracites rather dissolves the little stones than forces them out, as not being remarkably diuretic. He adds, that he prescribes it in powder, with a third part of flores chamæmeli. The dose is from half a drachm to a whole one, in white wine.

It is to be observed, that all the fossil shells, and particularly the *lapides Judaici*, or Jews' stones, which have been the spines of sea echini, have been esteemed diuretics, and good in the stone and gravel. Among the ancients, Dioscorides, Pliny, and all the rest, recommend them highly.

OSTRACITES is also the name of a kind of cadmir, found at the bottom of furnaces where copper is purified. It is very heavy, and in structure resembles an oyster-shell; whence its name. It has been esteemed astringent and detergent; and introduced as an ingredient in several unguents.

OSTRAU', a town of Moravia, in the circle of Hradisch, on an island in the river Marſch: seven miles south of Hradisch.

OSTRAU', or **OSTROW MA'HRISCH**, a town of Moravia, in the circle of Prerau, on a river of the same name, on the borders of Silesia: twenty miles south-east of Troppau, and forty east-north-east of Prerau. Lat. 49. 47. N. lon. 18. 17. E.

OSTRA'VA, or **OS'TRAWICE**, a river which separates the principality of Teschen from Moravia, and runs into the Oder five miles south of Oderburg.

OSTREA, *f.* The OYSTER; in natural history, a genus of the class *vermes*, or worms, order testacea. Generic characters—Animala tethys; shell bivalve, generally with unequal valves, and slightly eared; hinge without teeth, but furnished with an ovate hollow, and mostly lateral transverse grooves: thus they are immediately distinguished from the genus Arca, in not having teeth alternately locking in each other.

This genus comprehends the two extensive families of Pectens or Scallops, and Oysters; and there are no less than a hundred and thirty-six species in the whole. In both divisions, the animal is well known as a nutritive and valuable food. Both scallops and oysters are found plentifully in the Indian Seas; the Mediterranean, the American Ocean, and in the European seas, where they constitute a considerable article of commerce. The scallops grow a sort of coarse byssus; and have the agility of leaping full half a yard out of the sea, at which time they open their shells, and spout out the stale water within them; after which they rapidly sink, taking in fresh water, and closing their shells with a loud snap, which betrays their beds to the watchful fisherman.

The difference between the Oyster and the Scallop is so obviously impressed by the hand of nature on the respective shells which compose them, that few writers on this subject have passed silently over the impropriety of thus placing them together. The Scallop differs from the oyster in being endowed with a higher locomotive power: the animal is different in having the branchiæ cirrhatæ,

or fringed; in being furnished with a kind of foot, like the Cardium echinatum, delineated in the Helminthology Plate IV. fig. 2. which it protrudes from the shell near the auricle of the hinge; and in throwing out a byssus similar to the pinna and the muscle, by which it fixes itself to other bodies. Aristotle, and other ancient writers, attribute to the scallop the power of springing from place to place on the sea-shore. Argenville describes its movements both in the water and out; he relates, that when left dry, by a sudden closing of its valves, assisted by the foot, it has the power of springing four or five inches at a jerk, repeating this motion in order to regain its element. "In the water, (he says,) it has the power of rising and sustaining itself near the surface, turning about in various directions, and on any alarm suddenly closing the valves and sinking to the bottom. The Oyster, on the contrary, has the branchiæ simple, and not fringed, and is unfurnished either with a foot or with byssus; and its powers of motion consist in turning either the flat or convex side upwards or downwards; and even to effect this, the animal is said to take advantage of the force of the ebbing or flowing of the water to assist it." Yet still, in the articulation of the hinge, the generic character holds good.

I. SCALLOPS. *Valves furnished with ears, and radiate.*

1. Equilateral; ears of the valves equal.

1. *Ostrea maxima*, the large pecten, or pilgrim's scallop: shell with fourteen rounded longitudinally-friate rays. This is delineated by Mr. Donovan, in his British Shells. There are two other varieties described by Lister and Knorr: our representation, at fig. 1. on the annexed Plate, is from the latter. These are found in most European seas, in large beds; whence they are dredged up, and pickled and barrelled for sale. This is the shell that was formerly worn by pilgrims on the hat or coat, as a mark that they had crossed the sea, for the purpose of paying their devotions in the Holy Land; in commemoration of which it is still preserved in the arms of many families. The shell is five or six inches long, and rather broader; the ears are large, with decussate striæ; the hinge with a large deep hollow; lower valve convex, white, often varied with red bands or spots; the upper valve is flat and reddish.

2. *Ostrea Jacobæ*: shell with about fourteen angular and longitudinally-friate rays. It inhabits European seas. The grooves of the shell are transversely friate; the upper valve is flat; the lower valve with angular rays; the ears are concave and smooth on the upper side. See fig. 2.

3. *Ostrea ziczac*: shell with flattened rays. It inhabits the American Ocean; sometimes of one colour, sometimes variegated; the ears are very finely wrinkled; the lower valve is convex, with from eighteen to twenty rays, which are very finely friate transversely, and about twice the number of perpendicular striæ within. The upper valve is flat.

4. *Ostrea striatula*: shell with sixteen faint rays and transverse membranaceous striæ; the margin very entire. It is found in the Indian Ocean. The shell is middle-sized, varied with purple and white, within yellowish.

5. *Ostrea minuta*: shell with twenty convex rays. It inhabits the Indian Ocean. The shell is about the size of a nut: lower valve white, and very convex; upper valve white clouded with brown, flatter and plaited.

6. *Ostrea pleuronectes*: shell equivalve, with twelve doubled rays, and smooth on the outside. It inhabits the Indian Ocean; it is sometimes reddish, or of a flesh-colour, or liver-colour; within it is silvery. There is a variety of an orange-colour radiate with red; it is four inches and a half long, and gaping at each end.

7. *Ostrea Laurentii*: upper valve sub-convex, smooth, with fine perpendicular lines crossing very fine concentric transverse striæ; lower valve with twenty-four rays and forty-

forty-eight striae within. It is found on the shores of South America, and is very rare. The shell is nearly three inches long, and about as broad.

8. *Ostrea Japonica*: shell equivalve, a little convex, margined with yellow; upper valve with faint lines crossing concentric transverse bands, and forty elevated striae within. It is found on the shores of Guinea and Japan; is about five inches and a half long and broad, and resembles the *O. pleuroneustes*, but is coarser and thicker.

9. *Ostrea Magellanica*: shell equivalve, glabrous, with oblong crowded striae. It is found in the straits of Magellan: it resembles the *O. pleuroneustes*. The shell is lateritious, not radiate, quite smooth within; upper valve more convex; lower valve flatter than in most others, the ears are transversely striate.

10. *Ostrea hybrida*: shell with nine or ten rays, the interstices longitudinally striate; margin repand within. It inhabits the Norway seas; thin, lower valve white, upper valve sanguineous, with angular veins and lines.

11. *Ostrea radula*: shell nearly equivalve, with twelve convex rays crossed by crenate striae. It is found in the Indian Ocean; is three inches and a quarter long, and two and a half broad. The shell is oblong, white, or varied with white and brown; the lower valve is a little more convex; ears wrinkled, and furrowed with oblique striae.

12. *Ostrea imbricata*: shell nearly equivalve, with nine unequal rays, imbricate with scales. It is found on the shores of the Red Sea; and resembles the preceding. The colour of the shell is whitish with purple spots, and a little crenate at the margin; the rays alternately larger.

13. *Ostrea subrotunda*: shell roundish, with eight convex chefnut rays; ears roundish, white with a yellowish border. The shell is one inch and a half long, and two inches broad.

14. *Ostrea plica*: shell nearly equivalve, with six convex smoothish rays, and striate acrofs. It inhabits India; is about one inch and a quarter long, and an inch broad. The shell is white, or white spotted with brown, or red spotted with white; the transverse striae are placed at a distance from each other.

15. *Ostrea crenata*: shell roundish with convex rays, the outer ones finely striate longitudinally; margin deeply crenate. The ears are transversely striate.

16. *Ostrea sinuosa*: shell ovate, with very numerous and fine striae; the margin crenate within. It inhabits the British seas; shell varied with saffron.

17. *Ostrea squamosa*: shell oblong, with scaly rays, the interstices broader, and marked with perpendicular striae. The shell is varied with angular lines and spots; ears wrinkled, perpendicular.

18. *Ostrea dubia*: shell roundish, with eighteen rays imbricate with scales. The shell is nearly half an inch long; ears striate transversely.

19. *Ostrea subrufa*: shell with twenty smooth rays, the interstices transversely striate; margin crenate. This is described and figured in Donovan's British Shells. It is found on the British shores, and is about two inches long, and two inches broad. See figs. 3, 4.

20. *Ostrea vericolor*: shell flattened, with eighteen smooth rays, the interstices cancellate. The shell is of a pale-yellow, white, sea-green, blackish, or red; ears transversely striate.

21. *Ostrea rosea*: shell roundish, with five rays. The shell is middle-sized, rosy, with white rays, or green, mixed with yellowish, lurid, and leek-green, with livid rays.

22. *Ostrea fusca*: shell brown, with flat rays that disappear towards the hinge. It inhabits the Indian Sea. The shell is white within; lower valve convex, upper valve flat.

23. *Ostrea tenuis*: shell thin, flat, purple, with very minute perpendicular striae crossing circular transverse ones; within the striae are elevated.

24. *Ostrea lutea*: shell thin, pale-yellow, with thick rays.

25. *Ostrea muricata*: shell roundish and white, with a

mixture of saffron; the rays convex, and very finely and sharply muricate.

26. *Ostrea conspersa*: shell roundish, tawny, dotted with white and black; the rays are thick.

27. *Ostrea nodulosa*: shell roundish, brown, with black transverse lines and dots; the rays are convex and knotty.

28. *Ostrea radiata*: shell thin; the colour is whitish-rosy, with white stripes; the rays convex.

29. *Ostrea punctata*: shell oblong, pale-yellow spotted with white; beaks varied with white and brown; the rays are crenate. The shell is about two inches long; ears cancellate.

30. *Ostrea aculeata*: shell thin, varied with rosy and whitish; in form it is rather roundish; the rays are thick, with aculeate scales.

31. *Ostrea plana*: shell thin, flat, white, with a saffron hinge; the rays are round and broad.

32. *Ostrea pusilla*: shell oblong, red, and very minutely striate.

33. *Ostrea flavescens*: shell convex on each side, and yellowish within; the rays are convex.

34. *Ostrea flabellum*: shell roundish, deep-red, with a white hinge, and a few spots. The rays are smooth.

35. *Ostrea spondylades*: shell glabrous-red, the ears equal.

36. *Ostrea violacea*: shell flattish on each side; the outside brown, the inside violet. It inhabits the Mediterranean.

37. *Ostrea aurantia*: shell roundish, plaited, and very finely striate longitudinally, with a white semicircular band towards the hinge.

38. *Ostrea vittata*: shell purple within, without with alternate brown and red bands; the rays are convex.

39. *Ostrea miniata*: shell white, with confluent red spots; the rays rough; the convex valve with transverse crisp lamellæ. The shell of this species is about an inch and a half long, and the same in breadth.

40. *Ostrea inflata*: shell convex on each side, closed, oblong, pellucid, with thirty-two rays. This is a very rare species; it is ochraceous, thin, and twice as long as it is broad.

2. Ears unequal, one generally ciliate, with spines within.

41. *Ostrea pallium*; the ducal mantle: shell equivalve, with twelve convex rays; the scales are striate, rough, and imbricate. There are three varieties. They are found in India. The shell is solid, red, varied with brown and white; ears striate, crenate, or scaly, one of them longer; margin of the shell denticulate.

42. *Ostrea sanguinolenta*: shell equivalve, with nine thick obtuse rays; the interstices longitudinally striate, tuberculate, prickly. It is found in the Red Sea; resembles the preceding. The shell is white, with sanguineous spots; the margin with crenate plaits, the border purplish; ears with transverse nodulous striae.

43. *Ostrea maculosa*: shell equivalve, pale-yellow, with tawny spots; twelve rays thick and flattish; ears white, with dull ferruginous marks, and transverse scaly ribs.

44. *Ostrea nodosa*: shell with nine rays, covered with apparently-verrucular tubercles. There are three varieties. They inhabit the American and African Oceans. The shell is sometimes red or scarlet, sometimes varied with red and white, or tawny and white, mixed with yellow; the upper valve is more convex than the lower; the ear is spinous within and beneath. This is represented on the CONCHOLOGY Plate XV. fig. 2. vol. v.

45. *Ostrea pes felis*, or cat's-foot scallop: shell with nine striate rough rays; one of the ears very small. It is found on the shores of Africa; is small, thin, pellucid, generally pale flesh-colour, spotted and veined; within glabrous white, with subundulate rays and crenate plaits on the margin; the ears with transverse knotty striae.

46. *Ostrea pellucens*: shell nearly equivalve, with nine rays, smooth, with spoon-like hemispherical scales on the lower

lower valve. It inhabits the African seas; is ovate, minute, pellucid, glabrous, white; the upper valve spotted with red.

47. *Ostrea obliterata*: shell smooth on the outside, with twenty-four doubled rays. It inhabits the Indian Ocean. The shell is marked with very fine decussate striæ; the lower valve pale-reddish, and yellowish at the hinge; upper valve dirty-red, or pale-tawny. See the annexed Plate, fig. 5.

48. *Ostrea sanguinea*: shell equivalve, with twenty-two rough rays; the ears are small. It inhabits the Mediterranean, Atlantic, and American, seas. The shell is round and flattish, red, scarlet, or tawny; the spaces between the rays are longitudinally striate.

49. *Ostrea varia*: shell equivalve, with thirty compressed rays beset with transverse prickly scales; one ear very small. It is found in most European seas; varies very much in colour, from pale-yellow to various shades of orange and brown, with sometimes a few white spots. The shell is rather convex, with rough jags or spinous protuberances down the rays; spaces between the rays not striate; one ear very small, with a double row of spines; the other with wrinkled plaits, and armed beneath with from five to seven spines. See fig. 6, 7.

50. *Ostrea pusio*: shell equivalve, with about forty filiform rays, the surface often irregular or distorted. It is found in the European, Atlantic, and American, seas. The shell is generally small, and a little longer than it is broad; sometimes it is seen with a smooth surface, but mostly with an irregular-waved surface, as if deformed by an accident. In its colours and marks it is very variable, but commonly of a fine red; one of the ears is very small, the other sharply spined beneath.

51. *Ostrea obsoleta*: shell smooth, equivalve, semi-transparent, dark-purple, with eight nearly-obsolete rays. Inhabits British coasts; three quarters of an inch long. Shell thin, the valves equal and shallow, within smooth and brown, with a pearly gloss; outside dull purplish-brown, with numerous longitudinal striæ between the rays; ears very unequal, wrinkled. A small species; see fig. 8.

52. *Ostrea lævis*: shell very smooth; ears ribbed. Inhabits Anglesea and Falmouth; is more than half an inch long.

53. *Ostrea glabra*: ears nearly or quite equal. Shell equivalve, with from ten to fifteen smooth flattish rays; the inside with elevated double striæ. It inhabits the European and American seas; nearly two inches long, and as many broad; roundish; red, yellow, or brown, spotted or clouded, sometimes white, with the upper valve spotted with brown; margin repand.

54. *Ostrea opercularis*: shell with about twenty rays, roundish, and rough, with decussate striæ; the upper valve a little more convex. It inhabits the northern seas of Europe; and is two inches and a half long and broad. The shell is gaping, generally variegated with spots and other marks; rays acute, sometimes rounded; margin repand and toothed within; ears with decussate wrinkled striæ, the larger one emarginate and spinous under the incisure. In Devonshire and Cornwall, where it is found, it is called *frill* or *queen*.

55. *Ostrea gibba*: shell equivalve, gibbous, with twenty glabrous rays. It inhabits the American and Atlantic seas. The shell is convex on each side, red, with sometimes a few white spots, and marked with fine crenate longitudinal striæ; margin crenate; ears nearly equal.

56. *Ostrea fulcata*: shell white, with flesh-colour spots; the rays glabrous, thirty-two on the lower valve, and twenty-five on the upper. It inhabits the shores of Malabar; is about one inch and a half long, and something broader; margin plaited, crenate; lower valve with an emarginate spinous ear, upper valve flattened.

57. *Ostrea histronica*: shell thin, flattened, pellucid,

with very fine transverse wrinkles, and eleven rays. The shell is spotted with red, white, and black; rays waved; ears nearly equal.

58. *Ostrea islandica*: shell orbicular, with purple circles, and about one hundred rays. It inhabits the Mediterranean, in innumerable varieties. The shell is three inches and a half long, and three inches and a quarter broad; sometimes whitish, but mostly mixed with a fine pale-bloom or yellowish, and marked with transverse semilunar bands; upper valve more elegantly marked, with from fifty to one hundred rays, rough, with acute imbricate scales; margin crenate; ears with transverse scaly striæ, the large one emarginate and spinous; the fish is eaten. This beautiful species is represented at fig. 9. from Knorr.

59. *Ostrea triradiata*: shell nearly equivalve, glabrous, immaculate, with very minute striæ. It is found among fuci in the seas of Norway. The shell is red, with small white spots, within reddish; upper valve with three rays; ovary of the fish yellowish.

60. *Ostrea fuci*: shell nearly equivalve, striate, spotted, rough towards the margin. It inhabits the North Seas, on the *Fucus saccharinus*. The shell is rufous, with whitish or paler spots; within red, and quite smooth, with pellucid spots; rays of the upper valve obsolete; ovary of the fish rich red. See the article *HELMINTHOLOGY*, Plate IV, figs. 8, 9. vol. ix.

61. *Ostrea tigrina*: shell nearly equivalve, striate, glabrous, red with whitish spots. It inhabits the North Seas, on fuci. Lower valve more deeply grooved, and varied with large undulate confluent pale-yellow spots; upper valve dotted; ovary of the fish white.

62. *Ostrea septem-radiata*: shell nearly equivalve, striate, glabrous, with seven convex rays. It inhabits the Northern Seas.

63. *Ostrea arata*: shell nearly equivalve, within and without grooved and red; one part rough, the other glabrous. It inhabits the North Sea.

64. *Ostrea senatoria*: shell convex each side, with twenty-two rounded and transverse wrinkled rays, the interstices with longitudinal granulate striæ. It inhabits the Indian Ocean; two inches nine lines long, and about as much broad, outside chestnut varied with violet and white; inside violet, the circumference bordered with dull-bay.

65. *Ostrea citrina*: shell orange, with twenty-two rounded rays and plaited margin; lower valve flatter. It inhabits India; some of the rays are scaly, and some of the grooves have granulate lines.

66. *Ostrea turgida*: shell equally convex, both sides with twenty glabrous rays, the interstices with transverse crowded wrinkles; the margin with plaited teeth. It is found in the American and Indian Seas.

67. *Ostrea sulphurea*: shell flattened, thin, pellucid, striate, with numerous imbricate rays; the margin with crenate plaits. It inhabits the Red Sea; is two inches long, and a little narrower. The shell is thin, fragile, of a sulphur or orange colour, sometimes red with an orange hinge and a semilunar white band, or varied with white and pale tawny, with a sanguineous border; lower valve with equal rays, those of the upper valve alternately less.

68. *Ostrea porphyrea*: shell convex, purple, within white or red, with twenty-five thick rounded scaly rays. It is found in the Red Sea; two inches three lines long, and as much broad; shell varied with a few white spots.

69. *Ostrea vitrea*: shell hyaline, with an acute margin, very slender rays, and concentric scaly curves. It is found in the North Seas, among fuci and zoophytes; size of a pea; shell smooth, brittle, white, or varied with white and red; one ear emarginate and spinous.

70. *Ostrea Tranquebaria*: shell with twenty rounded rays, the interstices very finely wrinkled; margin repand. It inhabits Tranquebar; sometimes of one colour, which is mostly orange; sometimes varied with undulate brown, red, or cinereous, spots; upper valve more convex.

71. *Ostrea fasciata*: shell white, with purple spots, and numerous unequal rays; the margin crenate. Found in the Red Sea.

72. *Ostrea crenulata*: shell oblong, with undulate rays and striæ, and transverse interrupted bands; margin crenulate. This is a very small species.

73. *Ostrea innominata*: shell roundish, spotted, with deep grooves very finely striate transversely; margin crenulate. One of the ears hardly visible.

74. *Ostrea rufescens*: shell roundish, pale rufous, with twenty-four rays; the ears with decussate striæ.

75. *Ostrea squamata*: shell roundish, with thick rays, furnished with distant parallel scales, and prickly at the sides. The shell is convex and spotted; the margin crenate.

76. *Ostrea anonyma*: shell rather oblong, with narrow scaly rays, the interstices broader and striate perpendicularly; ears with perpendicular wrinkles. The shell is varied with angular lines and spots.

77. *Ostrea decem-radiata*: shell flattened, with ten smooth flat unequal rays; ears transversely striate.

78. *Ostrea tenuis*: shell thin, with depressed scaly rays; ears short. It is found in India and the North Seas. The shell is bay, or cinereous spotted with black; sometimes white or carmine, or pale-orange.

79. *Ostrea valentii*: shell with twenty rays, and transverse semilunar bands. It is found in India. The shell is red; it resembles the *O. maxima*, but the ears are unequal.

80. *Ostrea media*: shell somewhat oblong, with crowded rays. Shell middle-sized, reddish, saffron, or piceous.

81. *Ostrea crocea*: shell saffron, with muricate scaly rays alternately lefts.

82. *Ostrea florida*: shell roundish, white, with rosy spots.

83. *Ostrea ochroleuca*: shell oblong, ochraceous, with rays smooth on one part, and granulate on the other.

84. *Ostrea mustelina*: shell pale-tawny, with yellow spots and bands, and smooth rays; ears transversely striate. The shell is two inches and a quarter long, and about as much broad.

85. *Ostrea flammea*: shell saffron, rather oblong, with very fine perpendicular striæ.

86. *Ostrea incarnata*: shell rather oblong, flesh-colour, with interrupted red bands and flattened rays.

87. *Ostrea guttata*: shell yellowish, rounded, dotted with red, with rays unequally converging at the hinge.

88. *Ostrea depressa*: shell ochraceous, with flat bifid rays. The shell is about an inch long, and something broader.

89. *Ostrea regia*: shell roundish, deep-red, with rounded rays. The ear of the lower valve deeply emarginate.

90. *Ostrea palliata*: shell equivalve, with numerous smooth rays. It resembles *O. pallium*, but is less rough, and has fewer rays; shell straw-colour, with purple undulate bands.

91. *Ostrea feminuda*: shell orange, oblong, muricate, with scales as far as the middle; with twenty-two rays. The shell is one inch and three quarters long, and one inch and a quarter broad; ears with very fine scales.

92. *Ostrea modesta*: shell roundish, hoary, with brownish, reddish, and bluish, spots; spaces between the rays broad. The shell has two filiform bands at the hinge.

93. *Ostrea principalis*: shell purple, with a brown margin; the rays scaly from the middle, and smooth at the hinge.

94. *Ostrea versicolor*: shell variegated, with pectinate smooth rays.

3. Valves more gibbous on one side.

95. *Ostrea flavicans*: shell nearly equivalve, with eight striate rays, the margin rounded on one side. It is found in the South Seas. The shell is rather oblique; white varied with brown and red, within white; the rays yellow; one of the ears very short.

96. *Ostrea fasciata*: shell equivalve, with twenty rough

rays, the interstices striate; ears equal, small. Inhabits the American and Atlantic Seas. The shell is white, pellucid, gaping each side, very finely striate within; the margin crenate.

97. *Ostrea fragilis*: shell equivalve, with twenty-five rays; margin very entire; ears acute. Inhabits the Nicobar-islands; resembles the last, but is flatter, and has more rays; shell thin, brittle, one inch and a quarter long, and about half as broad.

98. *Ostrea lima*: shell equivalve, with twenty-two imbricate scaly rays, rounded at one margin; ears obliterated. It is found in the Mediterranean, Indian, and Red, seas. The shell is three inches long, and two inches and a quarter broad; white and rather flat; the scales elevated and acute; ears wrinkled.

99. *Ostrea glacialis*: shell equivalve, with fifty imbricate interrupted rays; ears equal, one of them unequally plaited. It is found in the American Ocean; resembles the last, but has more numerous rays; shell snowy, with a crenate margin; another variety has the margin entire.

100. *Ostrea hians*: shell whitish, thin, gaping each side and oblique, with obsolete undulate rays, and transverse rounded semilunar striæ. Inhabits Norway; is one inch and a half long, and three-quarters of an inch broad; ears very small and acute; margin crenate, very entire within.

101. *Ostrea excavata*: shell dirty-white, with longitudinal undulate striæ, and a few transverse rings, smooth within; one ear obsolete; margin very entire. It is found in Norway, but is rare; five inches long, and three and a quarter broad.

II. OYSTERS. Rough, and generally plaited on the outside.

102. *Ostrea malleus*: shell equivalve, three-lobed, two of the lobes placed transversely, like the head of a hammer. This species is found in the deep parts of the Indian and South Seas, and is very rare. Shell about six inches long, and four inches and three quarters broad; black with a dark-blue cast, gaping, formed like a cross; the valves lamellate.

103. *Ostrea vassella*: shell subpellucid, narrow, elongated, brittle, lamellate; one end rounded; within very smooth and glossy. It inhabits the Red Sea; is three inches and a half long, and one broad. The shell is violet, tawny, or ferruginous, gaping at the hinge; rough on the outside, and thinner at the rounded end.

104. *Ostrea anatina*: shell pellucid, lamellate, and laterally incurved. It inhabits the Nicobar islands; about an inch broad, and, including the curvature, three inches long; its shape in some measure resembles a duck when sitting; shell thin, brittle, varied with white and violet.

105. *Ostrea diluviana*: shell plaited on the outside; the margin with erect acutangular teeth. This is found in a fossil state in the calcareous mountains of Sweden, about the size of a common oyster; the margin with erect serratures, formed as it were of the imbricate lamellæ of the shell, and transversely striate; valves with pectinate plaits and acute wrinkles.

106. *Ostrea folium*: shell ovate, obtusely plaited at the sides, parasitical. It inhabits the Indian Ocean, where it is frequently found adhering to *Gorgonia*; shell straw-colour, pale-tawny, or violet, within silvery; hinge with a triangular hollow; upper valve turgid on the back towards the middle, wrinkled each side, and transversely ribbed; lower valve less, flatter, and grooved in the middle.

107. *Ostrea orbicularis*: shell orbicular, flat, with an entire crenate margin. Shell with a very obtuse margin, about the size of the end-joint of the thumb.

108. *Ostrea edulis*, the common oyster: shell nearly orbicular and rugged, with undulate imbricate scales; one valve is flat and very entire. There are six varieties of this species, found in different parts of the European and Indian Seas, affixed to rocks, or in large beds. The shell is of various sizes, forms, and colours, within white, and often glossy, like mother-of-pearl. It was formerly thought to have no power of locomotion; but it is now ascertained,

ascertained, by accurate observation, that it can move from place to place, and vary its habits, according to circumstances.

Our knowledge respecting the nature and organization, mode of life, nourishment, and propagation, of these shell-fish, says Mr. Professor Beckmann, is confined, defective, and uncertain. They live in a medium which screens them from our observation; they are found on coasts which few naturalists frequent, and are so different from all other animals, that, even from the observations which have been made on them, very little can be concluded.

Oysters live on the shores of the sea, and particularly such as are sandy or stony; on the coasts of islands, on rocks which project into the sea, and on sand-banks; but they seem to thrive best at the mouth of streams, where the water of the latter renders the water of the sea milder. The animal-slime which the streams carry along with them, and which is accumulated on the shores, may serve them as food.

Oysters spawn chiefly in spring, when the sun again begins to warm the water of the sea; and what they then throw out consists of small oysters completely formed, which seem to be innumerable. Each of these young ones expands to a complete oyster, in the same manner as the seeds or fruits of those plants which have hermaphrodite bloom. Those are mistaken who speak of male and female oysters; for how could procreation be possible among animals which either do not change their place during their whole lives, or can change it only perhaps for an inch, and which are capable of no other movement than that of opening a little of their shells? Oysters, therefore, may be considered as hermaphrodite.

The shells are very often covered with productions of the coral kind; they are frequently loaded also with small muscles and multitudes of worms. That peculiar kind of worm which is called the *oyster-worm*, shines in the dark, in the manner of the glow-worm; but with an universal light, and not in a peculiar part only. The first observer of these oyster-worms was M. De Lavoye, who, communicating his observations to M. Auzout, gave occasion to a very distinct account of them from this author. The first thing that presents itself, on the opening of the oysters which contain these worms, is only a sort of shining clammy moisture, which appears like a star of a bluish colour, and, being drawn out, will extend itself to near half an inch long, and shine as much for that whole length as in the contracted state; it will also shine for some time after it is taken out of the oyster. On a stricter observation, these shining substances are found to be real living worms; and there are indeed three species of them. One sort is whitish, and has twenty-four or twenty-five feet on each side: there is a black speck on one side the head, and the back exactly resembles that of an eel, when the skin is stripped off. The black speck in the head is certainly an eye; and it is remarkable that the creature has but one. The second sort of these worms is red: this also has but one eye; its body is made up of several rings; its nose is like that of a dog, and it has the same number of feet with the former. The third sort is very different from the other two: it is speckled, and its head is like that of a foal, and has a tuft of hair on each side. There are other worms found also in the oyster, particularly a large greyish one, with two horns, a great head, and seven or eight whitish feet; but these do not shine. This light occurs more frequently in large than in small oysters; there are few of these large ones that do not yield it in the shells, and in some it is seen in the oysters themselves. *Journal des Sçavans*, 1666.

A more formidable enemy to oysters, however, is that eel-formed fish which at Heligoland is called *nugogen*, or nine-eyes; but which by some has been called the five-fingered fish, or star-fish. It is found sometimes in oyster-shells that are quite close, and in which no traces can be discovered of the first inhabitant. It lies in the shell bent like a ring, and the fishers unanimously assert that it eats

the oyster. On that account the English fishermen strongly recommend destroying it wherever it is found. But, how comes this murderer into the oyster? In all probability it creeps in when the animal opens its shell. Another question is, how happens it that the ancient ichthyologists, though they mention this fish, do not observe that it was found in oyster-shells, which at present is not uncommon?

Oysters are leanest when they spawn, or after that period; and on this account fishing for them at that time is forbidden in England, and other countries where prudent regulations prevail. In Spain, this precaution is employed, because it is imagined that at this period the use of them as food is injurious to the health. It appears that they ought at least to be three years old in order to serve as food; and, where care is taken for the preservation of the oyster-beds, the fishermen are ordered to scrape off all the small ones which adhere to those that are full-grown, and to throw them back into the sea. An old oyster has often twenty small ones attached to it.

Very severe winters injure the oyster-beds and destroy the oysters, as was every-where proved during that of 1739-40. Violent storms in the spring are equally prejudicial; and many beds have been exhausted by fishing-up too many from them. We are told by Paulus Jovius, that he remembered the time when oysters were brought from the coast of Pefaro to Rome; but that these beds were afterwards entirely exhausted, and that people were obliged to be satisfied with oysters brought from Corsica, which, before they arrived, were often in a putrid state. No kind of animal substance, indeed, is more liable to corrupt than shell-fish, both those which are used for food and those which are not.

It is an undoubted truth, that the nature of the shell and fish, as well as the goodness of these animals, are different according to the bottom where they are found; so that fishermen can tell by their external appearance, and connoisseurs by the taste, where any kind of oyster, and in general of shell-fish, have been found. Where the bottom is calcareous, they are tenderer and more friable; where it consists of rock, they are thicker, more solid, and heavier; where it consists of marl, or a mixture of chalk and clay, they are less earthy, softer, and contain more animal gluten. On a slimy bottom they are more oily, and abound more with rich animal particles. The taste is equally liable to change; for instance, on the eastern stony shore of the Adriatic Sea all marine animals are poorer and more insipid than those on the western side, where the bottom is richer. On calcareous rocks the oysters are larger, but have not so good a taste as those which live in slimy bays or creeks. In Norway, those are least esteemed which are found on a muddy bottom, because they have a muddy taste: those of Denmark, found on a sandy bottom, near Tondern and Fladstrand, are much better. The best are those called *rock-oysters*, found on the rocks where they are alternately covered and left dry by the tide; though, in England, those found at the greatest depth in the sea are preferred. The rock-oysters are larger and plumper than others, but their shells much thinner, and many of them so thin that they are transparent. For this reason, a cask, such as those used at Bergen, will contain scarcely 400, or even 300, sand-oysters, but is capable of containing from 700 to 800 rock-oysters.

Oysters are of different colours in different places. In Spain they are found of a red and russet colour; in Illyria they are brown, but the fish is black, and in the Red Sea, of the colour of the rainbow. Those oysters which are distinguished by a green colour, and which the Dutch, on that account, call *groenbaardjes*, are considered to be superior to others. But this distinction is not natural to them, and is produced by art: pits are dug on the sea-shore, and furnished with small sluices, through which the sea-water is suffered to enter at time of spring-tide. When the water has risen to a certain height, the oysters are thrown into the pits, where they are left till they acquire the proper colour. This stagnant water, in warm weather, soon becomes

comes

comes green; and in a few days the oysters assume the same colour; but they do not acquire their full quality, and become fit for sale, till the end of six or eight weeks.

Oysters are found in various places on the coast of France; such as the mouth of the Seine, where, though few in number, they are of an excellent quality. On the coast of Caen in Normandy, there is a bank six miles in length and one in breadth. They are found also in the Bay of Ifigny, and in the neighbourhood of Cherbourg. Those in particular are highly valued which are collected at the mouths of some streams where the sea-water is sometimes thrown entirely back, and which are called *huitres de pied*. Granville in Normandy gains 50,000 livres by this fishery. On the coast of Brittany there are very large oysters, particularly at Cancale, where a great many are preserved in places enclosed for the purpose. The bank at Painpol is almost entirely exhausted. At the mouth of the Loire; between the rocks on the coast of Poitou, on the coast of Aunis and Saintonge, where those who make bay-salt transplant oysters to marshy places, in which they acquire a better quality, though they never become so good as the green ones of Saintonge. In Languedoc, near Cape Leucate, there is an oyster-bank at the depth of twenty feet; another at the mouth of the Rhône, on the coast of Provence. At Paris those oysters are most esteemed which come from Bretagne, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and particularly from Medoc.

The Dutch have some oyster-beds on the coast of Zealand, near Zierikzee; oysters are kept there also in pits as well as at the town of Brouwerhaven, and particularly at Petten in North Holland: those of the last-mentioned place are much esteemed, and are known under the name of *Petten oysters*. For these pits many ship-loads are transported every year from the coasts of England.

There are exceedingly-rich oyster-banks in the duchy of Holstein and in the neighbourhood of Jutland, which supply most of the oysters used in the northern part of Germany. The royal oyster-beds lie all together on the western coast of the duchy of Schleswig, between the islands Fanø, Rom or Romø, Sylt, Föhr, Amröm, Nordstrand, Silworm, Süderog, and extend from the district of Ripen to Heligoland. The number of the beds from which oysters can be finished is at present reckoned to be fifty: the greater part of them take their names from the persons by whom they were first discovered. Some of them are a furlong, some a quarter of a mile, and some half a mile, in length; and their breadth is equally various. The oysters of these different banks are not all of the same kind; in some they are large, in others of a moderate size, and in many only small: the last, were they left to grow older, would never attain to a larger size. The large oysters are called *deputat-auftern*, the rest *kaufmans-auftern*. Till the year 1794, the royal chamber of domains let these oyster-banks to the highest bidder for the term of six years; but, as this period was too short for the persons who took the lease, and prejudicial to the fishery, they were let to M. Asmussen, a merchant in Tondern, during his natural life, from the year 1795, for the yearly sum of 7505 dollars, to be paid in advance. He bound himself to furnish yearly 112½ barrels of oysters, to be delivered from time to time, but each time never less than four, and never more than eight, barrels, carriage free, at Haderleben, for the royal family. This city is distant about ten miles from the village of Hoyer, where the oysters are landed, and which is a mile from Tondern. The lessee is permitted to fish for and sell oysters only during the four last and four first months of the year. The instruments used for fishing-up these oysters are of the same kind as those employed in other countries. The most common is a drag-net made of thongs of seal-skin worked together, and fastened to an iron frame which scrapes up the oysters. These nets, when the fishermen have arrived at the proper place, are let down by means of ropes made fast to the iron frame. M. Asmussen used eighteen vessels, which were perfectly similar to those of

which figures have been given by Duhamel. The fishermen bring their lading either to the above-mentioned village of Hoyer, or to Husum, which is seven miles from Tondern. Prayers for the preservation of this oyster-bed were formerly offered up in the church of Husum; but this has been omitted for several years past, because the owner refused to allow the clergyman about two hundred oysters, which he claimed for performing that duty. From thence the oysters are conveyed to Apenrade and Flenzburg, and thence in ships to the East Sea, where the consumption is greatest; for a barrel sometimes is sold there at the rate of 100 roubles. It is not true that they cost dearer to the natives than to foreigners: a hundred cost a dollar; and a barrel, containing from 800 to 1000 oysters, about ten dollars, more or less. The number caught, and the consumption, vary exceedingly in different years. During stormy weather and severe frost none can be fished. The number fished-up yearly, the lessee, for reasons which cannot be disapproved, kept a secret; but it is certain that 2000 barrels would scarcely have been sufficient to pay the rent and expenses.

The oyster-banks of Jutland lie on the eastern side of the northern extremity, near Fladstrand, a market-town, where there is a passage over to Norway; also at the island of Læsø, situated in the Cattagat, three miles from Sabie, in the district of Alborg. Respecting this fishery, several regulations have been published, one of which is dated February 1709. Attempts have often been made to transplant oysters to the large bays which extend from the Cattagat twenty miles across the country, and nearly imperfect it; but have been attended with as little success as those on the coast of Seeland.

Sweden has excellent oysters on the coast of Bahus-Län, near the island of Kasterö, a mile west from Strömstad, from which they are sent, as well as from Udewalla, to every part of the kingdom. The fishermen there pretend that, when an oyster-bed has been exhausted, it requires from four to five years before it is again stocked. Norway also has excellent oysters, and in great abundance on the western coasts. The best are those found on the rocks, and called rock-oysters. Many of them are pickled, and sent in jars and other vessels which contain the sixteenth part of a barrel, to different parts of the East Sea. These oysters often contain pearls; but they are not of a large size, and never have complete splendour.

Italy has oysters of different qualities. Those found near Ancona are of a large size, but not very well tasted. Those are accounted the best which are produced in prodigious multitudes near Tarento, in the sea called Mare Piccolo, which is a large bay, that extends past Tarento, towards the north-east. The Mediterranean Sea, in general, has more shell-fish than the ocean any-where contains in the same space; but no part of it is more abundant in this respect than the Golfo Tarantino, the harbour of the city, and the Picciol Mare. Fishing is the principal or only occupation of the inhabitants, who chiefly live by it: on this account the greatest care is taken to preserve and increase the oyster-beds. Great care is here taken that the oysters may not be disturbed during the time they are spawning, and that all the young ones be thrown back again into the sea. It is generally believed here that all shell-fish are fattest and fullest at the time of the full-moon.

The oysters of the Mare Piccolo are at present to the rich Italians what those of the Lucrine Lake were to the ancients. This lake extended in Campania from Baiæ to the Lake Avernus, and was separated from the sea only by a mole; but, though it has been celebrated by so many poets, it is at present only a pond, scarcely sufficient for watering cattle. In the year 1538, on St. Michael's day, an earthquake, which had continued some time, became so violent, that the lake retired from its banks, and its basin was almost entirely dried up; as was the case, in part, with the Lake Avernus. The neighbouring small town of Tripergala was swallowed up, with all

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its inhabitants and riches. It contained a great many monks and nuns, who, it is said, led very irregular lives. "It might have been expected," says Blainville, "that the gulf would have been satisfied with the nuns and monks, and that it would not have carried its revenge further; but this was not the case; as a monument to posterity, it threw up such a quantity of filth, that it produced a mountain a mile in height, and four miles in circumference."

In tropical regions, the common oyster is found attached to trees; this assertion has been frequently ranked among groundless and fabulous traditions, but the fact is easily explained. In warm climates, where vegetation is very luxuriant, a great variety of plants, among which are large trees, grow on the shores at the very edge of the sea; and particularly on those places which are sheltered from the agitation of the waves. In such places as the heads of bays and harbours, great abundance of mangrove-trees grow up from the bottom, where it is several feet deep, covered with water. It is generally on the mangrove-tree that the oyster is found in the West Indies. Without the trouble of picking them from the trees, the branches growing under water, to which they are attached, are cut off, carried home in baskets, and in this state brought to table, where they are eaten raw or roasted.

Great Britain has long been noted for its oysters; and these, as the French believe, have been produced from oysters formerly fished-up in Cancale Bay, near St. Malo, and transplanted to the English coast; but of this assertion we have no proof. Those however are most esteemed which are found on the coast of Essex; from that coast the brood is transplanted to the sea near Colchester, where the Coln, which flows through the town, forms a great many arms and small creeks exceedingly proper for breeding them. These oysters are in high request, under the name of *Colchester oysters*. Many, however, prefer those oysters which are collected on the coast of Dorsetshire, and particularly those found near Poole. They are said, also, to contain sometimes pearls of larger size than those found in other places. The greater part of the English oysters, which the Dutch carry away every year with more than a hundred vessels, are sold by the fishermen at Feverham in Kent, to the north-west of Canterbury, and which, like the neighbouring small towns of Milton and Middleton, is known on account of this trade. There are a great many oyster-banks also in the Isle of Wight; those, likewise, are well known which are found near Tenby, on the coast of South Wales, and near Milford Haven; but the largest, and perhaps the worst, are those of the Black-rock, near Liverpool.

It appears that the English have taken more trouble than other nations, not only to maintain their oyster-banks, but to form new ones. Since the year 1712, a great many oysters have been found in the small channel or strait of Menai, which separates Anglesey from Caernarvonshire, and where, about the year 1700, none were to be seen. It is known, however, that soon after that period some person threw into the above channel about a hundred oysters, which now extend several miles; so that at present many vessels are employed in this fishery.

Ireland has very abundant oyster-banks near the village of Arklow, on the eastern side of Dublin, from which seed is conveyed to the artificial beds of the capital, on the northern side, near Clontarf; and further south, at Sutton, not far from Howth. Also at Polebeg and Dalkey, not far from Dublin; and particularly Ireland's Eye, where the largest and best oysters lie at the depth of about eighteen or twenty fathoms under the water. Likewise to the north of Dublin, near Rush and Skerries, where the oysters are saltier and harder than in places where more fresh water falls into the sea. Scotland has great abundance of oysters near the island of Inch Keith, which is not far from Leith.

From an account preserved in Sprat's History of the Royal Society, from p. 307 to 309, we learn, that the

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oysters cast their spawn, which the dredgers call their *spat*, in the month of May; this spat cleaves to stones, old oyster-shells, pieces of wood, &c. at the bottom of the sea, which they call *cultch*; and it is conjectured, that the spat in twenty-four hours begins to have a shell. In the month of May, the dredgers, by the law of the admiralty-court, have liberty to take every kind of oyster, whatsoever be their size. When they have taken them, they gently raise with a knife the small brood from the cultch, and then they throw the cultch in again, to preserve the ground for the future, unless they be so newly spat that they cannot be safely severed from the cultch: in this case they are permitted to take the stone or shell, &c. which the spat is upon, one shell having often twenty spats. After the month of May, it is felony to carry away the cultch, and punishable to take any other oysters except those of the size of a half-crown piece; or such as, when the two shells are shut, will admit of a shilling to rattle between them. This brood, and other oysters, are carried to creeks of the sea, and thrown into the channel, which are called their beds or layers, where they grow and fatten; and in two or three years the smallest brood will become oysters of the foresaid size. There are great penalties imposed by the admiralty-court upon those that fish out of the grounds which the court appoints, or that destroy the cultch, or that take any oysters that are not of the proper size, or that do not destroy a fish which they call the five-finger, the common sea-star, because that fish gets into the oysters when they gape, and sucks them out. The reason of the penalty for destroying the cultch is, that they find, when this is taken away, the ouse will increase, and the muscles and cockles will breed there, and destroy the oysters, because they have no convenience for depositing their spat. The oysters are sick after they have spat; but in June and July they begin to mend, and in August they are perfectly well: the male oyster is black-sick, having a black substance in the fin; and the female white-sick, as they term it, having a milky substance in the fin. Oysters are salt in the pits, saltier in the layers, and saltest at sea. It is observed that, when the tide comes in, they lie with their hollow shell downwards, and, when it goes out, they turn on the other side; they do not remove from their places, except in cold weather, to cover themselves up warm in the ouse.

As to the spawning or laying oyster-beds, the manner of preparing, distributing, and managing, them, in the mouths of the breeding-rivers in particular counties and districts, the exact method of performing the business has not been described; but they are spawned or laid somewhat in the bed-manner. The principal rivers in the county of Essex where this sort of work, or that of breeding oysters, is carried on, according to the Corrected Agricultural Report of that district, are those of the Crouch, the Blackwater, and the Coln; but the first is by far the most certain in produce of any of them. The beds, or layings, are made in the creeks, and other similar places, on the sides or parts which adjoin the mouths, openings, or beginnings, of these rivers. It is from these rivers that the oyster-layings, or beds, are usually stocked; though some are constantly supplied from Portsmouth, or places in its neighbourhood, being brought in the largest sort of oyster-vessels, not only into this county, but Kent, where they are laid for the ensuing season. The Colchester oyster-beds are chiefly at Wivenhoe, being partly supplied by the Kentish oyster-smacks. The beds, or layings, in these different situations, are likewise, in all probability, supplied or furnished with oysters from several other places on the southern coast of this country, as well as the northern one of France.

The oyster-fisheries, in different places, are of very great importance to the country at large, as well as to particular counties and districts, especially that of Essex; as they employ great numbers of small vessels, require the labour of many men, and afford considerable profit in the produce

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duce of food which they supply, as being principally an article of luxury. In the county just mentioned there are several of these oyster-fisheries. In the Blackwater river and neighbouring parts; there is a considerable fishery of this nature; and West-Mersey is one of the principal stations of the dredgers: above thirty boats, it is said, belong to the island, and are almost constantly at work in this business. Vessels come from Kent to purchase the oysters; and they sell some to Wivenhoe, where what are called the Colchester beds are situated. They are sold by the tub of two bushels, and are generally from 6s. to 10s. a-tub. A dredging-boat is from fourteen to thirty or forty tons burthen: all are decked, and built at Wivenhoe, Brightlingsea, and places thereabouts. The price is 10l. a-ton for the hull of the vessel only; the fitting-out of one of twenty tons requiring the amount of 150l. From two to four men are required for each vessel, who are paid by shares; and the master has a share for the vessel. In the spring-season they go to dredge on the coasts of Hants and Dorset. Sometimes one hundred and thirty vessels have been counted at work within sight of Mersey.

The following interesting account of the oyster-business in the same district, is from Mr. Bennet Hawes of Mersey, given as from his own local knowledge of the places where it is carried on, in the above Report. The number of vessels which are employed in it, of from eight to forty or fifty tons, is nearly two hundred, in which are employed from four hundred to five hundred men and boys. A vessel carrying three men has one share and a half of all the earnings, and the men one share each. Large vessels have generally, it is said, two shares; but none, it is believed, more than this. It is said that the vessels which are built at East Donyland, Wivenhoe, Brightlingsea, Burnham, and Mersey, for this business, will last from thirty to forty years, when proper care is taken of them. The writer was informed by a person then living at Wivenhoe, that he had, within the last twenty years, built a hundred vessels for the oyster-business alone. There has been an increase of boats, and of course of men, of more than one half within the last thirty years.

At Burnham they have seven dredging-smacks belonging to the company that hire the river of sir Henry Mildmay, besides four other private ones, and some smaller vessels. The smacks are from eighteen to twenty tons; and there are only about one hundred fishermen and sailors about the place, which are much too few, it is thought, for so fine a river. Most of the vessels of sixteen tons and upwards, go, it is said, to Portsmouth, or places adjacent, in the month of March, to catch and carry oysters; those under twenty-five tons being employed in catching them, and the larger ones in carrying them into this county and Kent, to be used as noticed above; they generally return from thence in the month of June; when the large ones go after mackarel, herrings, and sprats, during the latter part of the summer, and in the ensuing winter, the smaller ones to the catching of oysters in the breeding-rivers, as above.

The oysters are sold to London, Hamburgh, Bremen, and, in time of peace, to Holland, France, and Flanders. The quantity consumed in a season is scarcely to be calculated; but it is supposed that it cannot be less than 12,000 or 15,000 bushels. This sort of fishery is so much blended with others, that it is almost impossible to state the capital which is employed in it; but it is supposed to be from 60,000 to 80,000l.

The oyster affords the curious in microscopic observations a very pleasing entertainment. In the clear liquor many little round living animalcules have been found, whose bodies, being conjoined, form spherical figures, with tails not changing their place otherwise than by sinking to the bottom, as being heavier than the fluid; these have been seen frequently separating, and then coming together again. In other oysters, animalcules of the same kind were found, not conjoined, but swimming by

one another, whence they seemed in a more perfect state, and were judged by Mr. Leeuwenhoek to be the animalcules in the roe or semen of the oyster. An oyster being opened, incredible multitudes of small embryo-oysters were seen, covered with little shells, perfectly transparent, and swimming along slowly in the liquor; and, in another, the young ones were found of a browner colour, and without any appearance of life or motion. Monsieur Joblot also kept the water running from oysters three days, and it appeared full of young oysters swimming about nimbly in it; these increased in size daily, but a mixture of wine, or the vapour of vinegar, killed them.

In the month of August, oysters are supposed to breed, because young ones are then found in them. Mr. Leeuwenhoek, on the fourth of August, opened an oyster, and took out of it a prodigious number of minute oysters, all alive, and swimming nimbly about in the liquor, by means of certain exceeding small organs, extending a little way beyond their shells; and these he calls their beards. In these little oysters he could discover the joinings of the shells, and perceived that there were some dead ones, with their shells gaping. These, though so extremely minute, are seen to be like the large oysters in form. As to the size of them, he computes, that a hundred and twenty of them in a row would extend an inch; and, consequently, that a globular body, whose diameter is an inch, would, if they were also round, be equal to 1,728,000 of them. He likewise found animalcules in the liquor five hundred times less than the embryo-oysters. *Leeuwenhoek, Arcan. Nat. tom. iv.*

Some of the housewives employ their poor in pounding oyster-shells for manure. By experiment in Norfolk (1818), forty bushels of oyster-shell powder is found equal in virtue to eight tons of farm-yard dung. It is described as an excellent manure for wheat, and as a top-dressing for young clovers, &c. also for gardens, as, from its saline exudation, it destroys slugs, &c.

Oyster-shells are indeed an alkali of a more powerful kind than is commonly supposed, and probably are in reality much better medicines than many of the more costly and pompous alkalis of the same class. The proof of alkalis is in their solution by acid spirits; and Mr. Homberg found, that they dissolved much more easily in the acids of nitre and sea-salt than pearls, coral, and the rest; which he supposes owing to their containing in the body of the shell a considerable portion of sal-salsus, which is easily perceived upon the tongue, and which keeps the whole substance of the shell in a sort of half-dissolved state. These shells are found to produce very great effects on the stomach when injured by acid humours; and Mr. Homberg is of opinion, that this their easiness of solution is one great reason of their good effects, and that the quality of sal-salsus which they contain contributes not a little towards it, since we are not to look upon that as a mere salt, but a salt of a peculiar kind, formed of sea-salt by the organs of the animal, and the several fermentations it undergoes in the body of it, in the same manner as the nitrous and other salts of the earth cease to be nitrous, &c. as soon as they have been blended with the juices of plants, and form with them a salt peculiar to that plant; and this is plainly the case in regard to this salt, since it is evidently of a more penetrating taste, and of a different smell, from the salt left by the sea-water between the several external scales or flakes of the shell.

As oyster-shells were found by Mr. Homberg to be a very valuable medicine, and as one of the common methods of preparing them is by calcination, which, he observes, cannot but much impair their virtues, he gives the following method of preparing them for taking inwardly, which was what he always used: "Take the hollow shells of the oysters, throwing away the flat ones as not so good; wash them perfectly clean, and then lay them to dry in the sun: when they appear dry, beat them to pieces in a marble mortar, they will be then found to contain yet a large

large quantity of moisture; lay them again in the sun till perfectly dried; and then finish the powdering them, and sift the powder through a fine sieve. Give twenty or thirty grains of this powder every morning, and continue it three weeks or a month." *Mem. Acad. Par.* 1700.

Oysters are often found in a fossil state; as to which, see OSTRACITES, p. 27 of this volume; but more particularly the article CONCHOLOGY, vol. v. p. 31.

109. *Ostrea semi-aurata*: shell oval, slightly eared, smooth, with an oblique base. It inhabits the Mediterranean; is about one inch and a half long, and one and a quarter broad; of a dirty-olive, with a few undulate white lines; very thin; each valve convex and ending in a beak; hinge with five rounded hollows.

110. *Ostrea striata*: shell oval, with longitudinal filiform ridges; inside green. It is found in European seas, and is about an inch in diameter. The shell is thick, strong, nearly opaque, not membranous, as in the common oyster, with numerous slender irregular ridges, divided towards the bottom; upper valve flattish, lower concave; hinge broad, deep, somewhat triangular, and striate transversely. In many shells is a white radiate mark below the hinge, formed by the cartilage of the fish.

111. *Ostrea fornicata*: shell rough, oblong, linear, with divergent hinges, vaulted internally. It is found in the Red Sea. The shell is brittle, membranaceous, tawny, about as long as a finger, terminating at the hinge in an elongated acutangular beak.

112. *Ostrea sinensis*: shell rough, lamellate, unequal, and glabrous within; lower valve larger, concave, and ending in a beak, with ten obtuse plaits. It is found on the Chinese shores; four inches long, and a little narrowed; shell russet-brown, within whitish towards the hinge.

113. *Ostrea spondiloidea*: shell equivalve, pellucid, flattened, oval, beaked, glabrous, with perpendicular, undulate, granulate, striæ on the upper valve; margin very sharp. Inhabits India: three inches two lines long, two inches five lines broad; shell white, with a few tawny spots.

114. *Ostrea Forskahlîi*: shell plaited, and terminating in a long incurved hollow beak; the middle ribs with imbricate spinous wrinkles; the other valve flat. It is found in the Red Sea. Two inches three lines long, and about an inch broad; the flat valve whitish, the other nearly violet.

115. *Ostrea plicatula*: shell with longitudinal wrinkled plaits; the lower valve a little less, and flatter. It inhabits the American and Mediterranean Seas. Varies very much in shape and colour.

116. *Ostrea rostrata*: shell oblong, rugged; the upper valve lamellate, with a denticulate margin, the other excavated and longitudinally grooved; beak prominent. It inhabits the Mediterranean. Upper valve yellowish-green, the other violet, varied with white; within cretaceous, or chalky-white.

117. *Ostrea Virginica*: shell nearly equivalve, thick, rough, lamellous; one valve with a prominent beak. It is found in the American and Indian Oceans; nine inches long and four broad.

118. *Ostrea cornucopiæ*: upper valve flat, lower one hollow and striate, rough with scales, wrinkles, and plaits, and ending in an elongated beak. It is found in the Indian and African Oceans.

119. *Ostrea parasitica*: shell thin; lower valve convex and thicker, the other flat. It inhabits the Indian and Atlantic Seas, and fixes itself to the roots and stumps of trees growing close to, and hanging over, the water, especially the *Mangifera*; varies in form and size, but is often as large as the palm of the hand.

120. *Ostrea exalbida*: shell thin, the upper valve longer and more convex. This is found in the Adriatic, fixed to other shells, sometimes alone, sometimes several together; about one inch and a half long, but is variable

as to shape and size; generally whitish, rarely yellow or violet.

121. *Ostrea cristata*: shell rugged, with imbricate lamellæ; the margin with obtusely-plaited teeth; the beak of one valve protruded. Shell an inch long, and ten lines broad; white, with a few black spots; hinge with a broad conic tooth in the middle.

122. *Ostrea Senegalensis*: shell equivalve, roundish, smooth, flat. It inhabits the shores of Senegal, and adheres to rocks; about two inches in diameter.

123. *Ostrea stellata*: shell thin, depressed, rough, unequal; the upper valve ribbed, the ribs with a few spines. It is found in Guinea, sometimes affixed to other bodies by the hinge; sometimes round, sometimes oblong; very thin, white, with red or bluish marks.

124. *Ostrea ovalis*: shell oval, very thin, and terminating in a short acute lateral channelled beak; with obsolete, unequal, perpendicular, striæ. The shell is about an inch long, brittle, whitish, within glossy silver-white; lower valve exceeding the upper both in length and breadth.

125. *Ostrea papyracea*: shell roundish, snowy, very thin, pellucid; upper valve terminating in a short acute beak. It is found firmly fixed with the *Lepas tintinnabulum*.

126. *Ostrea annulata*: shell equivalve, orbicular, white, with concentric semicircles. It is found in the North Seas.

127. *Ostrea retufa*: shell equivalve, oblong, white, glabrous, striate; with an umbo or knob remote from the hinge. This is also found in the North Seas.

III. *Hinge with a perpendicular grooved line.*

128. *Ostrea perna*: shell equivalve, obovate, unequal, rounder at one end.

129. *Ostrea isognomum*: shell equivalve, with a larger lobe, nearly forming a right angle with the hinge. There are four varieties of this species. They are found in the Indian Ocean and South Sea; from five to six inches long, and about one inch and three quarters broad in the middle; shell black, with a violet mixture, and pearly within; lamellate, with an open beak. A very rare shell.

130. *Ostrea ephippium*: shell equivalve, orbicular, compressed, membranaceous. Found in the Indian Ocean and at the Cape of Good Hope; very rare. The shell is about five inches long, and five and a half broad; blackish, ferruginous, or purplish, and pearly within; roundish, lamellate, with a very acute margin.

131. *Ostrea pîsta*: shell equivalve, thin, pellucid, and pointed at the hinge, the other end dilated; margin very acute. It inhabits the Red Sea; is more than an inch broad, and about two long; yellowish-brown, with paler undulate rays.

132. *Ostrea legumen*: shell flat, hoary, thin, pellucid, lamellate; hinge with an oblique line; the interstices of the grooves black. This species inhabits the Nicobar Islands; is four lines broad, and above two inches long; near the knob is a livid spot.

133. *Ostrea alata*: shell flat, brittle, pellucid, and dilated towards the margin; hinge with an oblique line ending in a small beak. It is found in America.

134. *Ostrea mytiloides*: shell nearly equivalve, ovate, ventricose, straight. It is found in a fossil state in Alsace.

135. *Ostrea torta*: shell equivalve, intorted. This also is found fossil in Alsace.

136. *Ostrea pes-lutræ*: shell equivalve, smooth, wedge-shaped, with six obtuse plaits; varied with purplish and white, and marked with very fine longitudinal striæ; the margin slightly scalloped.

OSTRICO'NI, a river of the island of Corsica, which runs into the sea near the town of Ostriconi.

OSTRICO'NI, a town of the island of Corsica: twenty-two miles west-south-west of Bastia.

OSTRIF'EROUS, *adj.* [from the Lat. *ostrea*, an oyster, and *fero*, to bear.] Producing oysters; bearing oysters. *Cole.*

OST'TRINGER,

OSTRINGER, or **OSTRENGER**, *f.* An old word for a falconer.

OSTRITZ, or **WOT'ROW**, a town of Upper Lusatia, on the Neisse: seven miles south of Górlitz, and twenty south of Budissen. Lat. 51. 1. N. lon. 15. 1. E.

OSTROCOL, a town of Prussia, in Natangen: nine miles south-south-east of Lick.

OSTROE, one of the Feroe-islands, in the North Sea.

OST'ROG, a town of Poland, in Volhynia, once the capital of a duchy, ceded to Poland in the year 1609. It is thirty-eight miles north-north-west of Constantinov.

OSTROGO'THIA. See **GOTHLAND**.

OSTROGOTHS, or **EASTERN GOTHS**, in ancient history, a denomination given to those Goths who, before they left Scandinavia, inhabited the more eastern parts near the Baltic, in contradistinction to the Westrogoths, or Western Goths, who inhabited that part of Scandinavia which borders on Denmark. The name was afterwards appropriated to those Goths who established themselves on the other side of the Danube, and thus they were distinguished from those who proceeded farther westward, and into Pannonia. Their history is included under the general article **GOTHS**, vol. viii.

OSTROGZEK, a town of Poland, in Volhynia: eighteen miles south-west of Berdiczow.

OSTROGOZ'SK, a town of Russia, in the government of Voronez: forty miles south of Voronez. Lat. 51. N. lon. 38. 4. E.

OSTROKOL'LA, a town of Prussia: eighty miles south-east of Königsberg.

OSTROLEN'KA, a town of the duchy of Warsaw: forty-eight miles north-east of Warsaw.

OSTROMET'KE, a town of Prussia, in the palatinate of Culm: ten miles south of Culm.

OSTROPO'LE, a town of Poland, in Volhynia: ten miles north-east of Constantinov.

OSTROSI'NA, a town of Croatia: twelve miles south-east of Carlstadt.

OST'TROV, a town of Russia, in the government of Pskov, on the river Velika. Lat. 57. 20. N. lon. 28. 14. E.

OSTROUCHOVSKA'IA, a town of Russia, in the country of the Cossacks, on the Choper: forty-four miles west-south-west of Arkadinkaia.

OST'TROVITZ, a town of Croatia: twelve miles south of Bihacs.

OSTROVIZ'ZA, a town and fortress of Dalmatia; supposed by some to be the *Arauzona*, and by others the *Stlupi*, of the ancients, though probably it has no connection with either the one or the other. It was purchased in 1410 by the republic of Venice for five thousand ducats, and some pieces of land besides. Its fortress, which was seated on a rock, perpendicularly cut all round, and deservedly reckoned impregnable before the use of artillery, was taken by Soliman in 1524, but soon after restored to the dominion of Venice. At present no traces of its fortifications remain. It is fourteen miles north of Scardona.

OSTROV'NOE, a lake of Russia, in the government of Kolivan: 120 miles south of Kolivan. Lat. 52. 24. N. lon. 80. 24. E.

OSTROV'SKOI, a town of Russia, in the government of Kostrom: forty-eight miles east-north-east of Vetluga.

OST'ROW, a town of the duchy of Warsaw: sixty miles east-north-east of Warsaw.

OST'TROW, a town of Poland, in Volhynia: twenty-two miles south of Lucko.

OST'TROW, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Novogrodek: forty-four miles south of Novogrodek.

OSTROVIEC', a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: three miles east of Wilna.

OSTROZECK', a town of Poland, in Volhynia: forty-two miles west-north-west of Zytomiers.

OSTRU'THIUM, *f.* in botany. See **IMPERATORIA**.

OSTRY'A. See **CARPINUS**.

OSTRYN'IA, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: twenty miles west-south-west of Lidda.

OSTUAL'LA, a town of Norway: fifty miles north of Frederickstad.

OSTU'NI, a town of Naples, in the province of Otranto, the see of a bishop, suffragan of Brindisi. It contains two churches and five monasteries. It is fifty-one miles north-west of Otranto, and 164 east of Naples. Lat. 40. 59. N. lon. 17. 38. E.

OSU'NA, a town of Spain, in the province of Seville: twelve miles south-south-west of Ecija.

OSUNPOU'R, a town of Hindoostan, in Bengal: forty-five miles north-north-east of Dacca. Lat. 24. 25. N. lon. 90. 48. E.

OS'WALD, a small island in the Gulf of Florida, near the coast of East Florida. Lat. 25. 48. N. lon. 80. 22. W.

OS'WALD (St.), a town of Austria; five miles north of Rosbach.—Also, a town of the duchy of Stiria; eleven miles north-east of Windisch Gratz.—A town of the duchy of Stiria; six miles south of Landsparg.—A town of Austria; eight miles south-west of Newstadt.—A town of Austria; five miles east of Freystatt.—A town of Upper Carniola; eleven miles east of Stein.

OS'WALD (Erasmus), a learned German professor of the mathematics and of the Hebrew language, was born in the county of Merckentein in Austria, in the year 1511. After having gone through a course of grammar-learning, he studied successively at the universities of Ingoldstadt, Leipzig, and Basil; and, in the place last mentioned, distinguished himself by his proficiency in the mathematical sciences and the Hebrew tongue, under the instructions of the famous Sebastian Munster. From Basil he went to Memmingen in Swabia, on an invitation from the magistrates to become mathematical professor in that city; and afterwards he removed to Tübingen, where he filled the chair of Hebrew professor with great success and applause. In imitation of his tutor, Sebastian Munster, he did not confine his instructions to the Hebrew language only, but also delivered lectures in the mathematics, from which he derived no little reputation. In the year 1552, he accepted of the united chairs of mathematical and Hebrew professor at Friburg in the Brisgaw, which he held for more than seven-and-twenty years, with great advantage to the interests of science and oriental literature in Germany. He died in 1579, in the sixty-ninth year of his age. He was the author of, 1. *Commentaria in Theoricis Planetarum*. 2. *De Primo Mobili*. 3. *Commentaria in Sphaeram Joannis de Sacrobosco*. 4. *In Almagestum Ptolomæi Annotationes*. 5. *Gentium Kalendarium*. 6. *Oratio funebris de Obitu Sebastiani Munsteri*, written in the Hebrew language. 7. *Paraphrasis in Cantica Canticorum, et Ecclesiastem Salomonis, ex Chaldaica Lingua in Latinam conversa*. 8. He translated into Latin, Rabbi Abraham Cai's book on the Sphere, and Rabbi Elias's treatise on Arithmetic, publishing the original Hebrew with his version. He likewise translated the New Testament into Hebrew; an undertaking on which no person had ventured before his time. *Teissier's Eloges des Hommes Savans*.

OS'WALD (John), a native of Scotland, the date of whose birth and death we have not been able to ascertain. He was a lieutenant in the 42d regiment of foot, and served in the war before last in the East Indies. In the year 1783 he left India, and returned by land to England. His predominant passion for travel, and avidity to survey mankind under various points of view, determined him to trace out for himself a new route. He directed his course to the more northern and mountainous parts of Turkey, and pitched his tent for some time among the barbarous hordes of Turkomans and Kurds, whom for many years no traveller had visited except himself and the celebrated walking Stewart. By the most intense application, he had acquired, without a master, a competent knowledge of the Latin tongue. To this he soon added, in the same manner, the Greek; and, in the course of his peregrinations,

tions he made himself familiar with the Arabic language, together with the French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese, dialects. The religious and philosophic opinions of this gentleman were extremely singular. He adhered to the Hindoo system of worship, and turned with an abhorrence truly braminical from every species of animal food. To a gentleman who urged him to assign his reasons for an aversion so singular, he replied, "that he thought it cruel to deprive of life an innocent animal, and filthy to feed upon a corpse." He published, in 12mo. 1789, a volume of poems, under the name of Silvester Otway. He wrote, besides, 2. *Rane Comice Evangelicantes*; or, the Comic Frogs turned Methodists; 1786. 3. The British Mercury, a periodical publication; 1787. 4. The alarming Progress of French Politics; a pamphlet on the subject of the Commercial Treaty, 1787. *Biographia Dramatica*.

OSWALD's LAW; the law by which was effected the ejecting married priests, and introducing monks into churches, by Oswald bishop of Worcester, about the year 964.

OSWALDESLAW, a village in Worcestershire, between Worcester and Speechly, the chief place of a hundred of its own name, and the place where bishop Oswald used to keep his court, on a rising ground, where the hundred-court is held still; and not far from it was St. Oswald's hospital, built and endowed by him in the year 960, and pulled down in the reign of queen Elizabeth; but, on the restoration of king Charles II. a neat hospital was erected in its place for twelve poor men. This hundred is exempt from the jurisdiction of the sheriff, and comprehended eight hundred hides of land.

OSWALTWISTLE, a township of Lancashire. In 1801, the population was 2710, with 951 employed in manufactures: six miles north-north-east of Blackburn. *Cruttwell's Gaz.*

OSWAN'SIO, a town of Sweden, in Gestricia: seventeen miles west-south-west of Gefle.

OSWEGAT'CHIES, Indians of Canada, inhabiting the north bank of the St. Lawrence, near Oswegatchy-river.

OSWEGAT'CHY, a river of United America, which runs into the river St. Lawrence in lat. 44. 45. N. lon. 75. 28. W.

OSWEGAT'CHY, a lake of the state of New-York. Lat. 44. 7. N. lon. 75. 24. W.

OSWEGO, a navigable river of New-York, which conveys the waters of Oneida, and a number of small lakes, into lake Ontario. It is more commonly called *Onondago*.—Also, a fortress on the east side of the mouth of the above river, and on the south-east side of lake Ontario: it is about 150 or 160 miles east-by-north of Niagara. Lat. 44. 43. N. lon. 76. 50. W.

OSWEGO CREEK (Great), lies in the county of Lincoln, Upper Canada; and runs into the river Welland, above the Little Oswego Creek, near the north-west part of the township of Wainfleet.

OSWEGO TE'A. See MONARDA.

OSWESTRY, a borough, market-town, and parish, in the hundred of Oswestry, and county of Salop, is situated on the great road from London to Holyhead, at the distance of eighteen miles from Shrewsbury, and 179½ from the metropolis. The town stands upon higher ground than any other in Shropshire, and the country around is delightfully varied with hills, vales, wood, and water, and exhibits some very rich and picturesque scenery. It is a borough by prescription, and is governed by a mayor, recorder, high-steward, town-clerk, murenger, coroner, and other inferior officers; but sends no member to parliament. The body corporate consists of the mayor, twelve aldermen, and fifteen common-councilmen, who elect the mayor, recorder, and murenger; but the high-steward and town-clerk are nominated by the lord of the manor, earl Powis; and the office of coroner is always

held by the chief magistrate of the preceding year. The petty sessions for the hundred are holden here, besides the courts connected with the borough. Wednesday and Saturday of every week are the market-days in this town; and there are six fairs in the year, viz. March 15, May 12, Wednesday before Midsummer, August 15, Wednesday before Michaelmas-day, and December 10, for horses, cattle, sheep, flannel, &c. &c. Here is an excellent free grammar-school, of recent erection. The church is a very spacious building, with a plain well-proportioned tower at one end. Oswestry has been much improved within the last ten years, in consequence of an act obtained, in 1810, for widening, paving, and lighting, the streets, and of the spirit of building which has resulted from that measure. According to the parliamentary returns of 1811, the houses in the town were 788, and the inhabitants 3479 in number.

Oswestry is a town of great antiquity. The Saxons called it *Mæserfeld*, or *Mæserfelth*, signifying the Acorn-field; and the Britons *Tre-ewefan-gluddiu in Urberu*, *Tre-Kadari*, or the Town of Great Oaks. Its present appellation was derived from the name of St. Oswald king of Northumberland, who was defeated and slain here by Penda king of Mercia, one of the most cruel and bloody tyrants that ever disgraced a throne. It was the practice of St. Oswald to erect a cross on the field of battle, as a standard, at the foot of which he and his army, the moment before the trumpets sounded the charge, practised the pious devotion of kneeling, appealing to heaven for the justice of his cause, and imploring its assistance to confound the insolence of his enemies. And hence the place was called by the Welsh *Croes Ofwald*, Oswald's Cross; but, by the English, *Oswald's Tree*, now *Oswestry*. Subsequently, when the great Offa constructed the barrier still known by his name, Oswestry stood between it and Watt's Dyke, which ran parallel to the former, at the distance of two miles. It was thus rendered a border-town, and hence was frequently the scene of contest, first between the Saxons and the Britons, and afterwards between the latter and the Normans. In 1212 king John burnt both the town and castle, which were then in the possession of the Fitz-Alans, and plundered a part of Wales, on account of the refusal of Llewellyn to join his standard in opposition to Louis, the dauphin of France, who had been invited to England by the rebellious barons. Oswestry was likewise destroyed by the Welsh prince called Llewellyn the Great, in 1233. During this period it was encircled by a strong wall, which had four gates fronting the four cardinal points. Some traces of the wall still remain; but the gates were entirely demolished about the year 1769. Of the castle, which stood on a high artificial mount at the west side of the town, only a few fragments now exist. These, however, are sufficient to indicate its former prodigious strength, and consequent importance as a place of defence.

In 1794, a large and handsome building was erected within three quarters of a mile of the town, by virtue of an act of parliament, for the relief and employment of the poor of that and eleven other neighbouring parishes united therewith. They are represented at a weekly court, held every Monday at the house, by sixteen directors, who are chosen out of, and elected by, the guardians or householders, of whom Oswestry sends five, and each of the others one. The good effects of the institution are known from the reduction of the poor's-rates, and the comfort which the aged poor find of cleanliness and plenty in this asylum. The youth of both sexes, and other paupers able to work, are stimulated to industry, by having allowed them for their own use one-sixth part of their earnings; some being employed as tailors, shoemakers, &c. &c. and others in the woollen and other manufactories.

About a quarter of a mile north-east from Oswestry is an ancient fortification called Old-Fort, which the Welsh formerly

formerly denominated *Llys-Ogran*, or *Caer-Ogran*; that is, Ogran's Palace, or Strong Hold. It consists of three deep entrenchments, encircling a natural eminence, having a sudden ascent on all sides. Beyond this stand the venerable ruins of Whittingham-castle, which was built more than a century before the Conquest, and after that event became a baronial residence of the Montgomeries, the Peverells, and the Fitz-guarines. The situation of this castle is extremely picturesque; its eastern walls being washed by a fine lake, shaded with large old oaks, and having a small islet in its centre, covered with tall wych-elm and ash-trees.

Knockin-castle, about five miles from Oswestry, was built by lord Lefrange or Strange, and continued in the possession of his family till the reign of Edward IV. when it passed into the family of the Stanleys, earls of Derby. The village here had formerly a market and fairs, and was a place of considerable importance.

Chirk-castle, on the confines of Denbighshire, stands on the site of a more ancient fortress, called Castell Crogen, which was demolished in the reign of Edward I. and the present structure erected in its stead by Roger Mortimer. In the time of the civil wars between king Charles and his parliament, this castle was the property of sir Thomas Middleton, the celebrated parliamentary general, whose descendants, by the female line, still possess it. It is a square building, strengthened at the angles by massy bastion-like towers, and having a court in the centre. A picture-gallery in this edifice contains a large collection of portraits. *Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. xiii. *Wilkes's British Directory*, vol. iv.

OSWIEC'ZIN, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Cracow, on the Vistula: thirty-two miles west of Cracow. OSYMAN'DIAS, an Egyptian king, and the first monarch who formed a library. He caused a colossal statue of himself to be erected, on which was this inscription: "I am Osymandias, king of kings; whoever will dispute this title with me, let him surpass my works." For a description of some of these, see the article EGYPT, vol. vi. p. 292. These works must indeed give us a striking assurance of the progress which had been made in the arts at that time; whether he lived, as some have thought, the immediate successor of the first Busiris, which was somewhat later than the period of Semiramis; or, as others have conceived, subsequent to Sesostris, which would be four hundred years later. Diodorus Siculus, who describes the stupendous edifices, says nothing of the age in which Osymandias lived; every opinion, therefore, on that point must be conjecture. We shall only remark, that there is nothing in the works of art in that edifice which should appear too much for the earliest age in which that monarch has been placed, when we look back to what was done of that kind in a period full as early by Semiramis in Assyria. *Bromley's Hist. of the Fine Arts*, vol. i.

OSY'RIS, *f.* [*ὄσις* of Dioscorides, which he describes as "a small shrub, with numerous dark tough branches;" so that professor Martyn's conjectural derivation of the name from *ὄσος*, a branch, is very probably just.] In botany, a genus of the class diœcia, order triandria, natural order of calycifloræ, (elæagni, *Juss.*) Generic characters—I. Male. Calyx: perianthium one-leaved, trisid, turbinate; segments equal, ovate, acute. Corolla: none, except a triple nectariferous rim. Stamina: filaments three, very short; anthers roundish, small. II. Female. Calyx: perianthium as in the male, superior, permanent, very small. Corolla: none, as in the male. Pistillum: germ turbinate, inferior; style the length of the stamens; stigma three-parted, spreading, (roundish, *Syst.*) Perianthium: berry globular, one-celled, umbilicated. Seeds bony, globular, filling the pericarp.—*Essential Character*. Male. Calyx trisid; corolla none. Female. Stigma roundish; drupe one-celled, berry dry, umbilicated.

1. *Osyris alba*, poet's casia, or garderober: leaves linear. This is a very low shrub, seldom rising above two feet

high, having woody branches. Leaves long, narrow, of a bright colour. Flowers of a yellowish colour; succeeded by berries, which at first are green, and afterwards turn to a bright-red colour, like those of asparagus. Scopoli observed rudiments of styles and a germ in the male plant; and asks why it has the epithet of *alba*, or white, when the calyxes, and almost the whole plant, are yellow. Linnæus remarks, that the female should rather be called an hermaphrodite, since it has stamens, although it is barren without the male. Native of France, Spain, Italy, Carniola, and Mount Libanus. Cultivated in 1739 by Mr. Miller.

2. *Osyris Japonica*, or Japanese *osyris*: leaves ovate, floriferous. Stem shrubby, tubercled, a fathom high. Branches alternate, upright, smooth. Leaves alternate, frequent at the ends of the branches, smooth on both sides, unequal, an inch long and more. Petioles one-third of the length of the leaves. Flowers from the midrib of the upper surface of the leaves in umbels, male and female on distinct shrubs; umbels simple, with about eight flowers without an involucre. Perhaps this may form a new genus; but, the female flowers being yet unknown, it cannot be settled satisfactorily. The leaves are said to be eaten in Japan, where it is a native.

Propagation and Culture. This plant grows by the side of roads, as also between rocks, and is with great difficulty transplanted into gardens; nor does it thrive after being removed; so that the only method to obtain this plant is, to sow the berries where they are to remain. These berries commonly remain a year in the ground before the plants appear, and sometimes they will lie two or three years; so that the ground should not be disturbed under three years, if the plants do not come up sooner. These seeds must be procured from the places where the plants naturally grow, for those which have been brought into gardens never produce any, and it is with great difficulty they are preserved alive. See ANTIRRHINUM, CHENOPODIUM, CHRYSOCOMA, HIPPOPHAE, and NITRARIA.

OSY'RIS, in mythology. See OSIRIS, p. 1.

OSZ'MIANA, or OSCHMIANA, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna, the principal place of a district, where provincial diets and justice-courts are held: twenty-eight miles south-east of Wilna.

OTABA'LO, a jurisdiction of South America, in the province of Quito, connected on the south with that of San Miguel de Ibarra. The lands are laid out in plantations, and produce great quantities of sugar. The Indians in the villages, and also those who are independent, manufacture great variety of cottons; viz. carpets, pavilions for beds, quilts in damask-work, either white, blue, or variegated with different colours; all which are highly valued in the provinces of Quito and Peru, where they are disposed of to great advantage. The wheat and barley are sown here, like Indian corn, in little holes, a foot distant from each other, into each of which are dropped five or six grains; and they generally reap above a hundred-fold. This jurisdiction abounds with horses and black cattle; and from the milk of the latter large quantities of cheese are made. The fertility of the country is very much promoted by a great number of rivulets. Its flocks of sheep are also numerous, though they seem to be neglected by the inhabitants.—The principal place in this jurisdiction is OTABALO, which is so large and populous, that it is said to contain 18,000 or 20,000 persons. It is thirty miles north of Quito. Lat. 0. 15. N. lon. 77. 56. W.

OTACOU'STIC, *adj.* [from the Gr. *ὠτα*, ears, and *ακουω*, to hear.] Belonging to the sense of hearing.

OTACOU'STIC, or OTACOUSTICON, *f.* An instrument to facilitate hearing.—Not vouching to see or hear any thing but by perspectives and *otacoustics*. *Hammond*.—In a hare, which is very quick of hearing, it is supplied with a bony tube; which, as a natural *otacoustic*, is so directed backward as to receive the smallest and most distant sound that comes behind her. *Grew's Cosmol.*

Casimol.—Using some *otacouftigon*, and placing the mouth of it towards the found. *Smith on Old Age*.

OTAHAI', one of the Society Islands, in the South Pacific Ocean, situated two miles north of Ulietea, and both inclosed within one reef of coral rocks, so that there is no passage for shipping between them. Otaha affords two very good harbours; one on the east side, called Ohamene, and the other on the west, called Ohererua, which is pretty large, and affords good anchorage in twenty and twenty-five fathom; nor is there any want of fresh water. The land of Otaha, as well as that of Ulietea, is hilly, broken, and irregular, except on the sea-coast; yet the hills appear green and pleasant, and are in many places clothed with wood. This island has been conquered by the king of Bolabola. Lat. 16. 33. S. lon. 151. 20. W.

OTAHEITE, or TAHITI, called by Capt. Wallis "King George the Third's Island," one of the Society Isles, in that division of the world by modern geographers called Polynesia. It is about ninety miles in circumference; and is supposed to have been first seen by Quirós in the year 1606, and by him called *Sagittaria*. Captain Wallis was the first Englishman who discovered it, in the year 1767. The year following it was visited by Monf. de Bougainville, a French commander; and by Capt. Cook, in the years 1769, 1773, 1774, and 1777. From his account, as drawn up by Dr. Hawkesworth, we shall extract what may be called the early history of it; adding some particulars as to its present state, from the Missionary Voyages, and other recent publications.

The island consists of two distinct kingdoms, which are united by a narrow neck of land; the larger being called by the natives *Tiararabou*, or O-Taheitee Nue; the smaller one *Opoureonou*, or O-Taheitee Ete. The country has a delightful romantic appearance. The coast, viewed from the sea, presents a most beautiful prospect, being elevated like an amphitheatre. The island is skirted with a reef of rocks, and towards the sea is level, being covered with fruit-trees of various kinds, particularly the cocoa-nut. At the distance of about three miles from the shore, the country rises into lofty hills that are covered with wood, and terminate in peaks, from which large rivers are precipitated into the sea. The stones every-where appear to have been burnt, not one being found which did not give manifest signs of fire; so that there is great reason for supposing that this and the neighbouring islands are either the shattered remains of a continent, or were torn from rocks, which, from the creation of the world, have been the bed of the sea, and thrown up in heaps to a height which the waters never reach. What is further extraordinary, the water does not gradually grow shallow as we approach the shore, but is of immense depth close by the land; and the islands in this neighbourhood are almost every-where surrounded by reefs which appear to be rude and broken, in the manner that some violent concussion would naturally leave the solid substance of the earth; and Mr. Forster saw a rock with projecting longitudinal angles of black compact basaltes. The exterior ranges of hills are sometimes entirely barren, and contain a great quantity of yellowish clay, mixed with iron ochre; but others are covered with mould and wood, like the mountains in the internal parts of the country. Pieces of quartz are sometimes met with here; but no indications of precious minerals or metals of any kind have been observed, iron only excepted. One of the greatest natural curiosities of the country, is a pond or lake of fresh-water, at the top of one of the highest mountains, remarkable for its depth, and for its eels of enormous size.

The coral-rocks, by which the island is surrounded, form several excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for any number of the largest ships. Port Royal, or Matavai, which is not inferior to any, may be easily known by a very high mountain in the middle of the island, which bears due south from Point Venus. The best anchoring is on the east side of the bay,

with sixteen and fourteen fathom upon an oozy bottom. The shore of the bay is a fine sandy beach, behind which runs a river of fresh-water, so that any number of ships may be supplied without incommoding each other.

The soil of the island, except on the very tops of the ridges, is extremely rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets of excellent water, and covered with fruit-trees of various kinds. The low land that lies between the foot of the ridges and the sea, and some of the valleys, are the only parts that are inhabited; and here it is populous. The houses do not form villages or towns, but are ranged along the whole border, at the distance of about fifty yards from each other, with little plantations of plantains, the tree which furnishes them with cloth. The whole island, according to the best information, could furnish 6780 fighting men, from which the number of inhabitants at that time may easily be computed.

The produce of this island is bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, bananas of thirteen sorts, plantains, a fruit not unlike an apple, which, when ripe, is very pleasant; sweet potatoes, yams, cocoas, a kind of arum; a fruit known here by the name of *jambu*, and reckoned most delicious; sugar-cane, which the inhabitants eat raw; a root of the salep kind, which the inhabitants call *pea*; a plant called *ethee*, of which the root only is eaten; a fruit that grows in a pod, like that of a large kidney-bean, which, when it is roasted, eats very much like a chestnut, by the natives called *ahce*; a tree called *wharra*, called in the East-Indies *pandanes*, which produces fruit something like a pine-apple; a shrub called *nono*; the *morinda*, which also produces fruit; a species of fern, of which the root is eaten, and sometimes the leaves; and a plant called *theve*, of which the root also is eaten; but the fruits of the *nono*, the fern, and the *theve*, are eaten only by the inferior people, and in times of scarcity. All these, which serve the inhabitants for food, the earth produces spontaneously, or with little culture. They have also the Chinese paper-mulberry, of the bark of which they make their cloth; an herb which the inhabitants eat raw, its flavour somewhat resembling that of the West-India spinach called *calletoon*, but its leaf very different; a plant which the natives call *ava* or *eava*, from the root of which they express a liquor, which, if drank to excess, intoxicates like wine or distilled spirits. Here is a sort of shady tree, covered with a dark-green foliage, bearing golden-coloured apples, which, in juiciness and flavour, resemble the ananas or pine-apple. One of the most beautiful trees in the world received here the name of *Barringtonia*; it had a great abundance of flowers larger than lilies, and perfectly white, excepting the tips of their numerous chives, which were of a deep crimson. Such a quantity of these flowers were seen dropped off, that the ground underneath the tree was entirely covered with them. The natives called the tree *buddov*; and the fruit, which is a large nut, when bruised and mixed-up with some shell-fish, and thrown into the sea, intoxicates the fish for some time, so that they come to the surface of the water; and suffer themselves to be taken with the hand. Several other maritime plants in tropical climates are found to have the same quality. Mr. Dalrymple describes the method of catching fish with these plants as follows: The plant is thrust under the coral-rocks or hollows where the fish haunt; the effect is most sensible in still water, though it is effectual in the open sea; for the same gentleman says he has seen fish soon after float on the surface of the water half dead, and some totally without life; and, where the effect is less violent, the fish will be seen under the water to have lost their poise, without coming up to the surface. Fish caught in this manner are not in the least noxious or ill-tasted.

Their domestic poultry exactly resemble those of Europe: besides which there are wild ducks; also beautiful green turtle-doves; large pigeons, of a deep-blue plumage and excellent taste; a small sort of parrots, very singular on account of the various mixture of red and blue in their

their feathers; also another sort of a greenish colour, with a few red spots; the latter are frequently tamed, and are valued on account of their red feathers. Here is a kingfisher of a dark green, with a collar of the same hue round his white throat; a large cuckoo, and a blue heron. Small birds of various kinds dwell in the shady trees; and, contrary to the generally-received opinion that birds in warm climates are not remarkable for their song, have a very agreeable note. There were no quadrupeds but dogs, hogs, and rats: and for these last the natives were said to have a scrupulous regard, inasmuch that they would by no means kill them; however, Capt. Cook, in 1773, turned about fourteen cats on the island, which have probably reduced the number of these vermin. No frogs, toads, scorpions, centipedes, or any kind of serpent, have been found here; the ants, however, are troublesome, but not very numerous. When the Endeavour first arrived here, in 1769, the flies were found excessively troublesome; but musquito-nets and fly-flaps in some measure removed the inconvenience. Sydney Parkinson, in his journal, says that, notwithstanding these flies are so great a nuisance, the natives, from a religious principle, will not kill them. But there is a strange disagreement in the accounts of different voyagers concerning this matter: for M. Bougainville says, "this island is not infested with those myriads of troublesome insects that are the plague of other tropical countries." And Mr. Forster says, "not a gnat or musquito hummed unpleasantly about us, or made us apprehensive of its bite." This inconvenience must therefore be felt at certain seasons of the year, and in certain districts of the country, more sensibly than at other times and places. There is great variety of excellent fish; and, according to Aitourou, a native who embarked with M. Bougainville, there are sea-snakes on the shore of Otaheite, whose bite is mortal.

The inhabitants of Otaheite are a stout, well-made, active, and comely, people. The stature of the men, in general, is from five feet seven to five feet ten inches; the tallest man seen by Capt. Wallis measured six feet three inches and a half; and Capt. Cook, in his second voyage, describes Otoo, the king of Otaheite, to be of that height. "In order to paint Hercules or a Mars," says M. de Bougainville, "one could no-where find such beautiful models." They are of a pale-brown complexion; in general their hair is black, and finely frizzled; they have black eyes, flat noses, large mouths, and fine white teeth; the men wear their beards in many fashions, all of them plucking out a great part. Most of them smell strong of the cocoa-nut oil. The women in general are much smaller, especially those of the lower rank, or *tautous*, which is attributed to their early and promiscuous intercourse with the men; whilst the better sort, who do not gratify their passions in the same unbridled manner, are above the middle stature of Europeans. Their skin is most delicately smooth and soft; they have no colour in their cheeks; their nose is generally somewhat flat, but their eyes are full of expression, and their teeth beautifully even and white. "The women," says M. de Bougainville, "have features not less agreeable than the generality of Europeans, and a symmetry of body and beautiful proportion of limbs which might vie with any of them. The complexion of the men is tawny; but those who go upon the water are much more red than those who live on-shore. Some have their hair brown, red, or flaxen, in which they are exceptions to all the natives of Asia, Africa, and America, who have their hair black universally; here, in the children of both sexes, it is generally flaxen. The strongest expression is painted in the countenances of these people; their walk is graceful, and all their motions are performed with great vigour and ease." "I never beheld statelier men," says Sydney Parkinson. The men of consequence on the island wear the nails of their fingers long, which they consider as a very honourable badge of distinction, since only such people as have no occasion to work can suffer them to grow to that length.

This custom they have in common with the Chinese; but the nail of the middle finger on the right hand is always kept short, the meaning for which peculiarity could not be learned. Only one single cripple was met, with among them, and he appeared to have been maimed by a fall."

Both sexes have a custom of staining their bodies, nearly in the same manner as is practised in many other parts of the world, which they call *tattooing*. They prick the skin, so as just not to fetch blood, with a small instrument, something in the form of a hoe; that part which answers to the blade is made of a bone or shell, scraped very thin, and is from a quarter of an inch to an inch and a half wide; the edge is cut into sharp teeth or points, from the number of three to twenty, according to its size; when this is to be used, they dip the teeth into a mixture of a kind of lamp-black, formed of the smoke that rises from an oily nut, which they burn instead of candles, and water: the teeth, thus prepared, are placed upon the skin, and the handle to which they are fastened being struck, by quick smart blows, with a stick fitted to the purpose, they pierce it, and at the same time carry into the puncture the black composition, which leaves an indelible stain. The operation is painful, and it is some days before the wounds are healed. It is performed upon the youth of both sexes when they are about twelve or fourteen years of age, on several parts of the body, and in various figures, according to the fancy of the parent, or perhaps the rank of the party. The women are generally marked with this stain, in the form of a Z, on every joint of their fingers and toes, and frequently round the outside of their feet: the men are also marked with the same figure; and both men and women have squares, circles, and crescents, and ill-designed representations of men, birds, or dogs, and various other devices, impressed upon their legs and arms, some of which, we were told, had significations, though we never could learn what they were. But the part on which these ornaments are lavished with the greatest profusion, is the breech: this, in both sexes, is covered with a deep black; above which arches are drawn one over another as high as the short ribs. These arches are their pride, and are shown both by men and women with a mixture of ostentation and pleasure. The face, in general, is left unmarked.

Both men and women are not only decently but gracefully clothed, in a kind of white cloth that is made of the bark of a shrub, and very much resembles coarse China paper. Their dress consists of two pieces of this cloth; one of them, having a hole made in the middle to put the head through, hangs from the shoulders to the mid-leg before and behind; another piece, which is between four and five yards long, and about one yard broad, they wrap round the body in a very easy manner: this cloth is not woven; but is made like paper, of the macerated fibres of the inner bark spread out and beaten together. Their ornaments are feathers, flowers, pieces of shell, and pearls; the pearls are worn chiefly by the women. In wet weather they wear matting of different kinds, as their cloth will not bear wetting. The dress of the better sort of women consists of three or four pieces: one piece, about two yards wide and eleven long, they wrap several times round their waist, so as to hang down like a petticoat as low as the middle of the leg; and this they call *parou*. This simple drapery affords the sex an opportunity of displaying an elegant figure to the greatest advantage. Two or three other pieces, about two yards and a half long and one wide, each having a hole cut in the middle, they place one upon another; and then, putting the head through the holes, they bring the long ends down before and behind; the others remain open at the sides, and give liberty to the arms: this, which they call the *tebuta*, is gathered round the waist, and confined with a girdle or sash, of thinner cloth, which is long enough to go many times round them, and exactly resembles the garment worn by the inhabitants of Peru and Chili, which the Spaniards

Spaniards call *poncho*. The drefs of the men is the fame, except that, inftead of fuffering the cloth that is wound about the hips to hang down like a petticoat, they bring it between their legs, fo as to have fome refemblance to breeches; and it is then called *maro*. Upon their legs and feet they wear no covering; but they fhade their faces from the fun with little bonnets, either of matting or of cocoa-nut leaves, which they make occasionally in a few minutes. This, however, is not all their head-drefs; the women fometimes wear little turbans, and fometimes a drefs which they value much more, and which, indeed, is much more becoming, called *tomou*; which confifts of human hair, plaited in threads, fcarcely thicker than fowing-filk. Sir Jofeph Banks has pieces of it above a mile in length, without a knot. Their perfonal ornaments, befides flowers, are few: both fexes wear ear-rings, but they are placed only on one fide; when our navigators came, they confifted of fmall pieces of fhell, ftones, berries, red peafe, or fome fmall pearls, three in a ftring; but the beads brought by captain Cook very foon fupplanted them all. The children go quite naked; the girls till they are three or four years old, and the boys till they are fix or feven.

The dwellings of thefe people are all built in the woods, between the fea and the mountains, and no more ground is cleared for each houfe than juft fufficient to prevent the dropping of the branches from rotting the thatch with which they are covered. From the houfe, therefore, the inhabitants ftep immediately under the fhade, which is the moft delightful that can be imagined. It confifts of groves of bread-fruit and cocoa-nuts, without under-wood, which are interfefted, in all direftions, by the paths that lead from one houfe to the other. The ground on which the houfe is built is an oblong fquare, twenty-four feet long, and eleven wide; over this a roof is raifed, upon three rows of pillars or pofts, parallel to each other, one on each fide, and the other in the middle. The utmoft height within is about nine feet, and the eaves on each fide reach to within about three feet and a half of the ground: below this, and through the whole height at each end, it is open, no part of it being inclofed with a wall. The roof is thatched with palm-leaves, and the floor is covered, fome inches deep, with foft hay; over this are laid mats, fo that the whole is one cushion, upon which they fit in the day, and fleep in the night. In fome houfes, however, there is one ftool, which is wholly appropriated to the mafter of the family; befides this, they have no furniture, except a few little blocks of wood, the upper fide of which is hollowed into a curve, and which ferve them for pillows. The houfe is, indeed, principally ufed as a dormitory; for, except it rains, they eat in the open air, under the fhade of the next tree. The clothes that they wear in the day, ferve them for covering in the night; the floor is the common bed of the whole houfehold, and is not divided by any partition. The mafter of the houfe and his wife fleep in the middle, next to them the married people, next to them the unmarried women, and next to them, at a little diftance, the unmarried men; the fervants fleep in the open air, except it rains, and in that cafe they come juft within the fhed. There are, however, houfes of another kind, belonging to the chiefs, in which there is fome degree of privacy. Thefe are much fmall, and fo conftituted as to be carried about from place to place, and fet up occasionally, like a tent; they are inclofed on the fides with cocoa-nut leaves, but not fo clofe as to exclude the air, and the chief and his wife fleep in them alone. There are houfes alfo of a much larger fize, not built either for the accommodation of a fingle chief or a fingle family, but as common receptacles for all the people of a diftrict. Some of them are 200 feet long, thirty broad, and, under the ridge, twenty feet high; thefe are built and maintained at the common expenfe of the diftrict, for the accommodation of which they are intended.

Their candles are made of the kernels of a kind of oily

nut, which they flick one above another in a fkewer that is thruft through the middle of them; the upper one, being lighted, burns to the fecond, at the fame time confuming that part of the fkewer that goes through it; the fecond, taking fire, burns in the fame manner down to the third, and fo to the laft: they burn a confiderable time, and afford a pretty good light; fo that the candle and the candleftick burn out together. No very great quantity, however, of thefe is ufed, as the natives generally retire to reft about an hour after it is dark.

The food of the common people entirely confifts of vegetables. Thefe are, the bread-fruit, with bananas, plantains, yams, apples, and a four fruit, which, though not pleafant by itfelf, gives an agreeable relifh to roasted bread-fruit, with which it is frequently beaten up. The fleft, which is referved for the tables of the great, is either poultry, hogs, or dogs; the fleft of their fowls is not well-tafted, but that of dogs is efteemed by the natives beyond pork. The fmaller fifh are generally eaten raw, as we eat oysters: every thing that can be procured from the fea is made an article of their food; for they will eat not only fea-infefts, but what the feamen call *blubbers*, though fome of them are fo tough that they are obliged to fuffer them to become putrid before they can be chewed. A very large fiark, being caught by the Dolphin's people, was given to the natives; who foon cut it to pieces, and carried it away with great fatisfaction.

They kill the animals they intend for food by fuffocating them, which is done by ftopping the mouth and nofe with their hands; they then finge off the hair, by holding the animal over a fire, and fcraping it with a fhell: with this inftrument they cut it up, and take out the entrails; which are wafhed, and put into cocoa-nut fhells, together with the blood. Dogs that are eaten are fed wholly upon bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, yams, and other vegetables, and are never fuffered to tafte animal food; and thofe who have tafte the fleft of a dog thus fed, have declared it to be little inferior to Englifh lamb. In order to drefs their food, they kindle a fire, by rubbing the end of one piece of dry wood upon the fide of another, in the fame manner as a carpenter with us whets a chifel. They then dig a pit about half a foot deep, and two or three yards in circumference; they pave the bottom with large pebble ftones, which they lay down very fmooth and even, and then kindle a fire in it with dry wood, leaves, and the hulks of cocoa-nuts. When the ftones are fufficiently heated, they take out the embers, and rake up the afhes on every fide; they then cover the ftones with a layer of green cocoa-nut leaves, and wrap up the animal that is to be drefsed in the leaves of the plantain. If it is a fmall hog, they wrap it up whole; if a large one, they fplit it. When it is placed in the pit, they cover it with the hot embers, and lay upon them bread-fruit and yams, which are alfo wrapped up in the leaves of plantain. Over thefe they fpread the remainder of the embers, mixing among them fome of the hot ftones, with more cocoa-nut tree leaves upon them, and then clofe up all with earth, fo that the heat is kept in; the oven is kept thus clofed a longer or fhorter time, according to the fize of the meat that is drefsed. They ufe fhells for knives; and carve very dexteroufly with them, always cutting from themfelves, like the Jefuits.

They were quite unacquainted with the method of boiling water, as they had no vefels among them that would bear the fire. The gunner of the fhip, who was appointed comptroller of the market which was eftablifhed on fhore with the natives, ufed to dine on the fpot; the aftonifhment of thefe people was very great to fee him drefs his pork and poultry in a pot; at length an old man, who was extremely ferviceable in bringing down provifions to be exchanged, was put into poffeffion of an iron pot, and from that time he and his friends ate boiled meat every day. Several iron pots were likewife given to queen Oberea and fome of the chiefs.

M

Salt

Salt water is the usual sauce to their food: those who live near the sea have it furnished as it is wanted, others at a distance keep it in large bamboos. The kernels of the cocoa-nut furnish them with another sauce; these, made into a paste something of the consistence of butter, are beat up with salt water, which has a very strong flavour; but, though at first it seemed very nauseous, yet, when the taste became familiar, it was much relished.

Their general drink is water, or the milk of the cocoa-nut. They showed in general an aversion to strong liquors; and, whenever any one of them happened to drink so freely with any of the ship's company as to be intoxicated, he resolutely refused to taste any thing that was likely to produce the same effect again; but they have a plant which they call *ava-ava*, from the root of which they procure a liquor which has an inebriating quality. Their manner of preparing this strong drink is as simple as it is disgusting to an European. Several of the people take some of the root, and chew it till it is soft and pulpy; they then spit it out into a platter or other vessel, every one into the same: into this general receptacle water is poured, according to the quantity prepared. The juice thus diluted is strained through some fibrous stuff like fine shavings, after which it is fit for drinking, and it is always prepared for present use: it has a pepperish taste; drinks flat, and rather insipid; and, tho' it will intoxicate, yet Capt. Cook saw but one instance where it had that effect, as the natives generally drink it with great moderation, and but little at a time. Sometimes they chew this root as Europeans do tobacco, and sometimes they will eat it wholly.

They eat alone, or at least only in company with a guest that happens to call in; and the men and women never sit down together to a meal: the shade of a spreading tree serves them for a parlour; broad leaves spread in great abundance serve for a table-cloth; and, if a person of rank, he is attended by a number of servants, who seat themselves round him: before he begins his meal, he washes his mouth and hands very clean, and repeats this several times whilst he is eating. The quantity of food which these people eat at a meal is prodigious. Captain Cook says, he has seen one man devour two or three fishes as big as a perch; three bread-fruits, each bigger than two fists; fourteen or fifteen plantains, or bananas, each six or seven inches long and four or five round; and near a quart of the pounded bread-fruit. Men of rank are constantly fed by their women; and one of the chiefs who dined on-board the ships in 1769, showed such reluctance to feed himself, that one of the servants was obliged to feed him, to prevent his returning without his meal. In one of the excursions which the gentlemen of the ships made into the country in 1773, they arrived at a neat house, where a very fat man, who seemed to be a chief of the district, was lolling on his wooden pillow; before him two servants were preparing his desert, by beating up with water some bread-fruit and bananas in a large wooden bowl, and mixing with it a quantity of fermented four paste called *mahie*. While this was doing, a woman, who sat down near him, crammed down his throat by handfuls the remains of a large baked fish, and several bread-fruits, which he swallowed with a voracious appetite: his countenance was the picture of phlegmatic insensibility, and seemed to testify that all his thoughts centered in the gratification of his appetite. He scarcely deigned to look at the strangers; and a few monosyllables which he uttered, were extorted from him to remind his feeders of their duty, when, by gazing at them, they grew less attentive to him.

That these people, who are remarkably fond of society, and particularly that of their women, should exclude its pleasures from the table, where, among other nations, whether civil or savage, they have been principally enjoyed, is truly inexplicable. How a meal, which everywhere else brings families and friends together, comes to separate them here, was a singularity much inquired about,

but never accounted for. "They ate alone (they said), because it was right;" but why it was right to eat alone, they never attempted to explain. Such, however, was the force of habit in this instance, as it is in every other, that they expressed the strongest dislike, and even disgust, at their visitants eating in society, especially with women, and of the same victuals. "At first (says Cook) we thought this strange singularity arose from some superstitious opinion; but they constantly affirmed the contrary. We observed also some caprices in the custom, for which we could as little account as the custom itself. We could never prevail with any of the women to partake of the victuals at our table, when we were dining in company; yet they would go five or six together into the servants' apartments, and there eat very heartily of whatever they could find: nor were they in the least disconcerted if we came in while they were doing it. When any of us have been alone with a woman, she has sometimes eaten in our company; but then she has expressed great unwillingness that it should be known, and always extorted the strongest promises of secrecy. Among themselves, even two brothers and two sisters have each their separate baskets of provisions, and the apparatus of their meal. When they first visited us at our tents, each brought his basket with him; and, when we sat down to table, they would go out, sit down upon the ground, at two or three yards distance from each other, and, turning their faces different ways, take their repast without exchanging a single word. The women not only abstain from eating with the men, and of the same victuals, but even have their victuals separately prepared by boys kept for that purpose, who deposit it in a separate shed, and attend them with it at their meals. But, though they would not eat with us, or with each other, they have often asked us to eat with them, when we have visited those with whom we were particularly acquainted at their houses; and we have often, upon such occasions, eaten out of the same basket, and drank out of the same cup. The elder women, however, always appeared offended at this liberty; and, if we happened to touch their victuals, or even the basket that contained it, they would throw it away."

After meals, and in the heat of the day, the middle-aged people of the better sort generally sleep. They are indeed extremely indolent; and sleeping and eating are almost all that they do. Those that are older, are less drowsy; and the boys and girls are kept awake by the natural activity and sprightliness of their age.

Their amusements are music, dancing, wrestling, and shooting with the bow: they also sometimes vie with each other in throwing a lance. Their only musical instruments are flutes and drums; the flutes are made of a hollow bamboo, about a foot long, and have only two stops, and consequently but four notes. The drum is made of a hollow block of wood, of a cylindrical form, solid at one end, and covered at the other with shark's skin: these they beat, not with sticks, but their hands; and they know how to tune two drums of different notes into concord. They have also an expedient to bring the flutes that play together into unison, which is to roll up a leaf so as to slip over the end of the shortest, like our sliding tubes for telescopes, which they move up and down till the purpose is answered, of which they seem to judge by their ear with great nicety. To these instruments they sing; their songs are often extempore; they call every two verses, or couplet, a song, *palay*: they are generally, though not always, in rhyme; and, when pronounced by the natives, they might be discovered to be metre. Among other diversions, there is a dance called *timorodee*, which is performed by young girls, whenever eight or ten of them can be collected together, consisting of motions and gestures beyond imagination wanton, in the practice of which they are brought up from their earliest childhood, accompanied by words, which, if it were possible, would more explicitly convey the same ideas. In these dances they keep time with an exactness which is scarcely

scarcely excelled by the best performers upon the stages of Europe. But the practice, which is allowed to the virgin, is prohibited to the married woman.

These islanders, who inhabit huts exposed to all the winds, and hardly cover the earth, which serves them for a bed, with a layer of leaves, are remarkably healthy and vigorous, and live to an old age without enduring any of its infirmities; their senses are acute, and they retain their beautiful teeth to the last. M. de Bougainville describes an old man, whom they saw on their landing, who had no other character of old age, than that respectable one which is imprinted on a fine figure. His head was adorned with white hair, and a long white beard; all his body was nervous and fleshy; he had neither wrinkles, nor showed any other tokens of decrepitude. This venerable man seemed displeased at the arrival of these strangers; he even retired without making any returns to the courtesies they paid to him; but he gave no signs either of fear, astonishment, or curiosity: very far from taking any part in the raptures which the multitude expressed, his thoughtful and suspicious air seemed to indicate, that he feared the arrival of a new race of men would interrupt the happiness he had so long enjoyed. From whence it may be inferred, that his mind was not more impaired than his body. There are, however, several sorts of leprous complaints on this island, which appear in cutaneous eruptions of the scaly kind; some were seen that had ulcers upon different parts of their bodies; yet they seemed little regarded by those who were afflicted with them, and no application whatever was used to them, not so much as to keep off the flies. But instances of them are rare, as the excellency of their climate, and the simplicity of their vegetable food, prevent almost all dangerous and deadly disorders. The venereal disease, however, is said to have been entailed upon these people by the crew of M. de Bougainville's ships, who visited this island a short time after Capt. Wallis had left it. In 1769, more than one half of the crew in Capt. Cook's ship had contracted it, during a month's stay here. The natives distinguished it by a name of the same import with *rottenness*, but of a more extensive signification. They described, in the most pathetic terms, the sufferings which the first victims to its rage endured; and told him that it caused the hair and the nails to fall off, and the flesh to rot from the bones; that it spread an universal terror and consternation among the inhabitants, so that the sick were abandoned by their nearest relations, left the calamity should spread by contagion, and were left to perish alone in such misery as, till then, had never been known among them. Both Capt. Cook and Mr. Forster, in their relations of their voyage in the Resolution, endeavour to establish the opinion, that this scourge of licentiousness was felt in the South-Sea islands previous to any of the modern voyages that have been made thither, and that it was an indigenous disease there. But, if that conclusion be well founded, how comes it, that at all the places where the Resolution touched in 1773, which had before been visited by the Endeavour in 1769, such as New Zealand for instance, the crew, more or less, became infected by their commerce with the women; and not at all so at places which they visited for the first time in the Resolution?

The principal manufactures among the Otaheiteans, is their cloth. This is made of the bark of trees, which are of three kinds; viz. the Chinese mulberry-tree, or *aouta*; the bread-fruit tree, or *ooroo*; and one that is described by Dr. Hawkesworth as resembling the wild-fig tree of the West Indies. The colours with which they dye this cloth are principally red and yellow. The red is exceedingly beautiful, and of a brighter and more delicate colour than any we have in Europe. The red colour is produced by the mixture of the juices of two vegetables, neither of which, separately, has the least tendency to that hue; and is a species of fig called here *matte*, and the other the *Cordia sebestina*, or *etou*. Of the fig-tree the fruit is used, and of the *Cordia* the leaves. The yellow is made of the bark of the root of the *Morinda citrifolia*, called *nono*, by scraping and infusing it in water.

The inhabitants of this island have also a method of dyeing yellow with the fruit of the *tamanu*: they have also a preparation with which they dye brown and black.

Another considerable manufacture, is matting of various kinds; some of which is finer and better in every respect than any we have in Europe: the coarser sort serves them to sleep upon, and the finer to wear in wet weather. They are also very dextrous in making basket and wicker work; their baskets are of a thousand different patterns, many of them exceedingly neat; and the making of them is an art that every one practises, both men and women. The women make little bonnets of the cocoa-nut leaf, to shade their faces, at so small an expense of time and trouble, that, when the sun is again low in the evening, they throw them away. These bonnets, however, do not cover the head, but consist only of a band that goes round it, and a shade that projects from the forehead.

Of the bark of a tree called *poerou*, the *Hibiscus tiliacus* of Linnæus, they make ropes and lines, from the thickness of an inch to the size of a small packthread; with these they make nets for fishing; of the fibres of the cocoa-nut they make thread, for fastening together the several parts of their canoes, and belts, either round or flat, twisted or plaited; and of the bark of the *erowa*, a kind of nettle, which grows in the mountains, and is therefore rather scarce, they make the best fishing-lines in the world: with these they hold the strongest and most active fish, such as bonetas and albicores, which would snap our strongest silk lines in a minute, though they are twice as thick. They make also a kind of seine, of a coarse broad grass, the blades of which are like flags; these they twist and tie together in a loose manner, till the net, which is about as wide as a large sack, is from sixty to eighty fathom long; this they haul in shoal smooth water, and its own weight keeps it so close to the ground, that scarcely a single fish can escape. In every expedient, indeed, for taking fish, they are exceedingly ingenious; they make harpoons of cane, and point them with hard wood, which in their hands strike fish more effectually than those which are headed with iron can do in ours, setting aside the advantage of ours being fastened to a line, so that the fish is secured if the hook takes place, though it does not mortally wound him. Of fish-hooks they have two kinds, admirably adapted in their construction, as well to the purpose for which they are designed, as to the materials of which they are made. These are made of mother-of-pearl, or some other hard shell.

The tools used by the Otaheiteans for all their purposes are, an adze made of stone; a chisel or gouge made of bone, generally the bone of a man's arm between the wrist and elbow; a rasp of coral, and the skin of a sting-ray; also coral and sand, as a file or polisher; and with these they fell timber, cleave and polish it, and hew stone. The stone which makes the blade of their adzes is a kind of basalt, of a grey or blackish colour, not very hard, but of considerable toughness; they are formed of different sizes: some, that are intended for felling, weigh from six to eight pounds; others, that are used for carving, not more than as many ounces; but it is necessary to sharpen these rude tools almost every minute; for which purpose a cocoa-nut shell full of water, and a stone, are always at hand. With such tools they generally take up several days in felling a tree; but, after it is down, and split into planks, they smooth them very dexterously and expeditiously with their adzes, and can take off a thin coat from a whole plank without missing a stroke.

Their weapons are slings, which they use with great dexterity; pikes headed with the skins of sting-rays; and clubs of about six or seven feet long, made of a very hard wood. Thus armed, they are said to fight with great obstinacy; and to give no quarter to man, woman, or child, who happens to fall into their hands during the battle, nor for some time afterwards, till their passion subsides. They have likewise bows and arrows; but the arrows are good for nothing except to bring down a bird, being headed

headed only with stone, and none of them pointed. They have targets of a semicircular form, made of wicker work, and plaited strings of the cocoa-nut fibres, covered with glossy bluish-green feathers belonging to a kind of pigeon, and ornamented with shark's teeth, arranged in three concentric circles.

Their boats or canoes are of three different sorts. Some are made out of a single tree, and hold from two to six men: these are principally employed in fishing. Others are constructed of planks very dexterously sewed together; they are of different sizes, and will hold from ten to forty men: they generally lash two of these together, and set up two masts between them; or, if they are single, they have an on-trigger on one side, and only one mast in the middle; and in these vessels they will sail far beyond the sight of land. The third sort seems to be principally designed for pleasure or show. These are very large, but have no sail; and in shape resemble the gondolas of Venice. The middle is covered with a large awning; and some of the people sit upon it, and some under it. The plank of which these vessels are constructed, is made by splitting a tree, with the grain, into as many thin pieces as possible. The boards are brought to the thickness of about an inch, and are afterwards fitted to the boat with the same exactness that might be expected from an expert joiner. To fasten these planks together, holes are bored with a piece of bone, fixed into a stick for that purpose. Through these holes a kind of plaited cordage is passed, so as to hold the planks strongly together. The seams are caulked with dry rushes; and the whole outside of the vessel is painted over with a kind of gummy juice, which supplies the place of pitch.

Upon a second visit to this island, in May 1774, Capt. Cook found that a very considerable number of canoes had been constructed in the course of eight months. The number of war-canoes raised and equipped by the whole island amounted to 1720, manned by 68,000 able men, allowing forty to each canoe; and, as these cannot amount to above one-third part of the number of both sexes, children included, the whole island could not, he thought, contain less than 204,000 inhabitants.

In connection with their navigation, we may mention their wonderful sagacity in foretelling the weather, at least the quarter from which the wind shall blow at any future time. In their longer voyages, they steer by the sun in the day, and in the night by the stars; all which they distinguish separately by names, and know in what part of the heavens they will appear in any of the months during which they are visible in their horizon; they also know the time of their annual appearing and disappearing with more precision than will easily be believed by an European astronomer. In speaking of time, either past or future, they never used any term but *Malama*, which signifies moon; of these moons they count thirteen, and then begin again, so that they have a notion of the solar year: each month, they say, has twenty-nine days, including one in which the moon is not visible. They distinguish them by separate names. Every day is subdivided into twelve parts, each of two hours, of which six belong to the day, and six to the night. In numeration they proceed from 1 to 10, the number of fingers on both hands; and, though they have for each number a different name, they generally take hold of their fingers one by one, shifting from one hand to the other till they come to the number they want to express. In counting from 10, they repeat the name of that number, and add the word *more*; ten and one more, is eleven, &c. When they come to 10 and 10 more, they have a new denomination, as we say a score; and by these scores they count till they get ten of them, when they have a denomination for 200; but they did not seem to have any denomination for expressing a greater number. In speaking of distance from place to place, they express it, like the Asiatics, by the time that is required to pass it.

As to their manners and habits, their propensity to

theft is very great, inasmuch that M. Bougainville says, "even in Europe itself one cannot see more expert filchers than the people of this country;" and indeed, in all the voyages made by Cook and others, they had abundant experience of this disposition of the natives, which often produced quarrels, and sometimes even fatal effects. In their behaviour they are said to be extremely lascivious, almost beyond credibility. A lady of distinction who visited Mr. Banks, used the following ceremony on her first approach to the stranger. After laying down several young plantain-leaves, a man brought a large bundle of cloth; which having opened, he spread it piece by piece on the ground, in the space between Mr. Banks and his visitants. There were in all nine pieces: having spread three pieces one upon another, the lady came forward, and, stepping upon them, took up her garments all around her to her waist; she then turned three times round, after which she dropped the veil: when other three pieces were spread, she practised the same ceremony; and so the third time, when the last three pieces were laid out; after which the cloth was again rolled up, and delivered to Mr. Banks as a present from the lady, who, with her attending friend, came up and saluted him. From the unbridled licentiousness of these people, the French gave this island the name of the *New Cythera*. Yet Capt. Cook says that the women of Otaheite, and of the Society Isles in general, have been calumniated by those who represent them, without exception, as ready to grant the last favour to any man that will come up to their price. This, he says, is by no means the case; the favours of married women, and also of the unmarried of the better sort, are obtained with as much difficulty here as in any other country; neither can the charge be understood indiscriminately of the unmarried of the lower class, for many of these admit of no such familiarities. There are, however, prostitutes here, as well as in other countries, and perhaps more in proportion: but, according to the more recent missionary-accounts, there is no public appearance of immodesty; and they impute those noted exhibitions to the bribes of their English visitors.

Their voice and speech are soft and harmonious; and their dialect is the Italian of the Pacific Ocean. It abounds with vowels, and the pronunciation of it is easily acquired: but it was found excessively difficult to teach the natives to pronounce English words; but Spanish and Italian words, if ending in a vowel, they pronounced with the greatest ease. They called Capt. Cook *Toole*; Mr. Hicks, the first lieutenant, *Hete*, &c. and in this manner they formed names for almost every man in the ship. In some, however, it was not easy to find any traces of the original; and they were perhaps not mere arbitrary sounds, formed upon the occasion, but signified words in their own language; and it seems that they could perfectly remember these appellations at the distance of four years, by their enquiries after such gentlemen as were absent on the second voyage by name. Mr. Monkhouse, a midshipman, they called *Matte*, which in their language signifies *dead*; because he commanded a party that killed a man for stealing a musket.

The Otaheiteans are remarkable for cleanliness: both men and women constantly wash their whole bodies three times a-day in running water. They are most expert swimmers, being accustomed to the water from their infancy. Capt. Cook relates the following remarkable instance of their expertness. On a part of the shore where a tremendously high surf broke, inasmuch that no European boat could live in it, and the best European swimmer, he was persuaded, would have been drowned, as the shore was covered with pebbles and large stones, yet here were ten or twelve Indians swimming for their amusement. Whenever a surf broke near them, they dived under it, and rose again on the other side. The stern of an old canoe added much to their sport. This they took out before them, and swam with it as far as the outermost beach; when two or three getting into it, and turning

the square end to the breaking wave, were driven in towards the shore with incredible rapidity, sometimes almost to the beach; but generally the wave broke over them before they got half way; in which case they dived, and rose to the other side with the canoe in their hands, and, swimming out with it again, were again driven back. This amazing expertness drew the captain's attention for more than half an hour; during which time none of the swimmers attempted to come ashore, but seemed to enjoy the sport in the highest degree. At another time, one of the officers of the quarter-deck intending to drop a bead into a canoe for a little boy of six years of age, it accidentally missed the boat, and fell into the sea: but the child immediately leaped overboard, dived after it, and recovered it. To reward him for this feat, some more beads were dropped to him; which excited a number of men and women to amuse the officers with their amazing feats of agility in the water, and not only fetched up several beads scattered at once, but likewise large nails, which, from their weight, descended quickly to a considerable depth. Some of these people continued a considerable time under water; and the velocity with which they were seen to go down, the water being extremely clear, was very surprising.

The government of the Otaheiteans seems greatly to resemble the early state of the European nations under the feudal system. Their orders of dignity are *earce-rahie*, which answers to king; *caree*, baron; *manahouni*, vassals, and *toutow*, vassal. There are two kings in the island, one being the sovereign of each of the peninsulas of which it consists. Each of them is treated with great respect by all ranks, but does not appear to be invested with so much power as is exercised by the earces in their own districts. When the king, whom they called *Otoo*, made a visit to Capt. Cook, the chiefs, who happened to be there before him, immediately stripped themselves in great haste. Captain Cook took notice of it; upon which they said *earce-rahie*, signifying, that it was on account of *Otoo*, being present; but this was the only outward token of respect they paid him, for they never rose from their seats, or made any other obeisance. The *earces* are lords of one or more of the districts into which each of the peninsulas is divided, and of which there are forty-three in the larger one. These parcel out their territories to the *manahounis*, who superintend the cultivation of the ground. The lowest class, called *toutows*, seem to be nearly under the same circumstances with the vassals in feudal governments. They do all the laborious work, cultivate the land, catch fish, fetch wood and water, &c.

In this country a child succeeds to his father's titles and authority as soon as he is born; and thus the king no sooner has a son born, than his sovereignty ceases. A regent is then chosen; and the father generally retains his power under that title, until his child becomes of age. The child of the baron succeeds to the titles and honours of his father as soon as it is born, as well as the son of the king; so that a baron who was yesterday called *caree*, and was approached with the ceremony of lowering their garments, so as to uncover the upper part of the body, is to-day, if his wife happens to be delivered of a child, reduced to the rank of a private man; all marks of respect being transferred to the child, if it is *suffered to live*, though the father still continues possessor and administrator of his estate. But the acquiescence which the lower class of people, or *toutows*, yield to the command of their chiefs, is very remarkable. They are not suffered to taste any animal food, although they are employed in feeding it for their lords. They endure patiently very severe blows, if, when collected into a large body, they in any manner press upon, or annoy, the king or a chief in his progress; and all this passive spirit is preserved without any power being lodged in the hands of the king to exact it; for he uses no military force, nor is even attended with body-guards.

As to their religion, they believe, besides a supreme

Deity, that there are numerous subordinate deities, or *eatuas*, of both sexes; the male are worshipped by the men, and the female by the women; and each have morais to which the other sex is not admitted, though they have also morais common to both; men perform the priestly office to both sexes, and each sex has its priests; for those who officiate for one sex do not officiate for the other. They also believe the immortality of the soul, at least its existence in a separate state, and that there are two situations of different degrees of happiness, somewhat analogous to our heaven and hell: the superior situation they call *tavirua l'erau*, the other *liahoboo*. They do not, however, consider them as places of reward and punishment, but as receptacles for different classes; the first, for their chiefs and principal people; the other, for those of inferior rank; for they do not suppose that their actions here in the least influence their future state, or indeed that they come under the cognizance of their deities at all.

Their *morais* are used both as burying-grounds and places of worship; they are approached with the most wonderful expressions of reverence and humility; and this, it should seem, not because any thing there is esteemed sacred, but because they there worship an invisible being, for whom they entertain the most reverential respect, although not excited by the hope of reward or the dread of punishment. One of these cemeteries, or places of worship, was known to captain Cook, on his first voyage, by the name of *Tootahah's morai*, then the regent; but when, on his second voyage, after the death of that chief, he called it by that name, Maratata, a chief that accompanied the party, interrupted him, intimating, that it was no longer *Tootahah's* after his death, but was then known as *Otoo's morai*, the then reigning prince. The chief and his wife, on passing by it, took their upper garments from their shoulders. From hence it would seem, that the royal family have a particular morai, and that it always bears the name of the reigning prince.

An Indian, who had snatched away a musket from a sentry whilst on duty, was, by the inhumanity of a midshipman who commanded the guard, pursued and shot. The unhappy fate of this poor fellow gave an opportunity for seeing the manner in which these people treat their dead. They placed the corpse in the open air till the bones became quite dry: a shed was erected close by the house where the deceased had resided; it was about fifteen feet long and eleven broad; one end was left quite open; the other end, and the two sides, were partly inclosed with a sort of wicker-work. The bier was a frame of wood, like that on which the sea-beds called *cots* are placed, with a matted bottom, and supported by four posts, at the height of about four feet from the ground. The body was covered first with a mat, and then with white cloth; by the side of it lay a wooden mace, one of their weapons of war; and near the head of it, which lay next to the close end of the shed, lay two cocoa-nut shells; at the other end a bunch of green leaves, with some dried twigs, all tied together, were stuck in the ground, by which lay a stone about as big as a cocoa-nut. Near these lay one of the young plantain-leaves that are used for emblems of peace, and close by it a stone axe. At the open end of the shed also hung, in several strings, a great number of palm-nuts; and without the shed was stuck up in the ground a stem of a plantain-tree, about six feet high, upon the top of which was placed a cocoa-nut shell full of fresh water; against the side of one of the posts hung a small bag, containing a few pieces of bread-fruit ready roasted, which had not been put in all at one time, some being fresh and others stale. The food so placed by the corpse is designed as an offering to their gods. They cast in, near the body, small pieces of cloth, on which the tears and blood of the mourners have been shed; for, in their paroxysms of grief, it is an universal custom to wound themselves with a shark's tooth. The mourner is always a man; and he is dressed in a very singular

gular habit. When the bones are stripped of their flesh, and become dry, they are buried. This regard to their dead is very remarkable: one of the ship's company happening to pull a flower from a tree which grew on one of their sepulchral inclosures, an Indian came suddenly behind him and struck him; and a party of sailors, who were sent to get some stones for ballast for the ship, had like to have been embroiled with the natives, by pulling down some part of an inclosure of this kind. This shade under which their dead are laid is called *tupapow*; the inclosure in which their bones are deposited is called *morai*: these latter, as has been already related, are also places of worship.

Captain Cook, who had some reason to believe that, among the religious customs of this people, human sacrifices were sometimes offered up to their deities, went to a *morai*, or place of worship, accompanied by Capt. Furneaux, having with them a sailor who spoke the language tolerably well, and several of the natives. In the *morai* was a kind of bier, with a shed erected over it, on which lay a corpse and some provisions. Captain Cook then asked if the plantains were for the *Eatua*? if they sacrificed to the *Eatua* hogs, dogs, fowls, &c.? To all of which an intelligent native answered in the affirmative. He then asked if they sacrificed *men* to the *Eatua*? He was answered, *taato eno*, "bad men they did; first *tipararakhy*, beating them till they were dead." He then asked if good men were put to death in this manner? His answer was *no*, only *taato eno*. The captain then asked if any *caracs* (nobles) were? The native replied, They had hogs to give the *Eatua*. He was then asked if *towns*, who had no hogs, dogs, or fowls, but yet were good men, were ever sacrificed to the *Eatua*? The answer still was, *No*, only bad men. Many other questions were put to him; all his answers to which seem to confirm the idea, that men for certain crimes were condemned to be sacrificed to the gods, provided they did not possess any property which they might give for their redemption: and Capt. Cook, on his last visit to Otaheite, in 1777, took the opportunity of attending Otoo to a *morai* at one of these public solemnities. The unhappy victim, offered to the object of their worship on this occasion, was a middle-aged man, who was one of the lowest class of the people; and he had been selected, not on account of any particular crime committed by him meriting death. In general, however, such guilty persons are chosen for their sacrifices; or else, common low fellows, who stroll about from place to place, and from island to island, without having any fixed abode, or any visible way of getting an honest livelihood. This person appeared to have been privately knocked on the head with a stone; for those who are devoted to suffer, in order to perform this bloody act of worship, are never apprised of their fate, till the blow is given that terminates their existence. Whenever any one of the great chiefs thinks a human sacrifice necessary on any particular emergency, he pitches upon the victim. Some of his trusty servants are then sent, who fall upon him suddenly, and put him to death with a club, or by stoning him. The king is next acquainted with it, whose presence at the solemnities that follow is absolutely necessary. The solemnity itself is called *Poore Erce*, or Chief's Prayer; and the victim who is offered up, *taata-taboo*, or consecrated man. The *morai*, which is a place of worship, sacrifice, and burial, where the sacrifice was now offered, is that where the supreme chief of the whole island is always buried, and is appropriated to his family and some of the principal people; it differs little from the common ones, except in extent. Its principal part is a large oblong pile of stones, lying loosely upon each other, about twelve or fourteen feet high, contracted towards the top, with a square area on each side, loosely paved with pebble-stones, under which the bones of the chiefs are buried. At a little distance from the end nearest the sea is the place where the sacrifices are offered, which, for a considerable extent, is

also loosely paved. Here is a very large scaffold, on which the offerings of fruits and other vegetables are laid; but the animals are deposited on a smaller one, and the human sacrifices are buried under different parts of the pavement. There are several other relics which ignorant superstition has scattered about this place. But one place, more particular than the rest, is a heap of stones, at the end of the large scaffold, before which the human sacrifice was offered; and on a kind of platform at one side are laid the skulls of all the human sacrifices, which are taken up after they have been several months under ground. It cannot less than be regretted, that a practice so horrid, and such bloody rites of worship, should prevail, as is probably the case, through all the widely-extended islands of the Pacific Ocean.

When Capt. Cook was at Otaheite in 1773, in company with Capt. Furneaux, the latter took on-board his ship (the *Adventure*) a young man named *Omai*. This youth is said to have had some property in his native soil, of which he was dispossessed by the people of *Bolabola*: but he was not one of the *caracs*, or gentry of that country, but of the middling class of people. He was eminent neither for figure, shape, nor complexion; his colour being of deep hue, resembling a *town*, or one of the common people; and both Capt. Cook and Mr. Forster agreed in thinking him no proper sample of the inhabitants of those islands, in respect of personal beauty. However, they were both of opinion, that the qualities of his heart and head resembled those of his countrymen in general, and that no one of the natives would have given more general satisfaction by his behaviour whilst he remained in England. He is described as possessing a good understanding, quick parts, and honest principles: not an extraordinary genius; yet not at all deficient in intelligence, which appeared from his knowledge of the game of chess, in which he made an amazing proficiency. His principal patrons, whilst in England, were, the earl of Sandwich, Mr. Banks, and Dr. Solander. The earl introduced him to his majesty at Kew; and, during his stay in England, he was caressed by many of the principal nobility. He naturally imitated that easy politeness which is prevalent among the great, and which is one of the ornaments of civilized society. Indeed, he adopted the manners, the occupations, and amusements, of his companions in general, and gave many proofs of a quick perception and a lively fancy. He appears, however, to have been treated, whilst he resided here, rather as a fashionable exhibition, than as a rational being. No attention seems to have been paid to the enriching his mind with useful knowledge, such as might have rendered him a valuable acquisition to his country on his return thither; no means were used to instruct him in agriculture, or any mechanical art or useful manufacture; and, above all, to possess him with a moral sense; to teach him the exalted ideas of virtue, and the sublime principles of revealed religion. After a stay of two years in England, and having been inoculated for the small-pox, he embarked with Capt. Cook, on-board the *Resolution*, on his return home, loaded with a profusion of presents. At parting with his friends here, his tears flowed plentifully, and his whole behaviour bespoke him to be sincerely affected at the separation; but, though he lived in the midst of amusements during his residence in England, his return to his native country was always in his thoughts; and, though he was not impatient to go, he expressed a satisfaction as the time of his return approached. It was in August 1777, that Capt. Cook visited Otaheite for the last time, having *Omai* with him. But his conduct was so imprudent, that he soon forfeited the friendship of Otoo, and of every other person of note in the island. He associated with none but vagabonds and strangers, whose sole views were to plunder him; and thus incurred the ill-will of the principal chiefs. The captain, therefore, settled him in the island of *Huaheine*; and, having provided a comfortable habitation, with suitable accommodations

for him, our navigators took their leave of him on the 2d of November, 1777; but in parting with Capt. Cook his feelings were much agitated, and he wept all the time in going ashore. "Whatever faults (says Capt. Cook) belonged to Omai's character, they were more than overbalanced by his great good-nature and docile disposition."

At the time that Omai was in this country, he attracted a great deal of attention; and indeed, the public discourse was about nothing but Otaheite and its beautiful girls, and queen Oberea, and king Otoo, and his wife and accomplished privy-counsellor Tupia. At length, our admiration of Otaheite excited some degree of ridicule on the continent. The unfortunate La Perouse observes, in one of his letters, "I flatter myself you will see with pleasure, that, in the course of so long a voyage, I shall have no occasion to put in at those everlasting Society Islands, about which more has been written than concerning several kingdoms of Europe; and I confess to you, that I congratulate myself on having nothing to say either about Otaheite or queen Oberea."

It is confessed that the women have fine black eyes, with white even teeth, soft skin, and elegant limbs; while their hair is of a jetty black, perfumed and ornamented with flowers. But, with all these advantages, they yield infinitely in beauty to the women of the Marquesas; the face being widened from continual pressure during infancy, which, by distending the mouth, and flattening the nose and forehead, gives a broad masculine appearance. Hence it is evident that the Grecian and academical forms, given by artists void of real taste or precision to the people of the South Seas, in the prints that accompany the English and French voyages, are totally false and imaginary; nor can there be a greater injury to books of genuine character, and solid information, than this practice, which renders the modern prints far inferior in every respect to some excellent ancient representations of De Bry.

We may, however, just remark, that there must have been something extremely fascinating in the persons, manners, or customs, of the inhabitants, or in the soil and appearance of the country, that could tempt the greater part of a ship's crew to resist authority, and forcibly to return to Otaheite; yet, such we know was the case; and the sufferings of the commander, and those who refused to join in this vile conspiracy, and who were therefore exposed in an open boat, are well known.

The first missionary-voyage to Otaheite was undertaken in the year 1796; and the first preachers of the Gospel there, set foot on land on the 25th of March, 1797. Here they found that Otoo, the king of whom we have before repeatedly spoken, and Pomaree his father, had obtained the sovereignty over the whole island of Otaheite, (both kingdoms,) and likewise over that of Eimeo. On the 7th, some of the missionaries and the captain waited on the king. "The captain informed the king, that our only inducement for leaving Pretane (Britain) to come and visit them, was to do them good, by instructing them in the best and most useful things; and for this end, some good men of our number intended to settle among them; requiring on their part the free gift of a piece of land, sufficiently stocked with bread-fruit and cocoa-nut trees; that they (the missionaries) would not on any account intermeddle in their wars. If he consented, they would stay on the island; if not, they would go elsewhere." It appeared doubtful whether Otoo understood this harangue; though he signified that a large house, which stood near Point Venus, should be their own, and that they might take what land they pleased.

The missionaries, from various causes, made their way but slowly. In a luxuriant climate like that of Otaheite, where mirth, good-nature, and beauty, reign uncontrolled, it is natural to suppose that strangers must be exposed to many temptations. The apostle, when he holds forth to the natives, and sees himself surrounded with a number of beautiful and naked females, soon feels the strongest

emotions excited in his breast: and, if his eyes happen to meet those of his more artful hearer, she is sure of darting at him such a look as we shall not here attempt to describe, at the same time smiling, and showing two rows of teeth whiter than the finest alabaster. The saint is thrown off his guard, and we see religion prostrate at the feet of female beauty. But now the malignant and triumphant Otaheitean shows her just contempt for the sanctified hypocrite, who a few minutes before expatiated on chastity, temperance, and virtue; and, so far from bestowing on him the favour he thinks so easily to obtain, he is repulsed with the most severe rebuke, for presuming to make a crime of following the irresistible dictates of nature, and which he now proves, by his own actions, cannot be resisted. Other difficulties arose, from the ignorance of the natives, or from the difficulty of making them fully understand every point of doctrine that was urged. Thus, when the missionaries told them that the God of Britain is the God of Otaheite and the whole earth, and that it is from this being they receive their hogs, bread-fruit, and cocoa-nuts; this the Otaheiteans flatly denied; alleging, that they possessed all these articles long before they had heard of the God of Britain. And, when these missionaries spoke to them respecting *salvation*, they fondly thought that it was to be *saved from sickness*, and to abide in this world: the salvation of the soul they affect to despise, and the resurrection of the body they ridicule as extreme folly.

The next communication from this place is the account of Mr. Turnbull, whose voyage round the World was performed in the years 1800-1804. He informs us of the sudden death of Otoo, (who appears to have been called Pomaree, as well as his father,) which happened while Mr. T. was there. The account he gives of the place is melancholy indeed. We shall make a few extracts.

"The population has diminished in a degree which threatens to reduce the country to a desert. Capt. Cook computed them at upwards of two hundred thousand; the population has now dwindled to five thousand; but, on the arrival of the Duff, they exceeded triple this number. Mr. Elder and Mr. Wilson had just returned from the Mottos, whither they had been conveyed by our boat on the 18th of August. They reported that the population did not exceed *three hundred*.

"The mortality which raged at this period, and which, I fear, is but too epidemic and frequent, was such as to inspire us with the most melancholy ideas. During our short absence in our visit to the Sandwich Islands, many young persons of both sexes were no more; they had died in the prime and vigour of life, and others, of an appearance equally healthy, were following them very fast. Great part of this mortality must be imputed to their ignorance: the doctrine of fatality prevails among them to a most dangerous excess. Every disease is the immediate consequence of the vengeance of their offended deities, and therefore every thought of remedy or relief is rejected as equally useless and impious. They are left to their fate; and their diseases are unfortunately such as, however easy of cure under a regular course, are but too fatal when suffered to augment under neglect. They are moreover convinced that the greater part of their plagues and diseases flow immediately from the shipping. They insist upon it that Capt. Cook brought the intermittent fever, the crooked backs, and the scrophula, which breaks out in the necks, breasts, groins, and arm-pits; that Vancouver brought a bloody flux, which in a few months killed a great number of them, and then abated; they say that Capt. Bligh also brought the scrophula; but I could not learn what ship introduced the elephantiasis and epilepsy.

"Another cause of the depopulation of this beautiful island, is the dreadful crime of infanticide. When reproaching Pomaree with this barbarous and inhuman practice, he alleged in reply, that, should all the children born be reared to maturity, there would not be a sufficiency

ciency of food on the island for their support. The *earees*, or gentry, are a society so licentious and profligate, as to call loudly for punishment, even from the Divine power. The very principle of their union is the community of their women, and the murder, at the moment of their birth, of all their issue of both sexes. By a strange and most lamentable perversity of mind, these wretches are venerated as a superior order of beings, and are treated as such wherever they go. I am persuaded that the example of these murderers extends this horrible mischief beyond themselves; the common people of all countries usually judge, and in consequence act, more from the example of their superiors than as guided by their own reason. The common people may thus be led to imitate what they see in their chiefs. I believe, throughout the whole island, it is a matter of choice, whether a child shall be brought up or murdered.

"To any man of humanity, nothing can be more distressing than to cast his eye on the island of Otaheite, a spot blessed by nature with every thing that can render life pleasing; fertility of soil, and serenity of climate: but now become a scene of general mortality, and a prey to disease, which, to all human appearance, in a few years must render it a desolate wilderness, untrodden by human feet. They impute the greater part of these diseases to their European visitors; but for the most part very absurdly, though indeed we must take our share. There can be no doubt but that thousands of them have been swept off by the venereal disease since their intercourse with Europeans.

"Besides the disorders above mentioned, they have many others with which I am unacquainted, but which, doubtless, have their share in the destruction of the population. But the most effectual instrument of the annihilation of these people, is the horrible practice already noticed, that of infant murder and human sacrifices. It is computed that at least two-thirds of the births are thus stifled. In vain does nature raise her voice against what long usage and profligacy, confirmed by habit and example, has so barbarously induced. If the future diminution of these people keep pace with that of late years, and particularly during the time of my abode among them, the population must soon be extinct."

Considering the miserable state of this island, the reader will no doubt be surprised at being informed, that a general rebellion broke out in the month of November, 1808, by which Pomaree (this seems to have been a general name for their kings) was driven off the island, and continued in exile at Eimeo till the very same month in the year 1815.

The missionaries, who had precipitately fled when the insurrection broke out, and repaired to New South Wales, now returned to their labour of love; and from that time were so wonderfully successful, that, in less than two years, the whole of the natives had been converted. The following is an extract of a letter from the Rev. John Davies, one of the missionaries, to the Rev. John Hughes, of Montgomeryshire, dated July 2, 1817. "I shall now give you a short account of the state of things with us. The *revival* and reformation which commenced in 1813-1814, continued, and increased in 1815 and 1817, so that the whole of the inhabitants of Otaheite, Eimeo, Tapan-manu, Huaheine, Raintea, Tahaa, Bolabola, and Maura, have entirely renounced idolatry. The gods, altars, &c. are utterly destroyed. The offering of human sacrifices, and the practice of infanticide, are at an end. The worship of the true God, and the profession of Christianity, are general throughout all the above islands. In Otaheite 66 chapels have been built; and in Eimeo 16. The people assemble for worship thrice every Sunday, and on every Wednesday evening. The Lord's day is strictly observed throughout the whole of the islands. Private and family prayer is general among the people. About 4000 persons have learned to read, and many of them to

write. In a word, the change far exceeds our expectation. They have been furnished with a printing-press by the London Missionary Society; and part of the Gospels, translated into the language of the nations, is now printing. The culture of the sugar-cane, and other arts of civilization, are also in progress." Another letter says, "The king, Pomaree, has sent all his family-idols to the missionaries, desiring them either to destroy them, or send them to Europe, that the people of England may see what *foolish gods* they formerly worshipped." Mr. Marsden sent these gods, nailed up in a case, to England; and they are now exhibited at the Museum of the Missionary Society, in Jewin-street, London.

But surely there must have been a revival (as it is called) of people as well as of devotion; for the 66 chapels, &c. could be of little use, if the island were now in the depopulated condition described by Turnbull. See Turnbull's Voyage. Cook's three Voyages. Missionary Voyages. State of Christianity in the Island of Otaheite, by a Foreign Traveller, 1811.—Otaheite lies in lat. 17. 30. to 17. 48. S. lon. 149. 15. to 150. 0. W. Mata-vai Point is in lat. 17. 29½. lon. 210. 22. 28. E. Variation of the compass, from 4. 46. to 5. 34. E. Dip of the needle, 29. 12.

OTAKOOTAI'A, or WEENOOA-ET'TE, signifying *Little Island*, an island of the South Pacific Ocean, about three miles in circuit; discovered by Captain Cook in the year 1777. The beach, within the reef, is composed of a white coral sand; above which the land within does not rise above six or seven feet, and is covered with a light reddish soil, but is entirely destitute of water. The only common trees found there were cocoa-palms, of which there were several clusters, and vast numbers of the *wharra*. A sort of bind-weed covers the vacant spaces; except in some places, where was found a considerable quantity of treacle-mustard, a species of spurge, with a few other small plants; and the *Morinda citrifolia*, the fruit of which is eaten by the natives of Otaheite in times of scarcity. The only bird seen among the trees was a beautiful cuckoo, of a chestnut-brown variegated with black. But upon the shore were some egg-birds, a small sort of curlew, blue and white herons, and great numbers of noddies. Here was found a lizard, of a most forbidding aspect, though small, running up a tree; and many of another sort were seen. The banks toward the sea were frequented by an infinite number of a sort of moth, elegantly speckled with red, black, and white. There were also several other sorts of moths, as well as some pretty butterflies, and a few other insects. Although no fixed inhabitants were found on this island, indubitable marks remained of its being, at least, occasionally frequented. Some huts were found; and also several large stones, erected, like monuments, under the shade of some trees; and several spaces enclosed with smaller ones, where probably the dead had been buried; and, in one place, a great many cockle-shells of a particular sort, finely grooved, and larger than the fist, were to be seen; from which it was reasonable to conjecture, that the island had been visited by persons who feed partly upon shell-fish: about three or four leagues from Wateoo. Lat. 19. 15. S. lon. 201. 37. E.

OTAL'GIA, *f.* [from the Gr. *ωτα*, ears, and *αλγος*, pain.] A pain of the ear; the ear-ach.

OTANGU'RA, a town of Bengal; sixteen miles south-south-west of Tomar.

OTBERT'US, or OBERTUS, a celebrated ecclesiastic, was first canon at St. Lambert, near Liege; but was banished, as is said, by the bishop, on account of his misconduct. He then repaired to the court of the emperor Henry IV. where he was appointed to a place in the imperial chapel; and, the episcopal chair becoming vacant, he obtained it from the emperor, either by money or promises, in the year 1091. Some writers, however, say nothing of these reproaches; and testify that he conducted himself in his episcopal quality in a very laudable manner.

Otbert

Othbert purchased from the celebrated Godfrey of Bouillon, when he went on his expedition to the Holy Land, the castle of Bouillon, together with the lands belonging to it; and on that account, in all probability, he has been styled by some Duke of Bouillon. Being strongly attached to the emperor Henry IV. he left an account of his life and death, which seemed so hostile to the church of Rome, that its historian, Baronius, considered it to be a piece interpolated by Reinerus Reinecius. The oldest editions were printed without the name of the author, till it was added to it by Goldasti. The first was published by John Aventinus, who found it in the monastery of St. Emeran, near Ratibon. It is entitled "Henrici IV. Cæsaris Augusti, ducis vero Boiorum VII. Vita. Eiusdem Epistolæ inventæ a J. Aventino," Augustæ, 1518, 4to. It is printed also in the *Ortuini Gratii Fasciculus rerum expendarum et fugiendarum*; Col. 1535. Lond. 1690. tom. i. *Gen. Biog.*

OT'CHAKOV. See OCZAKOW, vol. xvii.

OT'CHI HO'TUN, a town of Asia: 150 miles north-east of Calagar. Lat. 40. 46. N. lon. 84. 14. E.

OTCHTER BAY, a bay on the north coast of South America: ten miles west of Cumana.

OTEAVANOO'A HAR'BOUR, a bay on the south-west coast of the island of Bolabola.

OTEWHE'I. See POLI.

OTFORD, a village in Kent, five miles north of Sevenoaks, where Offa king of Mercia defeated and killed Aldred king of Kent. Offa, the treacherous murderer of Ethelbert, to atone for the blood he had shed in this battle, gave Otford to Christ Church, Canterbury, *in pascua porcorum*, (as the deed says,) "for pasture for the archbishop's hogs." Such were the acts of piety so much esteemed in that superstitious age, that Malmesbury, one of the best of our old English historians, declares himself at a loss to determine whether the merits or crimes of this prince preponderated! Otford continued in the see of Canterbury till the time of Henry VIII.

OTHAIN', a river of France, which runs into the Chiers near Montmedy.

OTHER, *pron.* [Saxon.] Not the same; not this; different. In this sense it seems an adjective, yet, in the plural, when the substantive is suppressed, it has, contrarily to the nature of adjectives, a plural termination; as, Of last week, three days were fair, the *others* rainy.—Of good actions some are better than *other* some. *Hooker*.—No leaves shall ever be made *other* than leaves for years not exceeding thirty-one, in possession, and not in reversion or remainder. *Swift*.

Will it not be received

That they have done 't?—

Who dares receive it *other*? *Shakespeare's K. Lear*.

Not I, or he, but some one else: in this sense it is a substantive, and has a genitive and plural.—Physicians are some of them so conformable to the humour of the patient, as they press not the cure of the disease; and some *other* are so regular in proceeding according to art, as they respect not the condition of the patient. *Bacon*.—The confusion arises, when the one will put their sickle into the *other's* harvest. *Leslie*.—Never allow yourselves to be idle, whilst *others* are in want of any thing that your hands can make for them. *Law*.

Were I king,

I should cut off the nobles for their lands;

Desire his jewels, and this *other's* house. *Shakespeare*.

The king had all he crav'd, or could compel;

And all was done: let *others* judge how well. *Daniel*.

Not the one, not this, but the contrary.—There is that controlling worth in goodness, that the will cannot but like and desire it; and, on the *other* side, that odious deformity in vice, that it never offers itself to the affections of mankind, but under the disguise of the *other*. *South*.—Correlative to *each*.—In lowliness of mind let *each* esteem *other* better than themselves. *Phil.* ii. 3.

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Scotland and thou did *each* in *other* live;

Nor would'st thou her, nor could the thee, survive. *Dryd.*

Something besides.—The learning of Latin being nothing but the learning of words, join as much *other* real knowledge with it as you can. *Locke on Education*.—The next:

This *other* gold-bound brow is like the first;

A third is like the former. *Shakespeare's Macbeth*.

The third part:

Bind my hair up. As it was yesterday?

No, nor the *t'other* day.

Ben Jonson.

It is sometimes put elliptically for *other thing*; something different.—I can expect no *other* from those that judge by single sights and rash measures, than to be thought fond or insolent. *Glanville*.—Used in Spenser for left, in opposition to right.—A distaffe in her *other* hand she had. *Fairy Queen*.

Their feet unhod, their bodies wrapt in rags,

And both as swift on foot as chased stags;

And yet the one her *other* legge had lame. *Fairy Queen*.

In this last example (any more than in the preceding one) the word *other* cannot possibly be construed in its usual way, as no leg at all is previously mentioned; but the sense left equally accords with both passages, and makes each an explanation of each. *Mason*.

OTHER, a celebrated Norwegian, who resided some time at the court of Alfred the Great. He was a man of considerable note in his own country, though his whole riches consisted of no more than twenty head of cattle, twenty sheep, and as many swine; and, being possessed of an enterprising spirit, he undertook a voyage of discovery to the country of the Permians, or towards the White Sea; and another towards Sweden, or the shores of the Baltic. Alfred, who in his younger days had been at Rome, where in all probability he collected the materials for his Geography, having caused the Ormeist of Orosius to be translated into the Anglo-Saxon, introduced into it the relations of Other, and of Wulfstan, a Dane, who perhaps became acquainted with Other in the course of his voyages, or resided with him in England. Dr. J. R. Forster says, that Alfred's account of the two voyages of Other and of that of Wulfstan, which is both exact and authentic, is exceedingly valuable, as it contains the best information in regard to the geography of the northern regions in the ninth century. *Forster's Hist. of the Discoveries and Voyages in the North*.

OTHERA, *f.* [derivation unknown.] In botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order of berberides, *Juss.* Generic characters.—Calyx: perianthium one-leaved, permanent, four-parted, with ovate segments. Corolla: petals four, ovate, blunt. Stamina: filaments four, inserted at the very bottom of the petals, shorter by half than the corolla; antheræ twin, four-grooved. Pistillum: germen superior, smooth; style none: stigma sessile. Pericarpium: unknown, probably a capsule.—*Essential Character*. Calyx four-parted; petals four, ovate, flat; stigma sessile; capsule? There is but one species,

Othera Japonica. Stem shrubby. Branches round, striated, purple. Leaves alternate, ovate, blunt, smooth, an inch and a half long. Flowers axillary, aggregate, white. Native of Japan; where it is named *mukade ko*, that is, millepedes.

OTHERGATES, *adv.* [from *other*, and *gate*, way.] In another manner.—If Sir Toby had not been in drink, he would have tickled you *othergates* than he did. *Shakespeare's Tw. Night*.

OTHERGUISE, *adj.* [*other* and *guise*. This is often pronounced, and sometimes written, *othergues*.] Of another kind. It is a common expression in several parts of England; and in Cheshire forms part of the following proverb: "I have *othergues* fish to fry than snigs [eels] without butter:" i. e. My time is better employed; I have something better to do than what you propose.

O

OTHERWHERE,

OTHERWHERE, *adv.* In other places.—As Jews, they had access to the temple and synagogues; but, as Christians, they were of necessity forced *otherwise* to assemble themselves. *Hooker*.

His godlike acts, and his temptations fierce,
And former sufferings, *otherwise* are found. *Milton*.

OTHERWHILE, or **OTHERWHILES**, *adv.* At other times.—Sometimes he was taken forth to be set in the pillory, *otherwhile* in the stocks. *Sir G. Buck's Hist. of Rich.* III.—Some adversities shall follow; and *otherwhiles*, now one discomfort, now another, shall appear. *Homily on Matrimony*.

OTHERWISE, *adv.* In a different manner.—The evidences for such things are not so infallible, but that there is a possibility that the things may be *otherwise*. *Wilkins*.

Thy father was a worthy prince,
And merited, alas! a better fate:
But heaven thought *otherwise*.

Addison's Cato.

By other causes.—Sir John Norris failed in the attempts of Lisbon, and returned with the loss, by sickness and *otherwise*, of eight thousand men. *Raleigh*.—In other respects.—It is said truly, that the best men *otherwise*, are not always the best in regard of society. *Hooker*.—Men seldom consider God any *otherwise* than in relation to themselves, and therefore want some extraordinary benefits to excite their attention and engage their love. *Rogers*.

OTHERWISED, *adj.* Fallen out in a manner different from what was expected. *Chaucer*.

OTH'MAN, the third caliph of the Saracens. See the article ARABIA, vol. ii. p. 11, 12.

OTH'MAN, or **OS'MAN**, from whom the Turkish empire took the name of the Ottoman Porte. See the article TURKEY.

OTH'NI, [Heb. my time.] A man's name.

OTH'NIEL, [Heb. the time of God.] The son of Kenaz, of the tribe of Judah, and first judge of Israel. By taking of Debir from the Canaanitish giants, he gained Achah, the daughter of Caleb his uncle, to wife. *Josh.* xv. 16–19. When Cushan-rishathaim had oppressed Israel eight years, God stirred up Othniel to levy an army against him. With these he routed the Mesopotamian troops, and delivered Israel; after which the Hebrews' land enjoyed rest forty years, or till the fortieth year of their settlement. *Judg.* iii. 8–11.

O'THO, Emperor of ROME. See that article.

O'THO, the name of four emperors of GERMANY. See that article, vol. viii.

O'THO of FRISINGEN, a chronicler of the twelfth century, was the son of Leopold marquis of Austria, and Agnes daughter of the emperor Henry IV. Being educated for the ecclesiastical profession, he was appointed by his father provost of the college which he had founded at Newenburg in Austria. He afterwards spent some years in his studies at Paris, and then became abbot of a monastery of Cistercians at Morimond in Burgundy. In 1138, his uterine brother, the emperor Conrad III. created him bishop of Frisingen in Bavaria. He accompanied that prince in his expedition to the Holy Land, and was frequently consulted by him in his affairs, as he was also by Frederic Barbarossa, who was his nephew. Otho died at Morimond in 1158. This bishop is said to have been the first, or among the first, of the German prelates who were versed in literature, and acquainted with the Aristotelian philosophy. It is, however, as an historian that his memory has been preserved. He composed, in seven books, a Chronicle from the creation to his own times; with one added, relating to Antichrist and the end of the world; and, in two books, a Narrative of the Actions of Frederic Barbarossa. They are written in Latin, and are judged to be faithful as far as his own knowledge extended, notwithstanding his near relationship to Frederic, and his concern in the transactions of the time. These writings were first made public by John Cuspinian;

and the Chronicle was afterwards published with the addition of more than fifty chapters, by Christ. Uratius of Basil, in his *Hist. German. Illustr.* It is also contained in the collections of Pistorius and Muratori. *Vossii Hist. Lat.*

O'THON, the first of the three principal divinities worshipped by the native Americans.

OTHON'NA, *f.* [Gr. from *othn*, a linen cloth or napkin, on account of the pubescence, like lint, on some of the species.] **AFRICAN RAGWORT**; in botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia necessaria, natural order of compositæ discoidæ, (corymbifera, *Juss.*) Generic characters.—Calyx: common, quite simple, one-leaved, blunt at the base, sharp at the end, equal, divided into eight or twelve segments. Corolla: compound rayed; corollets hermaphrodite, many in the disk. Females in the ray, the same number with the segments of the calyx, often eight, sometimes ten. Proper of the hermaphrodite tubular, five-toothed, scarcely longer than the calyx; of the female ligulate, lanceolate, longer than the calyx, three-toothed, reflex. Stamina: in the hermaphrodites, filaments five, capillary, very short; anther cylindric, tubular, the length of the corollet. Pistillum: in the hermaphrodites, germen oblong; style filiform, commonly longer than the stamens; stigma bifid, simple. In the females, germen oblong; style filiform, the same length as in the others; stigma reflex, larger. Pericarpium: none; calyx unchanged, permanent. Seeds: in the hermaphrodites none; in the females solitary, oblong, naked, or downy. Receptacle: naked, dotted; somewhat villose in the middle, excavated about the edge. In some species the seeds are crowned with a down; in some the calyx is divided beyond the middle, in others only toothed; but the figure is the same in all.—*Essential Character*. Calyx one-leaved, multifid, subcylindrical; down almost none; receptacle naked. There are twenty-seven species.

1. *Othonna cacalioides*, tuberous othonna, or African ragwort: tuber-denuded, finger-lobed, plant-bearing; scapes one-flowered; leaves obovate-toothletted. This is very distinct, by its smooth fleshy stalk like the *Cacalia*, and the flower of *Othonna*. The scars of the leaves are round and tomentose. Introduced in 1774 by Mr. Francis Masson. It flowers from May to November.

2. *Othonna bulbosa*, or bulbous African ragwort: leaves oblong, naked, petioled; stem herbaceous, peduncles one-flowered, very long. This has a thick shrubby stalk, dividing into several branches which rise five or six feet high; the leaves come out in clusters from one point, spread on every side; they are smooth, narrow at their base, enlarging gradually to their points, which are rounded; their edges are acutely indented, like those of the holly. From the centre of the leaves arise the footstalks of the flowers, which are five or six inches long, branching out into several smaller, each sustaining one yellow radiated flower, shaped like the former; these are succeeded by slender seeds crowned with down. Flowers in May and June.

It is one of the most variable plants we have; being, 1. Herbaceous, 2. With ovate quite entire leaves. 3. With the root-leaves pinnate, quite entire. 4. With the leaves linear, very narrow. 5. With the leaves lanceolate, quite entire. 6. With the leaves lanceolate, toothed. 7. With the leaves lanceolate-subelliptic. 8. With the leaves sub-lanceolate, three-toothed. Or, 1. Shrubby; 2. With the leaves of the top lanceolate, subsessile. 3. With the leaves alternate, lanceolate, toothed.

3. *Othonna denticulata*, or dentated African ragwort: leaves oblong, toothletted, smooth, attenuated at the base, embracing; flowers paniced. Introduced in 1774 by Masson. It flowers from April to July.

4. *Othonna tagetes*: leaves linear, pinnate, somewhat toothed. Root annual. Stem filiform. Calyx pitcher-shaped, with about fourteen teeth at the edge; ray many-flowered.

5. *Othonna*

5. *Othonna trifida*: leaves trifid, linear; flowers lateral, peduncled. Stem shrubby. Leaves scattered, somewhat fleshy, with a white wool in the axils of the leaves. Seeds white, with wool.
6. *Othonna pectinata*, or wormwood-leaved African ragwort: leaves pinnatifid; segments linear, parallel. This rises with a shrubby stalk about the thickness of a man's thumb, two or three feet high, dividing into many branches, covered with a hoary down. Leaves also hoary, about three inches long and one broad, cut into many narrow segments almost to the midrib. The flowers are produced on long axillary peduncles towards the ends of the branches; they have large yellow rays; and are succeeded by oblong purple seeds crowned with down. Linnaeus remarks that the whole plant is often tomentose. It flowers in May and June; and was cultivated in 1731 by Mr. Miller, who says, that the seeds were sent to Holland from the Cape, and plants raised from them, in the Amsterdam-garden, in 1699.
7. *Othonna abrotanifolia*, or southernwood-leaved African ragwort: leaves multifid, pinnate, linear; the joints of the stem villose. This has a low shrubby branching stalk. The flowers are produced on short peduncles at the ends of the branches; they are yellow, and the seeds are brown. It flowers from January to March.
8. *Othonna Athanasia*: leaves pinnate, filiform; calyx hemispherical, twelve-toothed. Stem shrubby, like that of *Athanasia*, proliferous, even. Flower rather large, on a one-flowered peduncle; corolla yellow, both in the ray and disk; the former twice as long as the calyx. Seeds downy.
9. *Othonna ciliata*: leaves pinnatifid, sessile; pinnae ovate, ciliate; peduncles terminating, elongated, one-flowered.
10. *Othonna pinnata*: leaves pinnatifid; pinnae lanceolate, quite entire, decurrent.
11. *Othonna trifurcata*: leaves trifid-pinnatifid; pinnae linear; peduncles lateral, fastigate. Found at the Cape by Thunberg.
12. *Othonna munita*: leaves pinnatifid, imbricated, curved inwards; pinnae three-sided, awl-shaped; stem dichotomous; peduncles from the divarications. This resembles *O. ericoides* very much, and differs only in having pinnatifid leaves.
13. *Othonna coronopifolia*, or buckhorn-leaved African ragwort: lower leaves lanceolate, quite entire; upper sinuate-toothed. This rises with a shrubby stalk four or five feet high, dividing into several branches. Leaves greyish, placed without order; those on the lower part narrow and entire, but the others indented on the edges after the manner of hart's-horn. The flowers are produced in loose umbels at the ends of the branches, and are yellow. Receptacle narrow, somewhat convex, with hollows or cells in the middle; the edges of the cells are set with very short bristly-ciliate hairs, giving the receptacle the appearance of being villose; next the edge are six or eight wider cells, receiving the germens of the female flowers. The seeds, which are the produce of these germens, are largish, obovate, somewhat beaked at the base, striated, with a silky hoariness. Down very abundant, capillary, white-silky, three times as long as the seed. Cultivated in 1731 by Mr. Miller. It flowers from July to September.
14. *Othonna cheirifolia*, or stock-leaved African ragwort: leaves lanceolate, three-nerved, quite entire, stem suffruticose, creeping. This has a strong fibrous root, which shoots deep in the ground, and sends out many woody stems, which spread on every side, and trail upon the ground. The flowers are produced upon long thick succulent peduncles, at the ends of the branches, and from the axils; they are yellow, the rays sharp-pointed, and not much longer than the calyx, which is cut into eight equal segments at top; the disk is large, and the florets as long as the calyx. The seeds are crowned with long down. It was discovered by Dr. Shaw growing naturally near Tunis in Africa. Mr. Miller cultivated it in 1758; and it flowers from April to June.
15. *Othonna crassifolia*, or thick-leaved African ragwort: leaves lanceolate, quite entire, somewhat fleshy; stem upright. This has round stalks, which at first are herbaceous and succulent, but by age become woody; they rise three or four feet high, and divide into many branches from the bottom. Leaves thick and succulent; about two inches long, and one broad in the middle; of a grey colour, placed without order, and sessile. The flowers are produced towards the end of the branches upon succulent peduncles about four inches long, each sustaining one yellow flower, smaller than the preceding. It begins to flower in August, and there is a succession of flowers till the middle of winter. Cultivated by Mr. Miller in 1758.
16. *Othonna parviflora*, or small-flowered African ragwort: leaves lanceolate, glaucous, embracing; flowers panicled. Stem shrubby, two feet high, even. Flowers small, yellow.
17. *Othonna tenuissima*, or fine-leaved African ragwort: leaves filiform, fleshy; stem shrubby. Stem from a foot to two feet high and more, even. It did not flower with Linnaeus, though he cultivated it for a long time; but, from the villose hairs at the base of the leaves, as in *O. fruticosa*, he placed it in this genus, till greater certainty could be obtained. Mr. Miller had made it a *Craffula*; and says that it rises with a shrubby stalk, four or five feet high, dividing into many branches, which at first are taper and succulent, but by age become woody. The leaves are very slender, taper, succulent, flaccid, generally turning downward, especially in winter, near three inches in length. It did not flower with him. It was sent him from Leyden by Adrian Van Royen. According to the Kew Catalogue, it flowers in July.
18. *Othonna linifolia*, or flax-leaved African ragwort: herbaceous; leaves linear, margined, grassy. Stem a span high, filiform, even; with one or two one-flowered branches; flowers only the size of pease, yellow.
19. *Othonna digitata*, or digitate-leaved African ragwort: leaves oblong, undivided, or digitate-toothed; peduncles one-flowered. Root bulbous. It greatly resembles *O. ciliata*, N^o 9.
20. *Othonna lingua*: leaves ovate-lanceolate, half embracing. Root bulbous.
21. *Othonna lateriflora*, or side-flowering African ragwort: leaves lanceolate; flowers lateral; peduncles the length of the leaves. This is an upright shrub, with the stem the size of a swan's quill. Flowers solitary, roundish; corolla yellow.
22. *Othonna heterophylla*: root-leaves ovate, angular-toothed; stem-leaves lanceolate, almost entire. Root bulbous.
23. *Othonna ericoides*, or heath-like African ragwort: stem dichotomous, imbricated; leaflets acroser; peduncle very long, solitary, from the divarications. This is an upright shrub, resembling heath, commonly dichotomous. Flower single, roundish, not large.
24. *Othonna capillaris*, or capillary-branched African ragwort: leaves lyrate; branches capillary. Root fibrous, very slender. Root-leaves, and one or two stem-leaves, lyrate, an inch long, even. Stems upright, a palm high, filiform, with the branches finally setaceous and capillaceous, even. Flowers terminating, the size of hemp-seed, yellow.
25. *Othonna Virginea*: leaves wedged, gashed. Stem shrubby, compound, erect, round. The young shoots quite simple: those of the present and former year leafy. Leaves scattered in clusters, small in proportion to the plant, sessile. Flowers from the upper part of the internodes, lateral, solitary, small, like those of *Cotula*; yellow.
26. *Othonna frutescens*, or shrubby African ragwort: leaves oval, somewhat toothed; stem frutescent. This is allied to the next species. Stem of the first year a foot high, upright, simple, round, even, smooth. It differs from *O. arborescens* in having remote toothed leaves, not clustered,

clustered, and quite entire, as in that; the stem without any hairy scars of the leaves; the ray eight-petalled, not five-petalled.

27. *Othonna arborescens*, or tree African ragwort: leaves oblong, quite entire; stem arborescent, fleshy, with woolly scars. Height (at five years of age) one foot, with a stem the thickness of a human finger, resembling *Sedum arborescens*, and, like that, fleshy and woody, though never so tall or thick; pliant, covered with a brownish ash-coloured bark, not rough, but rather smooth, and having white woolly tubercles scattered over it, which is peculiar to this species; the branches also have them, and are obliquely curved inwards; the ends of the branches and bases of the leaves have a fine wool on them, not conglobated, but scattered. The branches are otherwise naked, somewhat woody, covered with a bark like that of the stem, brownish-green towards the end, more tender and herbaceous; these leaves come out alternately at short distances; they are oblong, wider towards the top, and blunt, contracted towards the base, green on both sides, somewhat glittering, and as it were mealy, like those of *auricula*. Among these leaves spring the peduncles, solitary or in pairs, round, tender, of a pale glaucous colour, having a woolly scale or jag near the middle, terminated each by a single flower; corolla yellow, succeeded by thickish, short, oblong-round, seeds, at first whitish, but, when ripe, brownish, crowned by a copious short brownish down; the seeds in the disk are longer, slender, round, and barren, with a more slender whitish down. This plant makes very slow progress here. In August it puts out young leaves, which it keeps all the winter; the heads of flowers appear about the end of November, and do not open till the middle or end of January: in spring the leaves gradually drop off, and the plant appears as if dead, till the succeeding autumn. Cultivated in Sherard's garden, at Eltham, in 1723.

All the species, except the fourteenth, are natives of the Cape of Good Hope.

Propagation and Culture. These plants are preserved in the dry stove, or even in the green-house, without any artificial warmth: it is sufficient to protect them well from frost; and in mild weather they must have a large portion of air. In summer, place them in a sheltered situation. They may be increased during the summer-months by cuttings, planted upon an old hot-bed, and covered with glasses, shading them from the sun in the heat of the day. When they have taken root, plant each into a separate pot filled with soft loamy earth, and place them in the shade till they have taken new root; then remove them to a sheltered situation, where they may remain till autumn; treating them in the same way as the old plants. The fourteenth will live in the open air, in a warm situation and a dry soil. See *CINERARIA*.

OTHRYADES, one of the three hundred Spartans who fought against three hundred Argives, when those two nations disputed their respective right to Thyreata. Two Argives, Alcinoor and Cronius, and only one Spartan, Othryades, survived the battle. The Argives went home to carry the news of their victory; but Othryades, who had been reckoned among the number of the slain, recovered himself, and carried some of the spoils of which he had stripped the Argives into the camp of his countrymen; and, after he had raised a trophy, and had written with his own blood the word *vici* on his shield, he killed himself, unwilling to survive the death of his countrymen.

O'THRYS, in ancient history, a mountain, or rather a chain of mountains, in Thessaly, the residence of the Centaurs. *Strabo*.

OTHU'MA, a town of Arabia, in the province of Yemen: eighty miles north-north-east of Mocha. Lat. 14. 32. N. lon. 43. 57. E.

OT'IBAR, a town of Spain, in the province of Grenada: twelve miles west-north-west of Motril.

OTIO'SI, *f. pl.* [Lat. idle or lazy.] The learned are

exceedingly divided about the *decem otiosi*, "ten idle persons," spoken of in the Jewish synagogues.

Some say they were the three presidents and the seven readers; others, that they were ten persons hired to attend constantly at the synagogue, because, without the number ten, it could be no regular synagogue, or legal assembly; so that the *decem otiosi* were ten idle folks kept in pay, to form by their presence a legal synagogue, or quorum.

Vitringa, in his *Archi-Synagoga*, refutes this opinion; and will have the *otiosi* to have been ten directors or officers in the synagogue. He shows, that each synagogue had its directors; that the number was greater or less, according to the dignity of the synagogue; that the smallest had at least two; that, from the earliest times, each synagogue had its chief, called *archi-synagogus*, who had two colleagues, to be present at the ceremonies, and other acts of religion, and to take care every thing were done with decency; but that the *archi-synagogus* reserved to himself the power of teaching: that, besides these three, the *archi-synagogus* named several readers, who read in the synagogue every sabbath, and that these made the *decem otiosi* of the synagogue; so called, because, being disengaged from all other employment, their whole attendance was on divine service.

O'TIS, *f. the BUSTARD*; [in Gr. *ὄτις*; in Lat. *avis tarda*, or slow bird: and from this the Italian name *sturda* is evidently formed. And may not the old French term *bislarde*, and the English *bustard*, be only a corruption of *avis tarda*? The German appellation *trappe*, is of the same origin with the English verb *to trape*, and alludes to its heavy sluggish pace.] A genus of birds of the order gallinæ. The generic characters of the bustard are—Bill somewhat convex; nostrils oval, pervious; tongue bifid, sharp; feet three-toed, formed for running; legs tall, naked above the knees. Of this genus there are eleven species, viz.

1. *Otis tarda*, the great bustard: wave-spotted with black and rufous, beneath whitish; head of the male, and throat on each side, tufted. This bird is found in the plains of Europe, Asia, and Africa; but has never been observed in America. In England it is met with on Salisbury-plain, and in the wolds of Yorkshire; it was formerly seen in flocks of forty or fifty. It is the largest of British land-birds, the male weighing from twenty-five to thirty pounds, and frequently more; the length near four feet, the alar extent nine. The head and neck are ash-coloured; the back transversely barred with black and bright rust-colour; quills black; belly white; tail barred with red and black, and consisting of twenty feathers; the legs dusky. The female is about half the size of the male; the crown of a deep-orange, crossed with transverse black lines; the rest of the head brown; the lower part of the neck before ash-coloured; in other respects like the male; but the colour of the back and wings is more dull. The male differs also from the female in having a tuft of feathers, about five inches long, on each side of the lower mandible; besides which, it is furnished with a pouch capable of containing near seven quarts of water, situated on the fore-part of the neck, the entrance being immediately under the tongue. This is of use when the female is sitting, which is generally at a distance from water; or for the young, till they can move from the nest. A further use of it has also been observed at Morocco, where they fly the hawk at the bustard; for, on the attack of the hawk, it has been known that the bustard has made use of this reservoir of water to spit out against the assailant, who, not uncommonly, is by this means baffled in the pursuit.

The bustard is a granivorous bird: it lives on herbs, grain, and every kind of seed; on leaves of coleworts, of dandelion, of turnips, of mouse-ear, of vetches, of smallage, of carrots, and even on hay, and on those large worms which, during the summer, swarm before sun-rise on downs. In the depth of winter, and when the ground

is covered with snow, they feed on the bark of trees; and, at all times, they swallow small stones, or even bits of metal, like the ostrich. The academicians of Paris, on opening the stomach of one of the great bustards, found it filled partly with stones, some of which were of the size of a nut, and partly with doubloons, to the number of ninety, all worn and polished where they were exposed to the attrition, but without the least appearance of erosion. Willughby found in the stomach of these birds, which were killed in the harvest-season, three or four grains of barley, with a large quantity of hemlock-seed; which indicates a decided preference, and shows that these seeds would make the best bait for ensnaring them.

The liver is very large; the gall-bladder, the pancreas, the number of pancreatic ducts, their insertion, and that of the hepatic and cystic ducts, are liable to some variation in different subjects. In the pairing season, the male struts round the female, and spreads his tail into a sort of wheel. The eggs are not so large as those of a goose; they are of a pale-olive green, sprinkled with small dark spots, in which respect their colour bears a great resemblance to that of the plumage. This bird, however, does not build a nest, but only scrapes a hole in the ground, and drops into it two eggs, which it hatches in thirty days. When the anxious mother dreads the visits of the sportsmen, she takes her eggs under her wings, and transports them to a safe place. She commonly chooses fields of corn in the ear, from an instinct which prompts all animals to bring forth their young in situations that supply the proper food. Klein pretends that she prefers oats, as having the shortest stalks; and that, while she sits on her eggs, her head is so elevated as to glance along the plain, and notice what is going forward. But this assertion agrees neither with the general opinion of naturalists, nor with the instinct of the great bustard, which, as it is wild and timid, must seek for safety rather by concealing itself in tall corn, than by over-topping it, in order to observe the sportsman at a distance, and incur the danger of being itself discovered. She sometimes leaves her eggs in quest of food; and if, during her short absence, one handle or even breathe on them, it is said that she perceives it on her return, and abandons them for ever.

The great bustard, though a very large bird, is excessively timorous, and seems neither conscious of its strength, nor animated by the spirit of exerting it. Sometimes they assemble to the number of fifty or sixty; but they gain as little confidence from their multitude as from their strength or their size: the slightest appearance of danger, or rather the least novelty, alarms them; and they can hardly provide for their safety, but by flight. Dogs they dread most, especially as greyhounds are often used to hunt them; but they are also afraid of the fox, the polecat, and every other animal, however small, which has courage to attack them. They shrink from the fierce animals, and even from the birds of prey. So dastardly they are, that, though only slightly hurt, they die through fear, rather than from the effect of their wounds. Yet Klein asserts that they are sometimes irritated, and inflate a loose skin which hangs below the neck. If we believe the ancients, the great bustard has no less affection to the horse than antipathy to the dog. As soon as the timorous bird perceives that noble animal, it flies to meet him, and generally places itself under his feet. If we admit this sympathy between such different animals, we might explain the fact, by saying, that the great bustard finds in horse-dung some grains of corn that are half-digested, and which prove a resource when pressed by hunger.

When it is hunted, it runs exceedingly fast, and sometimes proceeds several miles without the least interruption. But, as it takes wing with difficulty, and never attempts to rise but when favoured by the wind, and as it cannot perch, on account of its weight, or by reason of the want of a hind toe, with which it might cling on a

branch and support itself; we may admit, on the testimony of both the ancients and moderns, that it can be caught by greyhounds. It is also chased by a bird of prey; or nets are spread, into which it may be decoyed by leading out a horse, or by merely disguising one's self in a horse's skin. Every kind of snare, how artless soever, must succeed, if it be true, as *Ælian* affirms, that, in the kingdom of Pontus, the foxes attract them by lying on the ground, raising their tail, and moving it like the neck of a bird: the bustards, he says, mistake this object for one of their own species, advance to it without hesitation, and become the prey of the insidious animal. But this implies much subtlety in the fox, much stupidity in the bustard, and perhaps more credulity in the writer.

The great bustard is found in *Lybia*, near *Alexandria*, according to *Plutarch*; in *Syria*, in *Greece*, in *Spain*, in the *Netherlands* and *Germany*; in the *Ukraine* and *Poland*; where, according to *Rzacynski*, it passes the winter in the midst of the snow. *Pennant* affirms, that these birds seldom leave the place where they were bred, and that their greatest excursions never exceed twenty or thirty miles; but *Aldrovandus* asserts that, towards the end of autumn, they arrive in flocks in *Holland*, and limit their haunts to the fields remote from cities and inhabited places. *Linnaeus* says, that they travel into *Holland* and *England*. *Aristotle* also mentions their migrations; but the cause of their variations in this impulse of nature, requires to be ascertained by more accurate observations. What appears most certain is, that the great bustard is but rarely found in mountainous or populous countries; as in *Switzerland*, *Tyrol*, *Italy*, &c. and that, when this does occur, it happens generally in the autumn and winter. But, though it can live in cold countries, and, according to some authors, is a bird of passage, it would seem that it never has migrated into *America*, or farther north than *Sweden* and *Russia*; or south, than *Greece* or *Syria*. It abounds in the deserts of *Tartary*, and is solitary, except at the times of migration, when they unite into small flocks.

As late as the year 1750, these birds are said to have been seen in great plenty in *England*, annually visiting the large open downs of *Dorsetshire* and *Wiltshire*, particularly *Salisbury-plain*, and the wolds of *Yorkshire*; but they are now very rarely seen with us; and in *Scotland* they are said to be quite extinct. In *France*, they are observed to arrive and retire regularly in the spring and autumn, in small flocks; but they seldom halt, except on the most elevated spots. In this country, says *Mr. Montagu*, (*Supplement to his Ornithological Dictionary*,) they have decreased so rapidly within these twenty years, that, in a few years more, not a vestige of them will remain in these realms. "The shepherds with whom we have conversed lately, declare they have not seen one in their most favourite haunts, upon the extensive downs of *Wiltshire*, for the last two or three years, where we have often contemplated this noble bird with so much pleasure, and regarded them as an object well worth every attempt to cultivate in their native plains; for all the artful means tried to keep and domesticate them, so as to procure increase, have proved abortive. The length of their days is so reduced in that state, that few have exceeded two or three years, and have never shewn any inclination to breed."

This we think is much to be lamented, for the reasons we have given under the article *ORNITHOLOGY*, in the preceding volume, p. 779. Observers, ancient and modern, agree that the flesh of the bustard is excellent. That of the young ones, after being kept a short time, is remarkably delicate; yet *Hippocrates* forbids persons subject to the falling sickness to taste it. *Pliny* recommends the fat of the bustard to allay the pain in the breasts after child-birth. *Capt. Flinders* remarks, of a bustard shot at *Sweer's Island* in *Terra Australis*, "the flesh of this bird is distributed in a manner directly contrary to that of the domestic turkey, the white meat being upon the legs, the black upon the breast." Voyage

to Terra Australis, in 1801-3.—This circumstance was previously known to ornithologists, but not to the generality of persons. The following anecdote is related by Mr. Montagu, in the work before quoted: "One of this species, shot in Devonshire in the year 1804, and taken to Plymouth market, was bought by a publican for a shilling; an evident proof that refined luxury had not found its way so far westward from the metropolis, since a poulterer in London would have demanded two or three guineas for it. But so rare a wanderer was not stamped with its real value where it was unknown; and the landlord, perhaps considering it fit for a secondary table, fairly speculated upon the cost of a dish that perhaps did not exceed one halfpenny in the pound, and had it dressed for the dinner of some riders. These itinerant gentlemen, being as ignorant as the natives of the prize set before them, and perceiving, upon dissection, the difference in the colour of the pectoral muscle from the other part of the breast (a circumstance not unusual, especially in the grouse kind), voted it improper food, and ordered it from the table." The great bustard is represented on the annexed Plate, at fig. 1.

2. *Otis Arabs*, the Arabian bustard: crests springing from the ears. This bird, which the Arabians call *lo-hong*, and which Edwards first figured and described in his *Gleanings of Natural History*, is nearly the size of our great bustard, and, like it, has three toes on each foot, turned the same way, only rather shorter; the feet, the bill, and the neck, are longer; and, on the whole, it is more taper in its shape. The plumage on the upper part of the body is browner, and similarly marked to that of the woodcock; or it is tawny, and radiated with deep brown with white spots, in the form of a crescent, on its wings. The lower part of the body is white, as also the margin of the upper part of the wings. The crown of the head, the throat, and the fore-side of the neck, are marked with transverse bars, dull brown on a cinereous ground. The lower part of the leg, the bill, and the feet, are of a bright brown, and yellowish; the tail droops like that of the partridge, and is stained with a cross black bar; the great quills of the wing and the crest are also of the same colour.

The crest forms a remarkable character in the Arabian bustard; it is pointed, directed backwards, and much inclined to the horizon: from its base it sends off two black lines, of which the longer one passes over the eye, and makes a kind of eye-lid; the other, which is much shorter, stretches under the eye, but does not reach it; the eye is black, and placed in a white space. An individual of this species lived several years in the possession of sir Hans Sloane; it was brought from Arabia Felix, which is supposed to be its native climate. It penetrates the Asiatic continent as far as the Caspian sea.

3. *Otis tetrax*, the little bustard: head and throat smooth. It is seventeen inches long. The eggs are of a shining green; the bill is grey-brown; crown black, with rufous bands; temples and chin reddish-white, with small dark spots; neck of the male black, with a white collar; body above varied with black, rufous, and white; beneath and outer edge of the wings white. It is shy and cunning: if molested, it will fly two hundred paces, and run so fast that a man cannot overtake it. Towards the close of the season, they prepare to quit the country; and are then observed to assemble in flocks, and the young ones are no longer distinguishable from the old. They feed, like those of the great species, on herbs and grain, and also on ants, beetles, and small flies; and are said to be extremely fond of the tender leaves of the sow-thistle.

This bird was not known to the ancients. It is not dispersed through so wide a range as the large species. Linnaeus says it is found in Europe, and particularly in France. It has been met with only a few times in England, and all the specimens were females. It is more frequently taken in France in nets, like the partridge, as

well as by hawking. The flesh is dark in colour, yet is much esteemed, being of a very high flavour. The eggs are also accounted a delicacy.

One of this species, preserved in the museum of Mr. Turnhill, was a few years since shot in Suffex. They are frequent in the south-west parts of Russia, and in the deserts of Tartary; but have not yet been seen in Siberia.

4. *Otis Afra*, the African, or white-eared, bustard: black; back cinereous, ears white. This differs from the Arabian bustard, by the colours of its plumage, and its smaller size. It is nearly as large as the pintado; length twenty-two inches. The bill yellow, and bent at the end, where it is black; the crown of the head is blackish brown, irregularly barred with white lines; on the ears a large spot of white; the rest of the head, with the forehead, neck, and under parts of the body, black. Round the lower part of the neck is a band of white, which passes forwards to the breast like a collar, but does not quite meet before. The upper parts of the body, great part of the wings, and tail, are deep blackish brown, crossed with irregular streaks of different shapes, and of a rufous colour. The outer edge of the wing and quills are black; above these a large bed of white, occupying almost the whole length of the wing; the secondaries are longer than the quills, and hang over and hide them in a state of rest. The tail consists of fourteen feathers, is five inches in length, and a little rounded; all the feathers are marked not unlike those of the back, but more inclined to ash-colour, palest at the end; besides which, all but the two middle ones are crossed with two bars of black. The lower part of the feathers, round the middle of the thighs, are white: the legs yellow: claws black. See the Plate, fig. 2. The female has the head and neck like the back, but the lines more delicate, and the breast and belly black, like the male; but the white spot on the ears, and ring at the lower part of the neck, are wanting.

These birds are natives of the Cape of Good Hope, where they are known by the name of *kor-rhaan*. Kolben calls them *knor-cock*, *knor-hen*. They frequent heaths and places remote from habitations: they build their nests in bushes, but never lay above two eggs in a season. The flesh is of an agreeable taste, but not equal to that of the great bustard. Sparrman says, that it artfully conceals itself till one comes pretty near it, when it suddenly soars almost perpendicularly aloft, with a sharp quavering scream, *korrh, korrh*; whence the name it has received at the Cape.

5. *Otis Bengalensis*, the Bengal bustard: black; space about the eyes dusky brown; back, rump, and tail, shining brown. This species is not only smaller than the European, the African, or the Arabian, but it is taller in proportion, and more slender. It is twenty inches high, from the crown of the head to the plane on which it stands; its neck seems to be shorter in proportion to its legs; but in other respects it is entirely analogous to the common bustard. The bill is somewhat hooked, though more elongated. Black, fulvous, white, and grey, are the predominant colours of its plumage, as in the European bustard; but they are differently distributed. The black is spread on the crown of the head, on the neck, the thighs, and the lower part of the body; a bright-yellow occupies the sides of the head and the circuit of the eyes; a browner yellow, and one more shaded with black, stains the back, the tail, that part of the wings next the back, and the top of the breast, where it forms a broad belt on a dark ground; the white appears on the coverts of the wings farthest from the back, and white mixed with black on the intermediate space; the deepest grey is laid on the eye-lids, the extremity of the longest quills of the wing, of some of the middle and shortest ones, and on some of their coverts; lastly, the brightest grey, which verges on white, is spread on the bill and the feet. This bird is a native of Bengal, where it is called *churge*. It is represented on the Plate, at fig. 3.

6. *Otis aurita*, the paslarage bustard: black; body above reticulate



1. The Great Bustard. 2. The White eared Bustard. 3. The Bengal Bustard.

reticulate with brown; the hind head has four capillary feathers on each side, rhombic at the tips; the spot on the wings and ears white. The size of the little bustard, *O. tetrax*: length eighteen inches. Bill long and slender, brown and white: the head, neck, breast, and belly, black: on the ears a large white patch: junction of the neck and back white: the whole back, wings, and tail, black, with a net-work of the finest lines of black and brown furrounding the meshes of black: the greater wing-coverts are white. On the hind head are four pairs of capillary feathers; each pair of different lengths, and dilating at their ends in a lance-shaped tuft; the longest four inches, the shortest scarcely rising in sight. The legs are strong, and of a pale-yellow; toes divided to their origin. It inhabits India, where it is called *passurage plover*. The similarity of markings in this and the African bustard are worthy observation, as one drawing might almost serve to represent both birds; but the last described, being much smaller in size, with the addition of the long capillary feathers on the ears, induced Dr. Latham to determine its being a different species.

In the possession of Mrs. Wheeler, Dr. Latham found a specimen of a bird, which he supposed to be the female of the above. It is nineteen inches or more in length; and the plumage not unlike that of the little bustard, but less delicate in its markings. It is known in India by the name of *oorail*; by some of the English called *shercher*. It is much esteemed, consequently greatly fought after; but, though not uncommon, very few are taken, as it is a very shy bird. The flesh of the breast is part white, part brown, and is accounted a great delicacy.

7. *Otis houbara*, the ruffed bustard: yellowish, spotted with brown; feathers of the neck long, whitish, with black shafts; the quill-feathers black, with a white spot in the middle. This species was discovered by Dr. Shaw, who asserts that it has the shape and plumage of the great bustard, but is much smaller, not exceeding the size of a pullet. It is marked all over with little brown spots: the neck-feathers whitish, very long, and streaked with black. It lives on vegetable substances and insects; and generally inhabits the borders of an African or Arabian desert. It is decorated with a ruff, formed by long feathers which rise from the neck; and which, as in the domestic cock, bristle when the bird is irritated. "It is curious (says Dr. Shaw) to observe, when it apprehends the attack of a rapacious bird, the turnings and windings, the marches and counter-marches, which it performs; in a word, the evasions and stratagems which it makes to elude its enemy." This learned traveller subjoins, that it furnishes an excellent medicine for sore eyes; and that, for this reason, its gall, and a certain substance found in its stomach, are sometimes sold at a very high price.

8. *Otis rhaad*, the rhaad bustard: a sky-blue crest on the back of the head in the male; head black; upper side of the body and the wings yellow, with fainter spots; under parts white, the tail dusky, with black transverse streaks. The rhaad is distinguished from the little bustard by its crest, and from the preceding species by the defect of the ruff. It is however of the same size with the latter.

Of this African species there are two varieties, the little and the great. The little rhaad differs from the great one by its size, being no larger than a common fowl; also by some varieties in the plumage, and by the want of a crest. In Arabia they are both termed *saf-saf*. *Rhaad* signifies thunder in the African language, and is expressive of the noise that these birds make in springing from the ground. *Saf-saf* denotes the rustling of their wings when flying.

9. *Otis Indica*, the Indian, or white-chinned, bustard: crown of the head black; upper part of the body brown, waved with black; round the eyes mottled with black; on each side of the head a black streak; chin white. The rest of the under parts dusky yellowish cream-colour; sides nearly white; legs pale dusky brown. Inhabits India.

10. *Otis ædicnemus*, the thick-kneed bustard: greyish; two first quill-feathers black, white in the middle;

bill sharp-pointed; legs cinereous; knees thick, as if swollen. It inhabits Europe, Asia, and Africa; feeds in the night on worms, caterpillars, and reptiles; breeds in holes or among stones on the bare ground; the eggs are of a copper colour, spotted with darker red; makes a piercing shrill cry, and migrates. The bill is black; legs greenish-yellow; lower eye-lid naked, pale yellow: above and beneath the eyes there is a yellow line; from the bill under the eyes to the ears there is a brown line. Under parts white.

11. *Otis Chilensis*, the Chilian bustard: head and throat smooth; body white; crown and tail-feathers cinereous: primary quill-feathers black. It inhabits Chili; is even larger than the *O. tarda*; is gregarious, and feeds on herbs; it is thought not to belong to this genus. The tail, which consists of eighteen feathers, is short; it has four very thick toes.

O'TIS, a town of the North-American states, in Berkshire-county, Massachusetts, containing 1111 inhabitants.

O'TISFIELD, a town of Massachusetts, in the district of Maine: forty miles north-west of Portland.

OTITES, *f.* in botany. See *CUCUBALUS* and *POLYPODIUM*.

OTLEY, a market-town in the West Riding of Yorkshire, is situated under a cliff called Chevin, near the fourth bank of the river Wharfe. This town was formerly remarkable for the great quantity of oats cultivated in its neighbourhood, and sold at the market, which is held on Friday, and still affords a very plentiful supply of that species of grain: the fairs are Aug. 1 and Nov. 5. At Akkerton, near this place, was an hospital for lepers in the time of Edward II. who were bound to keep the bridge over the Wharfe in repair. No vestige of this building now remain, neither can any traces be discovered of the ancient palace of the archbishops of York, to whom the manor of Otley was given by king Athelstan. In 1673 this town suffered severely from an inundation, which spread to a considerable distance over the adjoining country. Here is a free grammar-school, called *P. nce Henry's School*, founded in 1611. The church is a large and rather elegant edifice, and contains a great variety of monumental erections in honour of the families of Fairfax, Fawkes, Vavasour, Palmes, and Pulleyn. From the population-returns of 1811, Otley appears to contain 573 houses, and 2602 inhabitants.

The vicinity of this town presents to the eye a very rich and beautiful prospect, particularly when surveyed from the summit of the Chevin. It abounds with gentlemen's seats, among which Newhall, (formerly called Stank,) Weston, Farnley Hall, Denton Park, and Harewood House, are the principal. The latter, the chief seat of lord Harewood, is one of the most magnificent mansions in England. It was erected by the late lord, who laid the foundation in 1760. The style of the architecture is Corinthian; and the whole is fitted-up suitably to its external grandeur. The extensive pleasure-grounds and gardens were laid out by the justly-celebrated Browne. Near this mansion may be seen the ancient church of Harewood, rendered truly venerable by containing the tomb of that illustrious and virtuous judge, sir William Gascoigne, of Gawthorpe, who committed to prison the then prince of Wales, afterwards Henry V. for offering insult to him on the bench. The ruins of the castle are seated on a lofty eminence overlooking the Wharfe. These are very extensive, covering above an acre of ground; but, from their extremely dilapidated condition, it is impossible to form a correct idea of the construction and appearance of this immense pile in its pristine state.

Farnley Hall, the seat of Walter Fawkes, esq. is about three miles north of Otley, and is justly ranked among the finest mansions of the county, on account of the scale of the house, the style in which it is fitted-up, its superb and valuable collection of paintings and drawings, and for the natural character of the surrounding country. *Beauties of England*, vol. xvi.

OTMARSCH, a town of Holland, in the province of

of Overissel, situated on the river Dinckel: nine miles north of Oldenzeel.

OTODINI, or **OTTADINI**, in ancient geography, a people of Britain, north-east of the Brigantes, who inhabited the countries now called Northumberland, Merse, and the Lothians. As the Otodini are not mentioned by any of the Roman historians, but only by Ptolemy, it is uncertain whether they formed a distinct independent state, or were united with the Brigantes. They were, however, a considerable people, and possessed a long tract of the sea-coast, from the river Tyne to the Firth of Forth. Their name is derived by Baxter from the old British words *Ot o dineu*, which signify "a high and rocky shore," descriptive enough of their country. They were probably reduced by Agricola at the same time with their more powerful neighbours, the Brigantes; but, as they lived without the walls of Severus, they were, like the rest of the *Mæatæ*, engaged in frequent revolts. In the most perfect state of the Roman government in this island, the country of the Otodini made a part of the Roman province called Valentia, which comprehended all that large tract between the two walls. As this province was never long together in the peaceable possession of the Romans, they had but few stations in the country of the Otodini, except those on the line of the wall of Severus. Besides these, there were two or three Roman towns without the wall, situated on or near the military way which ran through their country into Caledonia, which are mentioned both by Ptolemy, and in the Itinerary of Antoninus. These towns were *Barmantum*, now Riecheffer, and *Curia* or *Corflupitum*, now Corbridge. Between these two towns, and at a little distance from the military way, at a place now called Rivingham, there are very conspicuous vestiges of a Roman station; which, from the inscription of an altar found there, appears to have been named *Habitaneum*.

OTO'GAMIES, a tribe of Indians in the north-west territory, who inhabit between the Lake of the Woods and Mississippi-river. Its number of warriors is 300.

OT'OMACKS, or **OTOMAUQUES**, savages of America, on the **OROONOKO**. See vol. xvii. p. 789.

OTOO'RACITE, a small island in the South Pacific Ocean, near the east coast of Otaheite.

OT'ORACKS, *f.* [Arab. signifying to set down.] The superannuated janizaries. *Phillips*.

OTO'QUE, a small island in the bay of Panama: thirty miles south-south-west of Panama. Lat. 8. 30. N. lon. 80. 20. W.

OTORO'WA, a town of the duchy of Warfaw: sixteen miles west of Posen.

OTOULIN'GOU, a town of Chinese Tartary. Lat. 43. 54. N. lon. 128. 16. E.

OTRAHER'MANA, a small island in the Eastern Indian Sea, near the west coast of Luçon. Lat. 15. 55. N. lon. 120. 6. E.

OTRAN'TO, or **TERRA D'OTRANTO**, a province of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples; bounded on the north by the Terra di Bari and the Gulf of Venice, on the east by the same gulf, and on the south and west by a great bay which is between that and the Basilicata. It is about sixty miles in length, and from twenty to twenty-five in breadth. The principal productions are olives, figs, and grapes. To prevent the incursion of the Turkish corsairs, towers are erected at small distances all along the coast. Some authors call it *The Country of Lecce*, from a town of that name, where the governor resides. Besides Lecce and Otranto, the principal towns are Tarento, Brindisi, Matera, Castro, Gallipoli, Motala, Santa Maria de Leuca, Alessany, Ugento, Nardo, Ostuni, and Castellaneta.

OTRAN'TO, a city and sea-port in the kingdom of Naples, and capital of the above province; with a commodious harbour, an archbishop's see, and a strong citadel, where the archbishop resides. Mr. Swinburne gives this account of it: "It is (says he) small, stands on a

hill, and contains only 3000 inhabitants. Its little harbour is not so bad but it might induce more people to settle here, as no port on the coast lies so convenient for traffic with Greece. The Adriatic Gulf is here but sixty miles wide. I climbed to the top of a tower, to get a sight of the Acroceranunian mountains; but a vapour hanging over the sea, along the horizon, hid them from my view: in a clear morning, their snowy tops are said to be very visible. The cathedral of Otranto is Gothic, and, according to the Puglian fashion, has its subterraneous sanctuary. The columns are of beautiful marble and granite; the pavement, a rude species of mosaic, commonly called *Saracenic*: as it is to be met with in all churches founded by the Norman kings of Sicily, the artists who laid it were probably Saracens, or at least Greeks, their scholars. These mosaics are composed of pieces of porphyry, serpentine, and cubes of gilt glass, disposed in stars, circles, or chequers. The compartments of the stalls are bordered with them; and the small twisted columns, which support the pulpits and canopies, are ornamented with a spiral stripe of the same work. It is a pity so much durability, compactness, and beauty, of materials, should have been lavished on such barbarous designs. Otranto was a Roman colony, as is certified by an inscription, almost the only monument of antiquity left there. In the tenth century it was made an archbishop's see. In 1480, Laurence de Medici, to deliver himself from the attacks of the king of Naples, persuaded Mahomet II. to invade the realm; and Otranto was the unfortunate place where the Turks landed. It was invested, stormed, and pillaged. Its prelate was slain at the door of his church; 800 principal citizens dragged out of the gates and butchered; their bodies left unburied, till the duke of Calabria retook the city, and committed them to hallowed earth. About a hundred years after, a devout person affirmed that these bones had appeared to him in a dream; and, upon the strength of his vision, they became, for the vulgar, objects of almost equal veneration with the relics of the primitive martyrs." Swinburne's *Travels in the Two Sicilies*, vol. i.

This city, or town, is situated on a rocky island, joined to another island by a bridge, which by another bridge communicates with the continent; surrounded by walls and ramparts, and defended by a citadel on a rock. The harbour is good, and the trade is considerable. It is 94 miles south-east of Bari, and 206 east of Naples. Lat. 40. 30. N. lon. 18. 20. E.

OT'RAQUE, *f.* A kind of drink made of a nut in the East Indies. *A/h.*

OTRAR', or **FARAB'**, a town of Turkestan, on the Argh; formerly a place of extensive trade, and great importance. It was taken by Jenghis Khan, after a brave defence. Here died the celebrated Timur Bec. Fifty-five miles west of Taraz, and 110 north-west of Tocat.

OTRAU', a town of Moravia, in the circle of Prerau: twenty miles north-east of Prerau, and twenty-eight north-east of Olmutz.

OT'REUS, in ancient history, a king of Phrygia, son of Cisseus, and brother to Hecuba.

OTRICO'LI, a town of Italy, in the Sabina, near the Tiber, formerly the see of a bishop. Here are the ruins of a theatre, and other magnificent buildings: twenty-four miles south-west of Spoleto, and thirty-three north of Rome.

OTROKOT'SKI-FO'RI'S (Francis), an Hungarian, who completed his studies at Utrecht, and became minister in his native country. He afterwards renounced the Protestant religion, and obtained some preferment in the state. He died at Tirnau in 1718. His works are, 1. *Origines Hungaricæ*, 2 vol. 8vo. 2. *Antiqua Religio Hungarorum vere Christiana et Catholica*, 8vo.

OTSE'GO, a county of New-York, bounded on the north by the counties of Oneida, Herkemer, and Montgomery; on the east by the county of Schoharie; on the south by the county of Delaware; and on the west by the county

county of Chenango; about thirty miles from east to west, and twenty-five from north to south. It contains 38,802 inhabitants.

OTSEGO, a township and lake in the above county. The township was taken from Unadilla, and incorporated in 1794. On the east, the township includes Lake Otsego, which separates it from Cherry Valley. The Lake is the head of Susquehanna-river; and is about nine miles long, and somewhat more than a mile wide. The lands on its banks are good, and well cultivated. The township contains 4224 inhabitants. Lat. 42. 40. N. lon. 74. 58. W.

OTSKE, a town of Turkish Armenia: twenty miles north-west of Akalzike.

OTT (John-Henry), a learned Swiss divine and professor, was the son of a country minister in the canton of Zurich, and born in the year 1617. After having been for some time a pupil of Breitingger at Zurich, he was sent, in 1635, to pursue his studies at Lausanne. From thence he went to Geneva and Groningen; and, in the latter place, distinguished himself by his proficiency under the instructions of Gomar and Altling. He then spent five years at Leyden and Amsterdam, in the study of the rabbinical writings, and of the oriental languages. Afterwards he took a tour to England and France; and, upon his return to his native country, was presented to a good living, which he served for twenty-five years. In 1651, he was nominated to the professorship of eloquence at Zurich; in 1655, to that of Hebrew; and, in 1668, to the chair of ecclesiastical history. He died in 1682, at the age of sixty-five, leaving behind him several treatises on subjects in divinity and various literature, which are held in esteem on account of the erudition displayed in them. Among others, he was the author of, 1. *Franco-Gallia: Oratio de Causa Janfenitica*. 2. A Latin dissertation on the questions, Whether St. Peter was ever at Rome? and When he was there? 3. A translation of a treatise On the Grandeur of the Church of Rome, with Remarks. 4. Annals relating to the History of the Anabaptists. 5. *Onomastodoria*, five Nomina Hominum propria. 6. An Examination of the Annals of Baronius. 7. A Defence of that Examination. 8. A Discourse in favour of the Study of the Hebrew Language. 9. A Treatise on the Resurrection. 10. On Alphabets, and the Manner of Writing, in all Nations. 11. On Poetry in general. Most of these works are in Latin.

He had a son, called JOHN BAPTIST OTT, who was born in 1661, and acquired celebrity by his knowledge of the oriental languages, and antiquities. He was educated to the ministry, and officiated as deacon at Stettin, and afterwards as pastor at Zollicken; and, in 1702, he was made professor of Hebrew at Zurich. In 1715, he was promoted to the archdeaconry of the cathedral in that city. He was the author of several works, in which his learning and research were conspicuous. Of these we may mention, 1. A Dissertation on Vows. 2. A Letter on Samaritan Medals. 3. On the manuscript and printed Versions of the Bible, before the *Æra* of the Reformation. 4. A Disquisition on certain Antiquities discovered at Klothien, in 1724. The two first of these works are written in Latin, the two last in German. *L'Advocat's Bibl. portatif*.

OTTA, a town of Portugal, in Estremadura: twenty-four miles north-north-east of Lisbon.

OTTACANO, a town of Naples, in the province of Lavoro: eleven miles east of Capua.

OTTA'NI, a town of Naples, in the Principato Citra: ten miles south-west of Cangianno.

OTTA'VA, a town of Naples, in the province of Bari: eleven miles south-south-east of Monopoli.

OTTAWA, a river which rises in the south part of Bohemia, and runs into the Muldau twelve miles east of Blatna.

OTTAWA, or UTAWA, called also *Grand River*, a river of Canada, which is the most important of all the tributary streams of the great river St. Lawrence, issues

from various lakes towards the centre of Canada, and falls into the St. Lawrence about thirty miles above Montreal; forming, by its confluence with that river, *Le Lac des Deux Montagnes, et le Lac St. Louis*, i. e. the Lake of the Two Mountains, and the Lake of St. Louis, in which are several islands. The water of the Utawa-river is remarkably clear, and of a bright greenish colour; whilst that of the St. Lawrence, on the contrary, is muddy, owing to its passing over deep beds of coral, for some miles, before it enters into Lake St. Louis. For a considerable way down the lake, the waters of the two rivers may be plainly distinguished from each other. At the mouth of the Utawa-river, is situated the island of Perot, about fourteen miles in circumference, the soil of which is fertile and well cultivated.

The North-West Company principally carries on its fur-trade by the Utawa-river. For this purpose they make use of canoes, formed of the bark of the birch-tree; some of which are constructed upon such a large scale, that they are capable of containing two tons; but they seldom put so much in them, especially in this river, as it is in many places shallow, rapid, and full of rocks, and contains no less than thirty-two portages. The canoes are navigated by the French Canadians, who prefer this employment to that of cultivating the ground. Having ascended the Utawa-river for about 280 miles, which it takes them about eighteen days to perform, they then cross, by a portage, into Lake Nipissing; and from this lake, by another portage, they get upon French-river, that falls into Lake Huron on the north-east side; then, coasting along this last lake, they pass through the Straits of St. Mary, where they have another portage into Lake Superior; and, coasting afterwards along the shores of Lake Superior, they come to the Grand Portage, on the north-west side of it; from hence, by a chain of small lakes and rivers, they proceed on to the Rainy Lake, to the Lake of the Woods, and for hundreds of miles beyond it, through Lake Winnipeg, &c. The canoes, however, which go so far up the country, never return the same year: those intended to bring back cargoes, immediately stop at the Grand Portage, where the furs are collected ready for them by the agents of the company. At the Grand Portage, and along that immense chain of lakes and rivers which extend beyond Lake Superior, the company has regular ports, where the agents reside; and they have also established trading-ports within 500 miles of the Pacific Ocean. *Weld's Travels through Lower Canada, &c.* vol. i.

OTTAWA'S, a tribe of Indians who inhabit the east side of Lake Michigan, twenty-one miles from Michillimackinac, in Wayne county or territory. Their hunting-grounds lie between lakes Michigan and Huron. About thirty years ago they could furnish 200 warriors. A tribe of them also lived near St. Joseph's, and had 150 warriors. Another tribe lived with the Chippewas, on Saguinan Bay; who, together, could raise 200 warriors. Two of these tribes, previously hostile, signed the treaty of peace with the United States, at Grenville, Aug. 3, 1795. In consequence of lands ceded by them to the United States, that government has agreed to pay them, in goods, 1000 dollars a-year for ever.

OTTEL-AM'BEL, *f.* in botany. See STRATIOTES.

OTTELMENHAUSEN, a town of the duchy of Wurzburg: three miles north of Königshofen in der Grabfeld.

OTTENDORF, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Bremen, capital of a small county called Hadeln, on the river Meden: twenty-four miles north of Stade. Lat. 53. 50. N. lon. 8. 53. E.

OTTENDORF, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Koniggratz: two miles south-east of Branau.

OTTENDORF, a town of the duchy of Wurzburg: eight miles east of Schweinfurt.

OTTENDORFF, a town of Austria: four miles south-west of Ehrnsprunn.

OT'TENGRUN, a town of Saxony, in the Vogtland: six miles south-west of Oelsnitz.

OT'TENGRUN, a town of Germany, in the principality of Culmbach: two miles north of Munchberg.

OT'TENHEIM, a town of Austria, on the north side of the Danube: five miles west-north-west of Lintz, and sixteen south-west of Freystadt.

OT'TENHOF, a town of Germany, in the principality of Culmbach: two miles south of Lauenstein.

OT'TENSCHLAG, a town of Austria: seven miles south of Zwettl.

OT'TENSEN, a village of Holstein, on the right bank of the Elbe. At this place the duke of Brunswick died of the wounds he received at the battle of Jena, in 1807: two miles west of Altona.

OT'TENSTAIN, a town of Austria: eight miles east of Zwettl.

OT'TENSTEIN, a town of Germany, in the bishopric of Munster: twenty-five miles west-north-west of Munster.

OT'TER, *f.* [otep, Sax. *lutra*, Lat.] An amphibious animal that preys upon fish. See *MUSTELA*.—The toes of the *otter's* hinder feet, for the better swimming, are joined together with a membrane, as in the bevir; from which he differs principally in his teeth, which are canin; and in his tail, which is felin, or a long taper; so that he may not be unfitly called *putoreus aquaticus*, or the water-polecat. He makes himself burrows on the water-side, as a bevir; is sometimes tamed and taught, by nimbly surrounding the fishes, to drive them into the net. *Grew*.

Would you preserve a numerous finny race?
Let your fierce dogs the ravenous *otter* chase;
The amphibious monster ranges all the shores,
Darts through the waves, and every haunt explores. *Gay*.

OT'TER, an island in the North Sea, on the coast of Norway, at the mouth of Romsdal Bay. Lat. 62. 45. N. lon. 7. 9. E.

OT'TER, a river of England, which runs into the sea about five miles east of Exmouth.

OT'TER (John), professor of Arabic at Paris, was born in 1707, at Christianstad in Sweden, where his father, by commercial speculations, had amassed considerable property. In 1724, he was sent to the high school of Lund, where he applied also to natural philosophy and theology, under the direction of Rhydelius, the bishop of that place; but, by private intercourse with persons of the catholic persuasion, and the reading of catholic books, he began to entertain some scruples in regard to the reformation introduced by Luther; which induced him to repair to Stockholm, in order that he might have his doubts cleared up. A few months after, he abjured the Lutheran tenets; and count de Brancas, French ambassador at the Swedish court, resolved to send this new convert to France. Otter was admitted into the seminary of Rouen; and, after a residence of three years, was called to Paris by cardinal Fleury, the minister, who gave him an appointment in the post-office: a situation for which he was exceedingly well qualified, by an extensive knowledge of modern languages. Having soon recommended himself by his talents and assiduity to the notice of count Maurepas, that nobleman determined to send him to the east, in order that he might make himself master of the oriental languages; and at the same time discover the best means of reviving the French trade in Persia. In consequence of orders from the court, he embarked at Marseilles in January 1734, and arrived at Constantinople in the March following. His principal object, while in this capital, was to learn the Turkish and Arabic languages; and, for that purpose, he frequented the company of the most learned men in the city, whether Armenians or Turks, and particularly that of Ibrahim Efendi, a celebrated writer on geography, known by his works, and by the establishment of a printing-office at Constantinople. In the course of a little time he had acquired the principles of the Arabic; and was so completely master of the Turkish, that he found himself in a

condition to continue his journey to Persia; which he did in December 1736. After a journey of nearly eight months, he reached Ispahan, which at that time exhibited a most melancholy spectacle, having been reduced almost to a heap of ruins by the fury of the Afghans, who had over-run the whole empire. The situation of the empire at that period deterring Otter from making any attempts towards the re-establishment of the French trade in Persia, he confined himself to the second object of his journey, which was to make himself acquainted with the Persian and other eastern languages. After a residence of twenty months at Ispahan, he set out, in April 1739, for Busfora on the Persian gulf, which at that time was subject to the dominion of Achmed pacha of Bagdad, who ruled with unlimited sway, though a vassal of the grand signior. As the commerce of this town had risen to a most flourishing state on the ruins of the Persian trade, Otter flattered himself with the hope that the pacha, who was accounted one of the greatest politicians of his time, would readily listen to the proposals, which he had not ventured to make to the Persian usurper; and with that view he proceeded to Bagdad. Here he soon procured access to the pacha; and, having met with a cordial reception, he transmitted an account of his success to the marquis de Villeneuve, the French ambassador at Constantinople, by whose means a treaty, favourable to the wishes of the French government, was at length concluded. Otter then embarked on the Tigris, and returned to Busfora, where he resided all together nearly four years, first in a private capacity, and then as consul of the French nation.

The commotions by which Persia had been agitated spreading at length to Busfora, the spirit of insurrection rose to such a height, that, in the year 1741, the neighbouring Arabs, throwing off all restraint, appeared in a state of open rebellion. Besides keeping the town blockaded for nearly two months, they plundered the merchants, and committed every kind of excess, in the neighbouring district. Otter, who at this time was shut up in the place, participated in the general terror; but he did not on that account neglect the study of the Arabic, which he assiduously prosecuted, under the direction of the most expert masters. He improved himself also in the Turkish language, by his own application, and by frequenting the company of a dervish, celebrated for his genius and learning. With the help of his preceptor, he began a translation of the New Testament into the Turkish language, for the use of the Christians in that neighbourhood, most of whom were not sufficiently well acquainted with the Arabic to understand the version of the Maronites; and the work was nearly completed, when he received orders, in the month of May, 1743, to return to France; which he did by the way of Constantinople, whence he proceeded by sea to Marseilles, where he arrived in the month of January, 1744, after an absence of about ten years. Having been accustomed, during his travels, to keep a journal of every thing remarkable that occurred to him, he revised this work after his return, and published it, under the patronage of count Maurepas, with the title of "*Voyages en Turquie et en Perse, avec une Relation des Expéditions de Thamas Kouli Khan; Paris, 1748.*" This work, besides a great many useful observations in regard to the names and situations of places determined by Arabian astronomers, remains of antiquity, natural history, and the manners and customs of the Persians and other eastern nations, contains a short account of the revolution effected in Persia by the celebrated Kouli Khan, with some anecdotes of his life, which are the more worthy of notice, as the author was on the spot; and had an opportunity of seeing the facts he relates, or of receiving them from persons deserving of credit.

Soon after his return to France, he was appointed, by count Maurepas, to be interpreter of the oriental languages in the king's library; an office which enabled him to render the knowledge he had acquired during his long travels of more utility to literature. As he now had free access

access to a most valuable collection of manuscripts, he resolved to examine those of the historical class, and to compile from them, a view of the various political changes produced by the followers of Mahomet, from the origin of their religion to the present time; taking, as the foundation of his work, the writings of the celebrated Noviar, an historian of the fourteenth century, who, according to the testimony of the abbé Longuerue, in his History of the Arabs, is one of the most authentic sources of information on that subject. In the year 1746, after completing a part of this undertaking, he was appointed regius professor of Arabic; in 1748, he was elected a member of the Academy of Inscriptions; and soon after his admission he read, in that assembly, a Dissertation on the Conquest of Africa by the Arabs, enriched with a great many learned observations, as a specimen of his proposed work; and this was to have been followed by another on the conquest of Spain; but, in consequence of his premature death, the work remained unfinished, as did several others which he had projected, and particularly a French translation of Dalin's History of Sweden, begun at the request of his friend and patron Maurepas. He died of a putrid fever at Paris, in the month of September, 1749, before he had completed the forty-second year of his age. Otter was a man of great learning and integrity; mild in his manners, and of a modest deportment. *Hist. de l'Acad. des Inscriptions*, tome xxiii.

OTTER BAY, a bay on the south coast of Newfoundland, near Cape Ray.

OTTER CREEK, a river of Kentucky, which runs into the Ohio in lat. 37. 45. N. lon. 86. 24. W.

OTTER CREEK, a river of Virginia, which runs into the Staunton in lat. 36. 55. N. lon. 79. 30. W.

OTTER CREEK, a river of Vermont, which runs into Lake Champlain five miles north-west Newhaven. Lat. 44. 13. N. lon. 73. 20. W.

OTTER'S HEAD, a lofty rock on the north shore of Lake Superior, in lat. 48. 4. N. lon. 85. 55. W.

OTTER PEAKS, a mountain of Virginia: one hundred miles west of Richmond.

OTTERBACH, a river of France, which rises near Weissemburg, and runs into the Rhine about ten miles above Germerheim.

OTTERBERG, late a town of France, in the department of Mont Tonnerre: five miles north of Kayerslautern.

OTTERBURN, a village in the county of Northumberland, near Eldon. This was the field of battle between the English and Scots in 1388, wherein Henry Percy, called Hotspur, was taken prisoner, and Douglas, the Scots general, was killed. On this battle was founded the delightful old ballad of Chevy-chase, the village being situated by the river Rhead, on the south side of the Cheviot Hills. The entrenchments are still visible, and a number of tumuli scattered over the adjacent ground, to mark to future ages the slaughter made there.

Rocheffer is another little village near Otterburn to the north-west, on the Watling-street road, and on the river Rhead, near the source of it. It has furnished some Roman antiquities, as altars, inscriptions, &c.

OTTERBURN, a small village in Hampshire, about midway between Winchester and Southampton, being six miles from each. Near this is Cranbury, the seat of sir Nathaniel Dance, bart. which commands delightful prospects of the Isle of Wight, Southampton-river, &c. It is an extensive mansion, with suitable offices, gardens, &c. well stocked with exotics, and every necessary. A beautiful ruin of an obelisk lies in the park.—Silkstead is to the right of Otterburn, and Bishop's Stoke to the left. In this last parish is the hamlet of Fair Oak.

OTTTERSBERG, a town of the duchy of Bremen, defended by a fort with four bastions: thirty-four miles south of Stade, and sixteen east of Bremen. Lat. 53. 9. N. lon. 9. 11. E.

OTTERSEE, a town of the duchy of Bremen: two miles from Ottersberg.

OTTERTON, a village in Devonshire, near the influx of the river Otter into the sea, on the south-west side of Sidmouth; with two fairs, on Wednesday in Easter-week, and the first Wednesday after Oct. 10. It had formerly a priory.

At a village near this place, in the year 1814, a curious antique purse was dug up, of which the following account, comprehending also some interesting particulars relating to Otterton and its priory, was sent to the Antiquarian Society.

"In taking down a hedge some time since, near the stream at the western extremity of the village of Budleigh-Salterton, there was found, under the root of an elm, a curious antique, which deserves the attention of such as are fond of antiquarian research. The material of which it is made is metal, which appears to be of a mixed nature, containing a large proportion of brass, and somewhat resembling bronze. It consists of an oblong ring, sufficiently large to admit the middle joints of a moderately-sized fore-finger, to which is hung, on a pivot, a small beam, like the beam of a pair of scales, six inches and a half in length, and half an inch in breadth; from the end of this beam is suspended a double oblate thin frame, the two parts of which are joined by a hinge on each side, and open nearly in the manner of the steel frame of a modern card-purse, and, when open, present a perfect ellipse. The frame is nearly eight inches in its longest diameter, four inches and a half in its shortest, and about a quarter of an inch in thickness. The metal is somewhat corroded by lapse of time, but not so much as to render the inscription on it incapable of being deciphered. The letters are engraved, and the cavities have been filled up by some metallic substance of a lighter colour, which appears to be neither silver nor lead, as it yields no impression to any instrument, but cracks on being strongly pressed by a knife. The motto on the beam, is the salutation of the angel Gabriel to the Virgin Mary, in small old English characters: AVE MARIA GRĀ PLENA, is on one side; and, on the other, DOMINUS TECUM. On each half of the oblate frame is inscribed, in Roman capitals, SOLI DEO HONOR ET GLORIA. Its form shows it most clearly to have been the frame of a purse, which was affixed to it by threads passing through four-and-twenty holes, the perforations still remaining. The inscription proves it to have been intended for sacred use, being dedicated to the honour and glory of God. There is only one purpose for which a purse is used in the performance of divine offices in the Romish church; and that is for conveying the silver vase, containing the consecrated oil, for the administration of extreme unction. But how could a purse of this description find its way to so remote a corner as Budleigh-Salterton? It is clearly ascertained, by the evidence of various authentic records, many of them still existing in the Tower, or Court of Exchequer, inspected by sir William Pole in preparing his collections towards a History of Devonshire, and particularly specified by bishop Tanner in his Notitia Monastica, that William the Conqueror, who distributed many allotments of his newly-acquired territory among his Norman subjects, conferred upon the abbey of St. Michael, *in periculo maris*, in Normandy, the district bounded on the east by the river Syd, on the west and north by the Otter, and on the south by the British Channel. This tract of land has a lofty ridge of hills passing through it, and terminated towards the sea by Peak-hill, which suggested the obvious division of it into two distinct manors, now constituting the two parishes of Sidmouth and Otterton. In each of these the abbey of St. Michael founded a priory of Benedictine or black monks, which, on the suppression of alien priories, were annexed to the monastery of Sion in Middlesex, (1 Ed. IV.) and, at the general dissolution of monasteries, they were granted (31 Hen. VIII.) as parcel of the endowments of Sion, to John Duke, who made the priory-house at Otterton, the principal part of, which still exists, his place of residence; and in the possession of whose family it continued

tinued till a few years since, when it was sold by their representatives, the Rev. Duke Yonge and others, to the father of the present lord Rolle.

"It was the usual practice of monastic establishments to augment their original endowments, by procuring the right of advowson to adjacent parishes, and appropriating to the support of the monastery the rectorial tithes; presenting one of their own body to the care of souls, and allotting the small tithes for the endowment of the vicarage. The parish of East-Budleigh, in which the hamlet of Salterton is situated, being an adjoining parish to Otterton, was obtained by the priory, either through purchase or donation, and appropriated in the usual manner. On the recent sale of an estate in Salterton, there was found, among the title-deeds, a permission for the monks of Otterton to make salt at the salt-works at Salterton. This document accounts for Salterton being frequented by ecclesiastics, though a very small and obscure hamlet, where no church or chapel had ever been erected. Connecting these several circumstances together, there appears to be considerable ground of probability for the suggestion that the sacred purse in question belonged to the monks of Otterton-priory; that it was brought to Salterton by one of the fraternity, who came to administer extreme unction to a dying labourer employed in their own salt-works; and that it was either stolen by artifice, lost by accident, or secreted by design, for the purpose of security on some emergent occasion. At all events, the discovery of this relic is somewhat interesting, if the investigation of it has only contributed incidentally to the elucidation of local history, or helped to ascertain the origin of the name of a hamlet now growing up into an agreeable little watering-place, which, from the salt-works carried on near the estuary of the Otter, evidently acquired the appellation of Salterton."

OTTERY, MOUNT-OTTERY, or UPPER-OTTERY, a village in Devonshire, on the north-west side of Axminster, is the place where the spring of the Otter, or Autre, river, makes the first show of a stream.

OTTERY ST. MARY, a market-town in the county of Devon, situated near the bank of the river Otter, at the distance of $12\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the city of Exeter, and 161 from London. It is a large irregularly-built town; and is chiefly supported by its manufactories of flannel, serge, and other woollen goods. The market-day is Tuesday; and Carlisle states that there are fifteen fairs annually. Wilkes gives it two market-days, Tuesday and Saturday; and three fairs, Tuesday se'nnight before Easter, Whit-Tuesday, and the 15th of August. Here is a grammar-school, formerly kept by the father of the poet Coleridge.

Edward the Confessor, or earl Otho, gave the manor of Ottery to the cathedral of St. Mary at Rouen in Normandy; but, in the reign of Edward III. the dean and chapter, with the king's permission, sold it to Grandison bishop of Exeter, who founded a college in the parochial church here, "for a warden, eight prebendaries, ten vicars, a master of music, a master of grammar, two parish-priests, eight secondaries, eight choristers, and two clerks." At the dissolution, the endowments were valued at 338l. 2s. 9d. and the site of the college was granted by Henry VIII. to Edward earl of Hertford. The chief part of the manor now belongs to sir George Yonge. Some of the old collegiate houses are still to be seen. In one of these buildings is a large hall, which Oliver Cromwell used as a convention-room; and in Mill-street are the remains of the ancient mansion of the celebrated sir Walter Raleigh.

The situation of this town is extremely pleasant and healthy. The principal building is the church, which is very large, and has many singularities in its construction. On each side is a square tower, opening into the body of the church, and forming two transepts, as in Exeter cathedral. The towers are furnished with pinnacles and open battlements; that on the north has also a small spire. At the north-west corner is a richly-orna-

mented chapel, built by bishop Grandison; the roof of which is covered with highly-wrought fan-shaped tracery. The interior of the church is sadly neglected; many of the monuments are broken, and various parts filled up with lumber. The altar-screen is of stone, finely carved into niches and tabernacle-work; but this is partly covered with boards, and painted. On the south side of the communion-table are three stone seats, rising one above another. Most of the windows are narrow, and lancet-shaped.

In 1811, Ottery St. Mary contained 583 houses, and 2880 inhabitants. The petty sessions for the hundred are held here.

Clyst-house, lately built by lord Graves, occupies the site of one of the ancient palaces of the bishops of Exeter. It is a very noble edifice, and commands several rich and extensive views over the adjacent country.—The other principal seats in this vicinity are, Cadhay, and Farington-house. The latter is a very spacious mansion, and surrounded by luxuriant plantations. Windmill-hill, near this house, is said to have been the position of a Roman encampment. *Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. iv. *Wilkes's British Directory*, vol. v. Appendix. *Gent. Mag.* April 1819, which contains an engraving of the church.

OTTFRIDE, a German benedictine monk, who flourished towards the middle of the ninth century, was a disciple of Rabanus archbishop of Mentz, and spent the greater part of his life in the monastery of Weissenburg, in Lower Alsace. He distinguished himself by the progress which he made in sacred and profane literature, and wrote a variety of works in prose and verse. He directed his attention to the improvement and purification of the German language, then called the *Teutonic*; and with this view drew up a Grammar, or rather perfected in part that commenced by the emperor Charlemagne. In order that the common people might be instructed in the gospel-history, he wrote a work in Teutonic rhymes, divided into five books, containing the principal circumstances of the life of Christ, taken from the four evangelists, and digested into the order of time. This work was published, but from a corrupt and mutilated copy, by Flacius Illyricus, in 1571, 8vo. A much larger, and more correct, copy, is preserved in the imperial library at Vienna, of which a particular account, together with the long preface, and various specimens of the work itself, are given by Lambecius, in his *Comment. de Augusta Bibl. Cæsar. Vindobon.* vol. ii. The preface, above-mentioned, is inserted in the sixteenth volume of the *Bibl. Patr.* Lambecius also gives an account of other works of Otfride in the same collection; among which are, 2. Homilies, in Teutonic, upon the Evangelists. 3. Paraphrases on the Songs of Isaiah, Ezekiel, &c. the Lord's Prayer, the Song of Zacharias, of the Virgin Mary, and the Creed of St. Athanasius. *Cave's Hist. Lit.* vol. ii.

OTTINGBA'U, a town of Meckley, in Thibet: sixty-eight miles west of Munnypour.

OTTMARSHEIM, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Rhine: eight miles north of Huningen.

OTTMACHAU, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Neisse, on the river Neisse: six miles west of Neisse, and ten south-east of Munsterberg. Lat. 50. 20. N. lon. 17. 2. E.

OTTO GUERICHE. See GUERICHE, vol. viii.

OTTO VENIUS, or VAN VEEN. See VENIUS.

OTTOBEUREN, a princely abbey of Germany, first founded in the year 764, under the cathedral of Augsburg, but at present exempt from all subordination, having in the year 1626 paid to the cathedral the sum of 100,000 florins, in consideration of which it renounced all supremacy, jurisdiction, and authority, together with the power of imposing taxes, over it; which agreement was confirmed by the emperor. The convent was immediately under the empire; and, as such, used formerly to be summoned to the imperial diet; but this privilege has for a long time been discontinued; and, in 1802, the revenues

venues were secularised, and given to Bavaria. Near it is a market-town, over which it is possessed of criminal jurisdiction, as a fief of the empire, granted to it in the year 1512 by Charles V. It is twenty-five miles south-east of Ulm, and thirty-one south-west of Augburg.

OT'TOK, a town of Croatia: twenty-eight miles south-south-west of Carlsbad.

OT'TOMAN, or OTHOMAN, an appellation given to the empire of the Turks, or rather to their emperors, from Othomannus, or Osman, the first prince of the family. This Osman, to distinguish his followers from others, gave them the name of *Osmannes*, from which, by the change of the *s* into *t*, we have made Ottomans; which new name soon became formidable to the Greeks of Constantinople, from whom Osman conquered a sufficient extent of territory to found a powerful kingdom. He soon bestowed on it that title, by assuming, in 1300, the dignity of Sultan, which signified absolute sovereign. The true era of the Ottoman empire may be dated from the conquest of Prusa. The establishment of the Ottomans in Europe took place A.D. 1353. See TURKEY.

OTTO'NE, a town of Sardinia: twenty-one miles north-east of Genoa.

OTT'SBERG, OTZBERG, or UTZBERG, a town of Hesse Darmstadt: twenty-six miles north of Heidelberg, and six south-east of Darmstadt.

OTTWEILER, late a town of France, in the department of the Sarre, situated among mountains; and containing a castle, a Protestant and a Roman-catholic church. It is thirteen miles north of Saarbruck, and forty south-east of Treves.

OTUBUE, a small island in the South Pacific Ocean, near the coast of Bolabola.

OTUGUNGE, a town of Bengal: twenty-four miles south of Calcutta.

OTURA, a town of Spain, in the province of Grenada: five miles south of Grenada.

OTUTUELA. See MAOUNA.

OT'WAY (Thomas), an eminent writer of tragedy, born in 1651 at Trotten in Sussex, was the son of the rector of Woolbeding in that county. He received his school-education at Winchester; and was entered a commoner of Christ-church, Oxford, in 1669; but the narrowness of his circumstances, and perhaps an irregularity of disposition, caused him to leave the university without a degree, and without any professional determination. Going to London, his resource against want was to commence actor; and he made some attempts in that capacity, but with little success. As he was possessed of talents for poetry, it was natural that he should turn his thoughts to writing for the stage; and in 1675 he produced his first tragedy, "*Alcibiades*," which was acted at the duke's theatre. In the following year, he brought out at the same theatre his "*Don Carlos, Prince of Spain*," which proved highly successful. From some illiberally-sarcastic lines of lord Rochester in his Session of the Poets, it appears, that the profits of this play rescued the author, for a time at least, from a state of extreme indigence. His theatrical exertions also introduced him to the acquaintance of men of fashion and pleasure; and the patronage of the earl of Plymouth, a natural son of Charles II. procured him the commission of a cornet in the new-raised troops destined for Flanders in 1677. He accompanied his regiment to that country; but soon returned, pursued by his habitual poverty. He continued to write for the stage as his sole means of subsistence, which small encouragement, or dissolute habits, rendered very scanty and precarious. He translated two pieces from the French, composed licentious and indifferent comedies, and two more tragedies, namely, "*The Orphan*" in 1680, and "*Venice Preserved*" in 1682, on which his fame is founded.

Though he was permitted to join men of quality in their parties of debauchery, he obtained no substantial favour from them; and, to avoid his creditors, was obliged to lodge at a public-house on Tower-hill, where,

in 1685, he miserably terminated his unhappy life, at the early age of thirty-four. It is a traditionary story, that, being nearly famished, he begged a shilling of a gentleman, who gave him a guinea, and that he was choked by ravenously devouring a roll which he then bought. Dr. Johnson hopes the case was not so bad; and Pope was informed that Otway died of a fever, occasioned by his exertions in the pursuit of a thief who had robbed one of his friends. It is not doubted, however, that he closed his life under the pressure of severe penury. His memory, associated with the tender scenes that he has written, has been celebrated in various pathetic lamentations for his hard fate; but, like many of his fellow-sufferers, he was too deficient in moral qualities to excite that regard which is the only foundation of sober sympathy. Besides the dissoluteness of manners displayed in his life and writings, he was a shameless flatterer of the great, and seems to have had no other public principle than a servile attachment to authority.

To Thomas Otway was reserved the honour of giving tragedy its true and genuine tone of language, divested of unnatural flight and unnecessary pomp. This writer began, like the rest of our dramatic poets in that age, with tragedy in rhyme. But he wanted the variety and harmony of Dryden's numbers; nor had he his various learning, or reasoning faculty, to embellish and diversify his tragedies in rhyme. He soon followed that poet's example, and relinquished his chiming fetters for blank verse, which approaches nearest to the iambic of the ancients. Otway, like Dryden, warmed his genius with the fire of Shakespeare; but, not content with borrowing from his original, he stole whole scenes from *Romeo and Juliet*, and incorporated them in his "*Caius Marius*:" this, indeed, he acknowledges in his prologue.

"But the reputation of Otway for pathetic powers was, by the success of his *Orphan*, justly exalted above all the dramatists of his own and succeeding times. The characters, by being brought nearer to the condition of the audience, more deeply interest their passions than the fate and fortune of persons who are eminently placed above them. A young lady, destitute of fortune, and who had lost her parents, left, when a child, to the care and protection of a nobleman, the friend of her dead father, is passionately solicited by his two sons, Castalio and Polydore. The pretensions of the elder, unknown to his brother, are founded on honourable love. The younger, confiding in the sincerity of his brother's declaration, that he would never marry Monimia, but strive to gain her for a mistress, is impelled to affront her with his *brutal passion*, as she rightly terms it; for his address, however justified in the rank days of Charles II. would scarcely now be tolerated in a brothel. During the progress of their courtship, Chamont, the young lady's brother, arrives; and, on the information of an old woman, whom the author's poetical fancy transforms into a witch, he questions his sister on her present situation. The scene is varied with beautiful imagery and affecting passion. Polydore, the younger brother, by the help of a page, discovers Castalio's treachery; and, not knowing of their marriage, listens, and overhears the appointment of the new-married pair. By a stratagem, he contrives to impose himself, in the dark, on Monimia, for his brother; and enjoys her. The distress, raised in consequence of this, ends in the death of the lady and the two rival brothers. From a plot so simple, the author has raised pathetic scenes, which, from their first representation to the present day, have melted into tenderness the heart of every spectator. The language is easy, flowing, and familiar; sufficiently forcible, without degenerating into vulgarism; it is occasionally strengthened by pleasing description and warm imagery. Had it been raised to greater force, by higher exertion of the poet, it would neither have suited the plot nor the characters. In the character of *Acasto*, Otway has drawn a portrait of a worthy nobleman, who, retired from court, retains his

veneration and loyalty for his royal master. Of all the noblemen who in the reign of Charles II. distinguished themselves for worth and attachment to their royal master, James duke of Ormond stands the foremost; and I cannot avoid conjecturing, that his character is here shadowed, at least part of it, under Acasto. What strengthens my opinion is, the discourse of the two servants, Paulino and Ernesto, in the first scene. Paulino, after expressing his wonder that Acasto should still persist in hating the court, where he was born and bred, is informed by Ernesto that he had reason for his disgust:

When, for what he had borne,
Long and faithful toil, he might have claim'd
Places in honour and employment high,
A huffing, thining, flatt'ring, cringing, coward,
A canker-worm of peace, was rais'd above him.

That Ormond was displaced from his government of Ireland, where he was beloved by all ranks of people, by the ungrateful Charles, to gratify the worst man in the kingdom, Villiers duke of Buckingham, is a fact, to which, I think, Otway alludes. It is true, Ormond did not, like Acasto, retire from court, but kept his place of steward of the household; which office, Charles, who respected virtues, though he wanted the honesty to imitate them, had not the courage to take from him.

"The fable of Venice Preserved afforded a larger field for the exertion of Otway's abilities than the catastrophe of an unhappy marriage in a private family. A plot, formed for the destruction of a state, is a subject that would rouse the genius of any writer. The story is taken from St. Real's Conspiracy of the Marquis de Bedamar and the Duke d'Osuna against the Republic of Venice. The narrative of St. Real is skilfully written; but is by no means superior to the English tragedy, as Voltaire presumptuously asserts. In the History, you have some characters strongly marked and well delineated; more especially of that extraordinary man, the marquis of Bedamar, the most accomplished politician then living; you have likewise a good outline of the most remarkable conspirators, particularly Pierre and Renault. But can we compare a bare narrative with the animated dialogues of Pierre and Jaffier, and the heartfelt scenes of anguish between the lovely distressed Belvidera and her almost-distracted husband? In St. Real, Jaffier becomes a conspirator against the state of Venice, in whose military service he was employed, from the hopes of plunder, and his attachment to Pierre, his friend. In the tragedy, he is driven to the utmost distress, with a wife whom he tenderly loves, by a cruel father-in-law; and, though nothing can justify treason, yet, surely, the being surprised into a conspiracy by extreme want, and the insidious arts of a man he esteems to be a friend, exhibits motives less fordid than the other. St. Real's account of the conspiracy resembles a gloomy representation of a storm, interspersed with flashes of lightning which serve to make the picture more terrible and deformed. The scenes of conflicting passions, animated by interesting situations of character, render Venice Preserved a grand historical painting, worthy the pencil of the most accomplished artist." Davies's Dramatic Miscellanies, vol. iii.

We have mentioned five tragedies written by Otway. He produced also, 6. Titus and Berenice, a tragedy. 7. The Cheats of Scapin, a farce. 8. Friendship in Fashion, a comedy. 9. The Soldier's Fortune, a comedy. 10. The Atheist, or The Second Part of the Soldier's Fortune, a comedy, 1684.

Besides these plays, Otway made some translations, and wrote several miscellaneous poems. His whole works were printed in 3 vols. 12mo. 1757. and 4 vols. 8vo. 1813.

In the year 1719 was printed a piece ascribed to Otway, but certainly not written by him, called "Heroic Friendship," a tragedy. At the time of his death, however, he had made some progress in a play, as will appear from the following advertisement, printed in L'Estrange's Obser-

vator, Nov. 27, 1686: "Whereas Mr. Thomas Otway, some time before his death, made four acts of a play; whoever can give notice in whose hands the copy lies, either to Mr. Thomas Betterton, or to Mr. William Smith, at the theatre royal, shall be well rewarded for his pains." *Biographia Dramatica*.

OU-ANG-KIANG', a town of China, of the third rank, in Kiang-nan: twenty-eight miles south-west of Ngan-king.

OU-CHANG', a town of China, of the third rank, in Se-tchuen: eighteen miles east of Koei-tcheou.

OU-HO, a town of China, of the third rank, in Kiang-nan: twenty-five miles east-north-east of Fong-yang.

OU-KANG', a town of China, of the third rank, in Tche-kiang: twenty-three miles north-north-west of Hang-tcheou.

OU-KANG', a city of China, of the second rank, in Hou-quang. Lat. 26. 40. N. lon. 110. 48. E.

OU-KIAM', a town of China, of the third rank, in Pe-tche-li: twelve miles east of Ching.

OU-KIANG', a town of China, of the third rank, in Kiang-nan: nine miles south of Sou-tcheou.

OU-KIAO', a town of China, of the third rank, in Pe-tche-li: twelve miles south-east of King.

OU-KU'EN, or VOU-RING', a city of China, of the second rank, in Yun-nan. Lat. 25. 34. N. lon. 102. 20. E.

OU-LONG', a town of China, of the third rank, in Se-tchuen: forty-five miles south-south-east of Pei.

OU-MONG', a city of China, of the first rank, in Se-tchuen. Lat. 27. 20. N. lon. 103. 29. E.

OU-NHING', a town of China, of the third rank, in Kiang-nan: thirty-two miles north-east of Nhing-tcheou.

OU-PING', a town of China, of the third rank, in Fo-kien: forty-five miles south-south-west of Ting-tcheou.

OU-POEY-TSE', *f.* A name given by the Chinese to a kind of nests made by certain insects upon the leaves and branches of the tree called *yen-fou-tse*. These nests are much used in dyeing, and the physicians employ them for curing many distempers. Some of these nests were brought to Europe, and put into the hands of the celebrated Mr. Geoffrey. After having examined them with the utmost attention, this learned academician thought he perceived some conformity in them to those excrescences which grow on the leaves of the elm, and which the vulgar call *elm-bladders*: he found these nests so sharp and asfringent to the taste, that he considered them far superior to every other species of galls used by the dyers. According to him, they are the strongest asfringents existing in the vegetable kingdom. It is certain, that there is a great affinity between the ou-poe-y-tse and the elm-bladders. The form of both is unequal and irregular; they are covered on the outside with a short down, which renders them soft to the touch; within they are full of a whitish-grey dust, in which may be observed the dried remains of small insects, without discovering any aperture through which they might have passed. These nests or bladders harden as they grow old; and their substance, which appears resinous, becomes brittle and transparent: however, the Chinese do not consider the ou-poe-y-tse, notwithstanding their resemblance to elm-bladders, as excrescences of the tree *yen-fou-tse*, upon which they are found. They are persuaded, that insects produce a kind of wax, and construct for themselves on the branches and leaves of this tree (the sap of which is proper for their nourishment) little retreats, where they may wait for the time of their metamorphosis, or at least deposit in safety their eggs, which compose that fine dust with which the ou-poe-y-tse are filled. Some of the ou-poe-y-tse are as large as one's fist; but these are rare, and are generally produced by a worm of extraordinary strength, or which has associated with another, as two silk-worms are sometimes seen shut up in the same ball. The smallest ou-poe-y-tse are of the size of a chestnut; the greater part of them are round and oblong; but they seldom resemble

one another entirely in their exterior configuration. At first, they are of a dark-green colour, which afterwards changes to yellow; and the husk, though pretty firm, becomes then very brittle.

The Chinese peasants collect these ou-poey-tse before the first hoar-frosts. They take care to kill the worm inclosed in the husks, and to expose them for some time to the steam of boiling water, like our treatment of silkworms. Without this precaution, the worm might soon break through its weak prison, which would immediately burst and be useless. The ou-poey-tse are used at Pekin for giving paper a durable and deep-black colour; in the provinces of Kiang-nan and Tche-kiang, where a great deal of beautiful satin is made, they are employed for dyeing the silk before it is put on the loom. The Chinese literati also blacken their beards with them when they become white. The medicinal properties of the ou-poey-tse are very numerous. The Chinese physicians introduce them into the composition of many of their remedies. They recommend them for stopping bleedings; they consider them as an excellent specific for curing inflammations and ulcers, and for counteracting the effects of poison; and they employ them with success in the dropsy, phthisis, epilepsy, catarrhs, sickness, fluxions of the eyes and ears, and in many other disorders.

OU-POU', a town of China, of the third rank, in Honan: twenty-five miles east of Hoai-king.

OU-POU', a town of China, of the third rank, in Chen-si, on the river Hoang: twenty-two miles east of Soui-te.

OU-TA'I, a town of China, of the third rank, in Chan-si: twenty-seven miles south-east of Tai-tcheou.

OU-TAM', a town of China, of the third rank, in Pe-tche-li: thirty-three miles south-east of Pekin.

OU-TCHANG', a city of China, of the first rank, in Hou-quang, on the river Yank-tse: 532 miles south of Pekin. Lat. 30. 36. N. lon. 113. 50. E.

OU-TCHOU', a city of China, of the first rank, in Quang-si. All the rivers of the province unite near this city, which joins to the province of Quang-tong, and is the key of the whole province, and the most considerable city for commerce in it. It hath one city of the second order, and nine of the third, within its jurisdiction. The country is partly mountainous, and partly flat. In the mountains is found cinnabar, and the uncommon tree called quang-lang, which, instead of pith, hath a soft pulp, of which they make flour. Lat. 23. 28. N. lon. 110. 32. E.

OU-TCHOU', a town of China, of the third rank, in Koei-tcheou: twenty miles north of Se-nan.

OU-TCHU'EN, a town of the kingdom of Corea, in King-ki: fifty-five miles south-south-east of King-ki.

OU-TCHU'EN, a seaport-town of China, of the third rank, in Quan-tong: twenty miles south-south-east of Hoa.

OU-TING', a city of China, of the first rank, in Yun-nan. Lat. 25. 53. N. lon. 102. 6. E.

OUA-CONG-YN', a town of Thibet: thirty-two miles south-west of Hami.

O'VA PIS'CIUM, in botany. See COIX.

OU'ABASH. See WABASH.

OUACHI'TA, or OUACHIT'TA, a county and parish of the territory of New Orleans, which, in the year 1810, contained only 1077 inhabitants. The staples of this territory are cotton, tobacco, lumber, and peltries. Ouachitta River, sometimes called Black River, is not navigable in autumn, when the waters are low, for any vessels above the size of canoes.

The hot-springs of Ouachitta, which have been known for many years, are situated on a stream called Hot-spring Creek, which falls into the Washitaw river eight miles below. They lie fifty miles south of the Arkansaw river, in Clark county, territory of Arkansaw, (lately Missouri,) and six miles west of the road from Cadron to Mount Prairie, on Red River. The approach to the springs lies

up the valley of the creek. On the right of the valley rises the Hot Mountain, with the springs issuing at its foot; on the left, the Cold Mountain, which is little more than a confused and mighty pile of stones. The Hot Mountain is about three hundred feet high, rising quite steep, and presenting occasionally ledges of rocks; it terminates above in a confused mass of broken rocks. The steep and otherwise sterile sides are covered with a luxuriant growth of vines. The valley between this and the Cold Mountain is about fifty yards wide. The springs issue at the foot of the Hot Mountain at an elevation of about ten feet above the level of the creek: they are very numerous all along the hill-side; and the water, which runs in copious streams, is quite hot: it will scald the hand, and boil an egg hard in ten minutes. Its temperature is considered that of boiling water; but Dr. Andrews, of Red River, thinks it is not above 200° Fahrenheit.

OUA'DA, or Go'A, a town of Sardinia, on the borders of France: eighteen miles north-north-west of Genoa, and fifteen south of Alexandria.

OU'AGIK, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia: three miles south of Ismid.

OUA'IS's BAY, a bay on the north coast of the island of Cape Breton.

O'VAL, *adj.* [*ovale*, Fr. from *ovum*, Lat. an egg.] Oblong; resembling the longitudinal section of an egg.—The mouth is low and narrow, but, after having entered pretty far in the grotto, opens itself on both sides in an oval figure of an hundred yards. *Addison on Italy.*

Mercurius, nearest to the central sun,
Does in an oval orbit circling run;
But rarely is the object of our sight,
In solar glory sunk.

Blackmore.

O'VAL, *f.* A triangle is that which has three angles, or an oval is that which has the shape of an egg. *Watts's Logic.*—The proper oval, or egg-shape, is an irregular figure, being narrower at one end than it is at the other; that is, the extreme breadth is not in the middle of its length. In this it differs from the *ellipse*, which is equally broad at both ends. In the common acceptation of the word, the two curves are confounded together; and even geometers call the oval a false ellipse. *Chambers.*

OUALAL'DE, a town of Africa, in the country of the Foulahs, on the side of the Senegal. Lat. 18. 45. N. lon. 13. 8. W.

OUAL'LE (Alonso de), a Jesuit, born at Santiago in Chili, and procurador-general of the order in that province. He came to Rome to obtain a supply of missionaries, and there published "Historica Relacion del Reyno de Chile, y de las Misiones y Ministerios que exercita en el la Compania de Jesus, 1646." This book is dedicated in the title "A Nuestro Senor Jesu Christo Deos Hombre, y a la Santissima Virgen y Madre Maria Senora del Cielo y de la Tierra, y a los Santos Joseph, Joachin Ana, sus padres y aguelos." "This (says Mr. Southey) is a book of great value, though it is meanly printed, and the engravings are execrably bad. At the end of the copy now before me, are some views of the Jesuit settlement in Chili, and of the six principal forts, which were published separately, to be purchased at pleasure. They are, without an exception, the very worst wood-cuts I have ever seen." An abridgment of this work of Ovalle is in Churchill's Collection. *Gen. Biog.*

O'VALLY, *adv.* In the manner of an oval.

OU'AN, a town of Corea: fifty-three miles west-south-west of Koang.

OU'AN, a town of China, of the second rank, in the island of Hai-nan: seventy-five miles south of Kiong-tcheou.

OUAN-LIN-HO'TUN, a town of Chinese Tartary: 588 miles north-east of Pekin.

OUAN-NGAN', a town of China, of the third rank, in Kiang-si: thirty-eight miles north of Kan-tcheou

OUAN.

OUAN-NI'EN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Kiang-si: twenty miles south-south-east of Yao-tcheou.

OUAN-TAI, a town of China, of the third rank, in Kiang si: fifteen miles north of Yuen-tcheou.

OUANAMIN'THE, a town of Hispaniola: fifteen miles south-east of Fort Dauphin.

OUAN'DA, a province of Congo, south-east of Pemba.

OU'ANG KO'A, a town of Corea: twenty-eight miles east-south-east of Koang-tcheou.

OUANGA'RUM, a river of Canada, which runs into the St. Lawrence in lat. 44. 37. N. lon. 75. 45. W.

OUAN'NE, a town of France, in the department of the Yonne: nine miles south-west of Auxerre, and twelve north of Clamecy.

OUAQUAPHEN'OGAW, EKANFANO'KA, or OKER-FON'OKÉ, a marshy lake in the state of Georgia, between the Oakmulgee and Flint Rivers.

O'VAR. See ALTENBURG.

O'VAR, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira: fifteen miles north-north-east of Braganza Nova, and fifteen south of Oporto.

OUA'RA, a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: sixty-five miles south-south-west of Patna.

OUARAN'GUE, a small island in the Atlantic, near the coast of Africa. Lat. 11. 32. N.

QUAR'DAN. See VARDAN.

OVA'RIOUS, *adj.* [from *ovum*, Lat.] Consisting of eggs:

He, to the rocks

Dire clinging, gathers his *ovarious* food. *Thomson.*

OVA'RIMUM, *f.* [Latin.] In botany, a name by which botanists, who are fond of assimilating the animal and vegetable kingdoms, have distinguished the germen or seed bud, as containing the rudiments of the future seed.

OU'ARVILLE, a town of France, in the department of the Eure and Loire: ten miles north north-west of Janville, and twelve south-east of Chartres.

O'VARY, *f.* [*ovarium*, Lat.] The part of the body in which impregnation is performed. See the article ANATOMY, vol. i. and CONCEPTION, vol. v.—The *ovary*, or part where the white involveth it, is in the second region of the matrix, which is somewhat long and inverted. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

O'VATE, *adj.* [*ovatus*, Lat.] Of an oval figure; marked ovally.—Two rows on each side of the belly consist of larger scales, *ovate* and imbricate. *Russell's Account of Indian Serpents.*

OVA'TION, *f.* [Fr. *ovatio*, Lat.] The smaller triumph among the Romans, allowed to those commanders who had won a victory without much bloodshed, or defeated some less-formidable enemy.—The *ovation* was first introduced in the year of Rome 325, in honour of the consul Posthumius Tubertus, after his defeating the Sabines. *Chambers.*

Ovation was allow'd

For conquest purchas'd without blood. *Hudibras.*

The procession generally began at the Albanian Mountain, whence the general with his retinue made his entry into the city on foot, (sometimes on horseback, but never in a chariot,) with flutes or pipes sounding in concert as he passed along, and wearing a garland of myrtle as a token of peace. The term *ovation*, according to Servius, is derived from *ovis*, a sheep; because on this occasion the conqueror sacrificed a sheep, as in a triumph he sacrificed a bull. The senate, knights, and principal plebeians, assisted at the procession; which concluded at the Capitol.

OUBEQUE'ME, the left branch of the river MECON. See that word, vol. iv.

OUBIN'SKOI, or VOBR'FSKOI, mountains of Russia, which form, at the sources of the Ouba and Ulba, a considerable ridge, towering in lofty summits to high snow-mountains, sending out its branches on both sides of those rivers, especially between them, and at its foot bordered by the Irtysh. The greatest height rises near Vobrosskaia with porphyry, which in the north and south

is frequently changed for granite, whose summits, sometimes with gentle, and then with bold, ascents, surround the most delightful vales, abounding in odoriferous herbs of various kinds. In the region about the fortress Oustkameneyorsk, the granite is under-run by schistose earth, in ancient times explored by the Tshudi, who took pleasure in mining. The mountains in which are the sources of the Ouba consist of granite, porphyry, marlstone, petrosilex, and quartz. Towards the east the Oubinskoi mountains rear their lofty summits, which, measured with the line, were found to be 5691 English feet above the water of the river Ouba, which devolves its pleasant streams beneath their monstrous cliffs. In these mountains have been lately found the Filipofskoi mines, on the Ulba, which promise great success, together with other mines. *Tooke's Russia*, vol. i.

OU'BY. See OBY.

OUCAR'RA, a town of Hindoostan, in the Mysore: five miles south of Sattimungulum.

OU'CENTA, a town of Naples, in Lavora: twelve miles east of Capua.

OUCH, *f.* The blow given by the tusk of a boar. *Ainsworth.*

OUCH, *f.* [*nusca*, *nuca*, low Lat. a button; whence perhaps *nouch*, or *nouch*, and so *ouch*. *Tyrwhitt.*] The bezel or socket for fastening the precious stones in the shoulder-pieces of the high-priest's ephod.—These *ouches* with their stones, served for buttons to fasten the golden chains whereby the breast-plate was hung. *Brown's Dict. Bible.*—Thou shalt make them to be set in *ouches* of gold. *Exod. xxviii. 11, 25.*—A collar of gold, or such like ornament, worn by women about their necks. 24 *Hen. VIII. c. 13.*

A Persian mitre on her head

She wore, with crowns and *ouches* garnished. *Spenser.*

OU'CHE, a river of France, which runs into the Saône twelve miles below Dijon.

OU'CHI, a town of Switzerland, on the lake of Geneva. It is the port of Lausanne.

OU'CHTERMUCHTY, a town in the county of Fife, Scotland, was constituted a royal borough by king James IV. and the charter was subsequently confirmed by James VI. This place still continues to enjoy all its original privileges, except the right of sending members to parliament, or to the convention of royal boroughs. The government is vested in three baillies and fifteen counsellors, who are elected annually; and there is a weekly market for provisions. A very considerable manufacture of brown linens and Silesias is carried on here, as are likewise some tan-works. The parish extends about two miles in length and one and a half in breadth, and displays much variety of surface. In the immediate vicinity of the town the soil is gravelly, but, at a greater distance, is fertile. Freestone and marl are abundant. According to the parliamentary returns of 1811, the whole parish comprises 525 houses, and a population of 2403 persons. *Beauties of Scotland*, vol. iv.

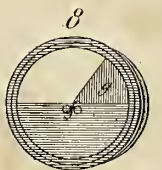
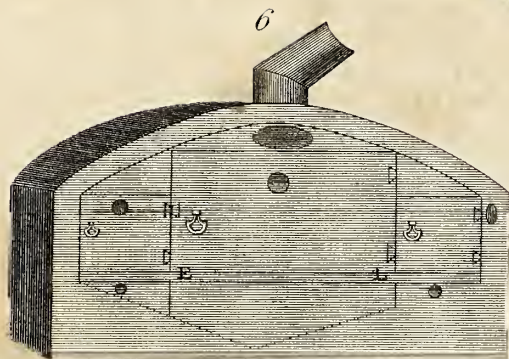
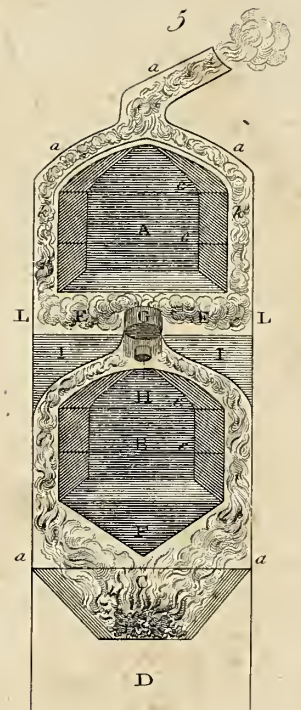
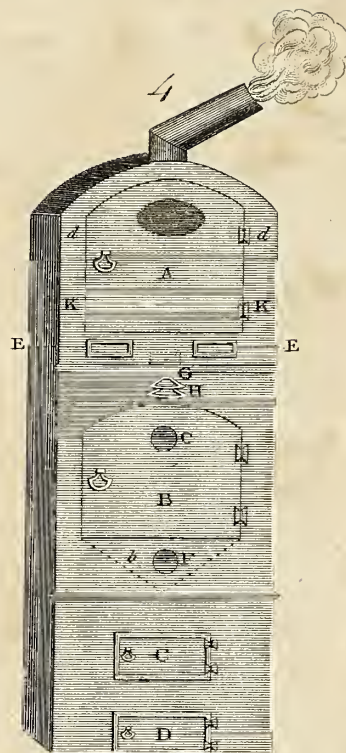
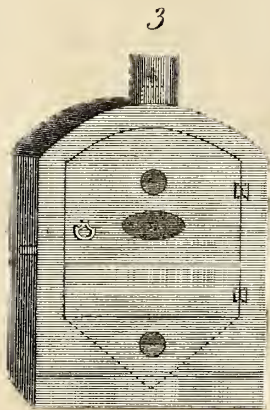
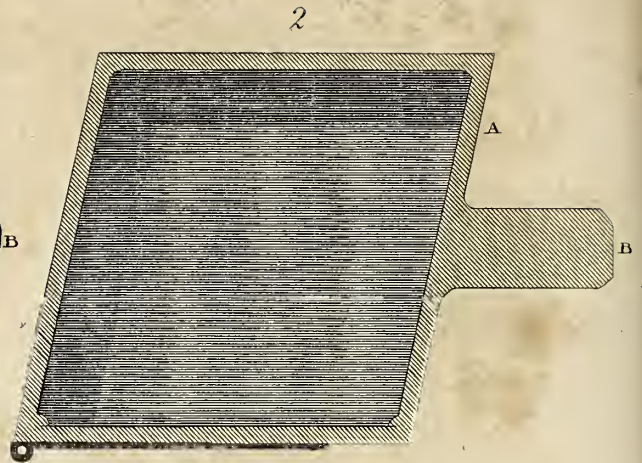
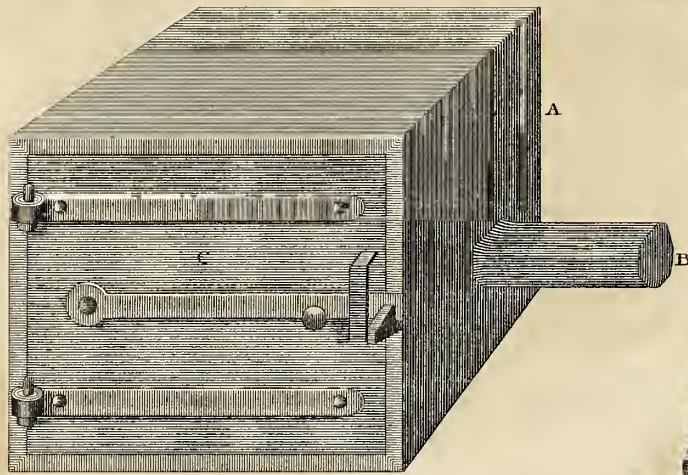
OU'DAL, a town of Norway, in the province of Aggerhuus: forty miles north-east of Christiania.

OU'DAPOUR, a town of Bengal: fifteen miles east of Comillah.

OU'DATUM-OU'DOU'C, a town of Chinese Tartary. Lat. 45. 9. N. lon. 121. 28. E.

OU'DE, a province or soubah of Hindoostan, the dominions of which lie on both sides of the Ganges, occupying (with the exception of Fezoola Cawn's district of Rampour) all the flat country between that river and the northern mountains towards Thibet, as well as the principal part of the fertile tract lying between the Ganges and Jumnah, known by the name of Doob, to within forty miles of the city of Delhi. On the east and south-east it is bounded by Bahar, on the south by Allahabad, ceded by treaty to the English in 1793, and on the west by Agra. According to the statement of Major Rennell, the dimensions of Oude, and its dependencies, may be reckoned,

OVEN.



1, 2. Oven without flues. 3 to 10. Portable Oven.

reckoned 360 British miles in length from east to west, and in breadth from 150 to 180; and their area is about one-third part of that of the Bengal provinces; being to each other in the proportion of 53 to 162. Generally speaking, the whole territory is one continued plain; and is a continuation of that extensive level valley through which the Ganges and its branches take their course. It is, moreover, the central part of the ancient kingdom or empire of the Prasi. Lucknow, situated on the river Goomty, and about 650 miles from Calcutta, is its present capital; having superseded Fyzabad, a city on the Gogra, near the ancient city of *Aiudh*, which seems to have given name to the province. The city of *Aiudh* or Oude, the author of the *Ayeen Akberry* says, was in his time the largest city in Hindoostan; he mentions it as a place of peculiar sanctity: Ferishtah boasts of its existing two thousand years before the Christian era. See the article *HINDOOSTAN*, vol. x. p. 2. The nabob of Oude is in alliance with the British power: and a brigade of the Bengal army is constantly stationed on his western frontier; thus answering the purposes of covering Oude as well as Bengal, and of keeping the western states in awe. The whole expense of it is paid by the nabob of Oude, by a stipulated sum, under the name of a subsidy, amounting annually to 420,000l. provided the Sicca rupee be valued at 2s. 1½d. The late nabob of Oude, Sujah Dowlah, possessed, at the time when he first became an ally of the East India company, the whole soubah of Oude, and the greatest part of Allahabad; to which, in 1774, were added the eastern parts of Delhi and Agra, till that time possessed by a tribe of Afghan Rohillas, and by the Jats. The zemindary of Benares, which includes also the circars of Gazypour and Chunar, constituted a part of the dominions of Oude until the year 1775, when its tribute or quit-rent of 24 lacks (since increased to 40) was transferred to the English. This zemindary, which was lately in the hands of Chut Sing, occupies the principal part of the space between Bahar and Oude, so that only a small part of the territory of the latter touches Bahar on the north-west. The revenues of Oude under Aurungezebe amounted to 80½ lacks of rupees; but they have more lately been reckoned in the gross amount at about 2,500,000l. sterling; of which the new acquisitions of Rohilcund, Corah, and other parts of the Dooab, are more than one million. The military establishment, including the troops employed in the collection of the revenues, is from 50 to 60,000 men; but few of them deserve the name of regular troops.

The province of Oude is watered not only by the Ganges, but by the Jumnah, Agra, Goomty, and several smaller streams; these flow through most of the principal towns, and are navigable for boats in all seasons of the year. They present strong barriers against the neighbouring powers. Oude has seven circars, viz. Bahraitch, Canoge, Goorackpour, Kairabad, Lucknow, Manickpour, and Oude Proper.

OUDE, a circar of Hindoostan, in the soubah of Oude, bounded on the north by Bahraitch, on the east by Goorackpour, on the south by Jionpour and Manickpour, and on the west by Lucknow; about forty-five miles long, and sixteen broad. Fyzabad is the capital.

OU DENAR'DE, a town of the kingdom of the Netherlands, in the province of East Flanders, on the Scheldt, between Ghent and Tournay, about fifteen miles from the former and twenty from the latter. This city appears to have had its origin in very distant times; some say, as far back as the year 411, from a castle built here by the Gotlis. But we may with more probability date its rise from a castle built by count Baldwin of Lile in 1053. The town was extended and fortified under the reign of Philip of Alsace, who built towers and made a bridge over the Scheldt, which divides the place into two jurisdictions. It was afterwards so well fortified by Francis la Noue, a French Calvinist, that it obtained the name of "Little Rochelle." Here are two parish-churches,

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five gates; and many good buildings. The town-house is a remarkable gothic edifice: here is also a college. In this place was born Margaret of Parma, governess of the Low Countries, natural daughter of Charles V. Its population is 5000. Under the walls was fought, July 11, 1708, the famous "battle of Oudenarde, wherein the allies, under the duke of Marlborough and prince Eugene, obtained a splendid victory over the French commanded by the dukes of Burgundy and Vendome. See the article *ENGLAND*, vol. vi. p. 706, 7. It fell into the hands of the French republicans on the 3d of July, 1794; and afterwards formed part of the "department of the Scheldt." By the treaty of Vienna, June 1815, it was assigned to the newly-created kingdom of the Netherlands. *Géographie du Royaume des Pays Bas*; Brussels, 1819.

OU DENAR'DE (Robert Van), a painter and engraver; was born in the year 1663 at Ghent; but his biographer is of opinion that the family was originally of the place which is the subject of the preceding article, and took their name from thence. Oudenarde applied himself to the study of art at a very early period of life, under the direction of Van Cleef, and other Flemish masters. He afterwards travelled to Rome for improvement, and was received into the academy of Carlo Maratti. At this period he is spoken of with praise as a painter; but we shall here consider him only as an engraver. His early progress in the latter art was interrupted by an act of professional indiscretion, which is thus related by Strutt. "He frequently used to amuse himself at his leisure with the point; and being pleased, as it should seem, with a sketch of his master representing the Marriage of the Virgin, he etched a plate from it, of which Carlo Maratti knew nothing, until, the impressions being circulated about, he accidentally saw one of them in a print-shop, and by enquiry soon discovered its author. Oudenarde felt severely the effects of his resentment, which he carried to such a height, that he forbade him to approach his school, declaring he would never see his face again." Maratti, however, though warm in his resentment, was not implacable; and it seems not improbable that the assiduity of Oudenarde was quickened by this occurrence; for he soon made so great progress in engraving, that Maratti was extremely pleased, and many of his best pictures were, at his own instance, put into the hands of Oudenarde to engrave.

As to the merits of Oudenarde, Strutt judiciously observes, "the plates which were done by this artist entirely with the graver, are not equal to those where he also used the point; they are cold and destitute of effect, and often, from his great solicitude to avoid an outline, his draperies appear heavy, and want sharpness in the folds. The same heaviness appears also in his heads and other extremities, and all the naked parts of the figure in general; as I think will readily be allowed, on examination of that which represents the Assumption of the Virgin, from Carlo Maratti, a middling-sized upright plate; which, if compared with the slight etching of Hagar and Ishmael, from the same master, I think the spirit of the latter will well repay the want of that neatness which is found in the former. Oudenarde certainly possessed great knowledge of the human figure, and his drawing is seldom incorrect."

During his stay in Italy, cardinal Barbarigo, with becoming regard for the fame of his ancestry, engaged our artist to engrave the portraits of the distinguished men of that family, with emblematical accompaniments. The work consists of a hundred and sixty-five plates, and for some years remained imperfect on account of the death of the cardinal; but at length the five plates which were wanting to its completion, were engraved at the expense of one of his descendants; and the work appeared at Padua, in large folio, accompanied by Latin poetry, in the year 1762. After residing seventeen years in Italy, Oudenarde returned to his native city, where he died in 1743, being fourscore years of age.

OU'DENBORG, a town of the Netherlands, in the province of West Flanders: six miles south-east of Ostend.

OU'DENBOSCH, a town of the Netherlands, in the province of North Brabant: ten miles west of Breda.

OU'DERKERCH, a town of the Netherlands, in the province of South Holland: six miles south of Amsterdam.

OU'DESCARPEL, a village of Holland, on the Langedike.

OU'DESLUYS, a sluice and village of Holland, at the point on the Zipe-canal: eight miles south of the Helder.

OU'DEWATER, i. e. OLD WATERS, a town of the Netherlands, in the province of South Holland, with a population of about 1660 persons. It is situated on the Little Issel, between Woerden and Schoonhoven, about three miles from each, and on the confines of the provinces of Holland and Utrecht. It obtained the privileges of a city in the year 1254 from Henry de Vianen bishop of Utrecht. In the year 1575 it was taken by assault, pillaged, and burned, by the Spaniards, under the command of Gilles de Barlamont lord of Hierges, after they had been obliged to raise the siege of Leyden. Among the people who were murdered by the Spaniards, were the mother, sisters, and brothers, of the celebrated James Arminius, who was born here in the year 1560. It is twenty miles south of Amsterdam, and ten south-west of Utrecht.

OU'DGAH, a town of Bengal: fifty-four miles south-east of Doesa.

UDGASTEL, a town of the Netherlands: twelve miles west of Breda.

UDIGHIR', a town of Hindoostan, in the country of Dowlatabad: five miles north-west of Beder, and 110 north-west of Hydrabad.

OU'DIN (Casimir), a learned French monk, but who afterwards embraced the Protestant religion, was born at Mezieres on the Meuse, in the year 1638. He discovered an early inclination for learning; and, having gone through his course of rhetoric, at the age of eighteen he entered among the monks of the Premontré order, at the abbey of St. Paul at Verdun. Here he applied to the study of philosophy and divinity, and afterwards directed his particular attention to ecclesiastical history. From this time we find no mention of him before the year 1675, when he had entered into holy orders, and was appointed incumbent of Epinay in the diocese of Rouen. In 1677 he resigned this benefice, and in the following year was placed by his superiors in the abbey of Bucilly in Champagne. He was here in the year 1680, when Louis XIV. in the course of one of his journeys, stopped to take his dinner at the abbey. On this occasion Oudin, in the absence of the abbot and prior, was directed to compliment the king, and do the honours of the house; when he surprised his majesty with the proofs which he afforded of his abilities and address. A discovery being thus accidentally made of Oudin's talents and the bent of his genius, his general sent him, in the same or during the following year, on a visit to all the abbeys and churches belonging to his order, for the purpose of selecting from their archives such documents as might assist him in his enquiries into ecclesiastical history. He first visited all the monasteries in the Netherlands, whence he brought back with him a rich supply of materials; and in 1682 he made the same researches in the religious houses of Lorraine, Burgundy, and Alsace. In 1683 he was sent to Paris; where he formed connections with several eminent characters in the republic of letters; and in 1688 he published a work, by which he acquired great credit, entitled "*Supplementum de Scriptoribus vel Scriptis ecclesiasticis a Bellarmino omisiss, ad annum 1460, vel ad artem typographicam inventum*," 8vo. A revolution afterwards taking place in his religious sentiments, in the year 1690 he withdrew from France and went to Leyden, where he renounced the popish creed, and made a public profession of the Protestant religion. Soon after this he was ap-

pointed sub-librarian of the university of Leyden, and retained that post till his death in 1717, when in the seventy-ninth year of his age. He was the author of, 2. *Acta Beati Lucæ Abbatis Cuiusiacensis*, 4to. 3. *Veterum aliquot Galliarum et Belgii Scriptorum Opuscula sacra nunquam edita*, 1692, 8vo. 4. *Epistola de Ratione Studiorum suorum*, 1692, 4to. 5. *Trias Dissertationum criticarum: Prima de Codice manuscripto Alexandrino Bodleianæ Bibliothecæ; Secunda de Quæstionibus ad Antiochum Principem in Scripturam Sacram: Tertia de Collectaneo seu Collectione Antiquitatum Constantinopolitarum Anselmi Bandurii*, 1717, 8vo. 6. *The Premontré Monk unfrocked*. His principal work, however, was published from his papers after his death, and is entitled, 7. *Commentarius de Scriptoribus Ecclesiæ Antiquis, illorumque Scriptis; adhuc extantibus in celebrioribus Europæ Bibliothecis, a Bellarmino, Possævino. Phil. Labbeo, Guil. Caveo, El. du Pin, &c. 1722*, in three volumes, folio. *Saxii Onomast. Lit. pars v.*

OU'DIN (Francis), a learned French Jesuit, was born at Vignory in Champagne, in the year 1673. He was sent when very young to commence his studies at Langres; and made so rapid a progress, that his uncle, John Oudin, a worthy and learned canon of the cathedral in that city, was determined himself to undertake his tuition. Under his instructions, Francis Oudin, who possessed an excellent memory and a lively genius, soon made a considerable progress in the sciences and the belles-lettres. As soon as he had gone through his course of philosophy, he determined on embracing the ecclesiastical profession; and commenced his noviciate among the Jesuits at Nancy in 1691. In 1707 he took the four vows, and was afterwards admitted to holy orders. Having fixed his residence at Dijon, in pursuance of the will of his uncle, who had on that condition left him an annuity, he filled the rhetorical chair in the college of that city for fifteen years successively, and then the chair of positive theology for fifteen years more, with very high reputation. He died at Dijon in 1752, at the age of seventy-nine. Father Oudin had diligently studied the sacred scriptures, the councils, and the fathers. He was intimately acquainted with the Latin, Greek, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and English, languages; and was profoundly skilled in the knowledge of sacred and profane antiquities, and the science of medals. He was also distinguished by his taste in polite literature, and had a wonderful facility in composing Latin verses. Many of his poems, Odes, Elegies, Hymns, &c. are enumerated by Moreri, and the greater part of them were inserted in a collection, entitled "*Pœmata didascalica*," in three volumes, 12mo. His various prose productions were also very numerous, consisting of Orations, Dissertations, Eulogies, Lives of different writers, inserted in Father Nicéron's *Memoires*, and other pieces, which are pointed out by Moreri, as well as the collections in which they may be found. He published a Latin Commentary on St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans, 1743, 12mo. and he wrote Commentaries on the Psalms, the Gospel of St. Matthew, and almost all the Epistles of St. Paul, which are still in manuscript. It was his intention to have written Commentaries on all the books of Scripture; but from this design he was diverted by the direction of his superiors, who employed him on a continuation of the "*Bibliotheca Scriptorum Societatis Jesu*," which was begun by father Ribadeneira, and brought down to the year 1573 by fathers Alegambe and Sotwell or Southwell. On this work many of his last years were spent; and he had prepared for the press the first four letters, and written more than seven hundred articles for the remainder of the work, before his death. His additions are said to be admirably executed; but, owing to the extinction of the society, and the declining interest of the public in what relates to their literary history, it is not probable that they will ever be given to the world. *Gen. Biog.*

OU DIPOU'R, MEYWAR', or MIDWAR, a province of Hindoostan, belonging to the Rajpoots, about 100 miles square, situated on the east of the river Puddah. In former times, it is probable that the whole Rajpootana constituted one kingdom or empire under the rajah or prince of Oudipour, who has always been considered as the head of the Rajpoot states. Oudipour is very mountainous, with a sandy soil in the valleys. Its revenue in the year 1779 was estimated at ten lacks of rupees per annum.

OU DIPOU'R, a city of Hindoostan, and capital of a circar to which it gives name, in the country of Agimere: 120 miles south-south-west of Agimere, and 260 south-west of Agra. Lat. 24. 42. N. lon. 74. 42. E.

OU DO'BO, a country of Africa, subject to Benin.

OU'DON, a river of France, which runs into the Orne at Caen.

OU'DON, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Loire: four miles west of Ancenis, and fifteen north-east of Nantes.

OU'DSONG-PANDANG', JOU'DANDAN, or ROT'TERDAM, a fortress of Celebes, near Macassar.

OU'E, a mountain of Persia, in Chorasán: eight miles east of Kain.

OU'E-KIUM', a city of China, of the first rank, in Ho-nan, on the Ki river: 297 miles south-south-west of Pekin.

OU'E-TCHUEN', a town of China, of the third rank, in Ho-nan: eighteen miles north-east of Hiu-tcheou.

OU'EI, or YU, a city of China, of the second rank, in Chan-fi: 150 miles south-west of Tai-yuen.

OU'EI-LING', or YU-TING, a city of China, of the second rank, in Quang-fi: 117 miles south-south-west of Pekin.

OU'EI-LO', a town of Thibet: 295 miles south-west of Hami.

OU'EI-NING', a city of China, of the first rank, in Koei-tcheou. Lat. 26. 45. N. lon. 103. 50. E.

OU'EI-YU'EN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Se-tchuen: forty-two miles east-north-east of Kai.

OU'EI-YU'EN, a town of Thibet: 275 miles east-south-east of Hami.

OU'EI-YU'EN HO'TUN, a town of Corea: 450 miles east-north-east of Pekin.

OVELGUNN', a town of the duchy of Holstein: nine miles east-south-east of Eutyn.

OVELGUN'NE, or OVELGOENNE, a town of Germany, and chief place of a small free territory, which in the year 1653 was annexed to the comté of Oldenburg: sixteen miles north-east of Oldenburg.

OVELGUN'NE, a town of the duchy of Holstein: three miles south-east of Gluckstadt.

OV'ELTY, *f.* (a law term.) A kind of equality of service in subordinate tenures.

OVEN, *f.* [*ausfn*, Goth. *ofn*, Icel. *open*, Sax. "*Aphah* (Heb.) signifieth to bake, and to seethe, and to dress meat: *oven* seemeth to be derived of this word." Leigh's Crit. Sacra. 1650. p. 15.] An arched cavity heated with fire to bake bread.—Bats have been found in *ovens* and other hollow close places, matted one upon another; and therefore it is likely that they sleep in the winter, and eat nothing. *Bacon*.—The *oven* at Raby Castle was of dimensions suited to the hospitality of the pile; higher than a tall person, for the tallest may stand upright in it, and I think its diameter must be fifteen feet. At present it is converted into a wine-cellar; the sides are divided into ten parts, and each holds a hoghead of wine in bottles. *Pennant*.

He loudly bray'd, that like was never heard,

And from his wide devouring *oven* sent

A flake of fire, that, flashing in his beard,

Him all amaz'd.

Spenser.

OVENS in general use are made with flues, which destroy a great quantity of fire in its passage through them,

and much trouble is required to keep them heated. The fire, which should be employed in roasting meat, is in a great measure dissipated in the flue of the common ovens, if used at the time of roasting; or the common oven does not acquire sufficient heat to answer the purpose, unless much coal is consumed. To avoid these inconveniences, Mr. Holmes, of Castle-court, Strand, London, invented, in the year 1800, an oven which was heated *without flues*, for which, as he did not take out a patent, he received a premium of fifteen guineas from the Society of Arts. The invention consists of a cast-iron oven, with a solid piece of iron projecting from its side into the fire, in which this piece constantly remains, and, becoming red-hot, communicates sufficient heat for baking to the whole oven. The oven keeps continually at a baking-heat, without expense or trouble, as the common fire is sufficient for the purpose. Mr. Holmes's account to the society was accompanied by letters from several gentlemen who have had his ovens fixed in their houses, all of whom speak favourably of them. In addition to which, a committee of the society, in order to ascertain fully how the oven answered, ordered two ovens, of similar forms and dimensions, to be fixed to the sides of a fire-grate, in the model-room of the society, one of which ovens only differed from the other by the piece of cast-iron projecting from its side into the fire; both ovens were heated by the same fire, and fixed in mortar and brick-work in a similar manner. Two loaves, of equal size and quality, being prepared from the same dough, one was put into each oven; and, after remaining therein three quarters of an hour, they were taken out at the same time, and examined. The loaf from Mr. Holmes's oven was in every respect well-baked, but the other was dough-baked and imperfect. An oven upon Mr. Holmes's construction has been since fitted-up in the society's kitchen, which appears to answer every purpose that could be expected from its size, which is thirteen inches and a half wide at the door or in front, and fifteen inches deep. A reference to the annexed Plate, will explain more fully the construction of the oven, and its principle of action. Fig. 1. a perspective view of the oven. Fig. 2. an horizontal section of the same. A, that side of the oven which is placed next the fire. B, the projecting piece of iron, which remains stationary in the fire, and communicates heat to the oven. C, the door of the oven.

In the year 1801, Mr. Power, of Bury St. Edmund's, Suffolk, whitesmith, took out a patent for a *portable oven*, upon an improved construction. As we think this is a useful invention, we shall give a particular description of its parts. Fig. 3. represents the oven detached, so constructed as to be set over a laundry-stove, or any other small stove. Fig. 4. represents the oven and hot-closet complete. Fig. 5. is the inside-view of fig. 4. A, the hot-closet, which is gradually heated to any degree by means of the large valve in the chimney G. F, is the *splitter*, so called because it divides equally the heat of the fire, and throws it up the flues *a, a*, and heats both the oven and hot-closet. In case the splitter should retain too great a heat for the oven B, *b* is a valve for the reception of air, which may be regulated at option. H is the small valve (shown separately at fig. 10.) made round, and fixed about two inches from the front of the oven, with holes in the sides, to secure it from the foot falling into the oven; the use of this valve is in case any nauseous scent may arise from baking; for a current of air passes through the ventilator C, and carries the scent into an open chamber I. The large valve is about twelve inches from the extremity of the oven. K is the scraper, a piece of iron, carried over the hot-closet, which, when pulled out by the two handles *d, d*, scrapes the foot which adheres to the top, and carries it down the flues into an open chamber, L, L, and is swept out of the doors, E, E, by a brush. C, the furnace, which is about eight inches square at bottom, and regularly passed up the sides, front,

and

and back. *e, e, e, e*, are baking-tins. *D*, the cinder-hole. Fig. 6. is a baker's oven, similar in construction to the former one; but with these exceptions: it is four feet long, two deep, and two and a half high, with three ovens, two of which are regulated by ventilators at bottom. *L, L*, is an open chamber, to prevent too great or sudden heat from the splitter. Fig. 8. the ventilator, which is turned by the handle *f*, to enable *g* to admit or secure any quantity of air. Fig. 9. the large valve, which is placed in the chimney *G*, and acts as a damper, to graduate the heat to the hot-closet; it is made with sheet-iron, like the oven, the size of the oven-pipe, turned by a strong thick wire handle in its centre. Fig. 10. is on the same construction, except being closed at the top, with holes in the sides already specified, and rendered, when down, air-tight by two pieces of iron on each side, *i, i*. The splitter is formed of sheet-iron, as in fig. 7. The size of the oven may be varied as circumstances may require.

Admiral sir Isaac Coffin, bart. obtained a patent, in March 1810, for what he designates a *perpetual oven*. This oven is made of an oblong form, of sufficient length and breadth for the purpose intended, and may be formed of any material which will bear fire. A chamber in which the bread, &c. is baked, extends from end to end of the oven, and is open at both ends; that of the oven intended to bake sea-biscuit is twenty feet long, and four feet wide; it is ten inches high at the end farthest from the grate, where the fire is made, and decreases to six inches in height at the end next the grate; but the dimensions vary according to the nature of the article to be baked. This chamber is heated by flues, one of which passes above and the other beneath it, the fire-places of which are placed on each side of the same end of the oven, and are of such forms and dimensions as the heat wanted, and the fuel used, may require; and, beneath this chamber, a passage is made the whole length of the oven, open at both ends. Near each end of the oven is placed a roller of cast-iron, in a horizontal position, of about three feet in diameter, as long as the heated chamber is broad, and supported on its axis by frames of iron or wood. Over these rollers passes an endless web of wire-cloth, of iron or other metal, of somewhat open texture, and rather coarse and strong, of nearly the breadth of the heated chamber, which it traverses near its floor, and returns through the open passage beneath it; it is kept from rubbing on the floor of the heated chamber by iron friction-rollers of two or three inches in diameter, and from six to twelve inches apart, lying across the chamber, and having their axes on an iron frame. When this oven is used, it is first brought to a sufficient heat by means of the flues described, the biscuit or bread is then placed on the endless web or wire-cloth, at the farthest end from the fires; and, by turning the roller near the fire-place slowly, it passes on with the web into the heated chamber, and, by properly proportioning the slowness of the motion to the degree of heat, which experience will soon teach, the bread will come out, at the end where the fire-places are, sufficiently baked, and may be either taken off or suffered to fall off. Fresh biscuits or bread must be continually laid on the wire-cloth as it enters, so that a constant succession may be kept up. A very light door of sheet-iron, or other metal, may be hung at each end of the heated chamber from the top, so as to prevent the escape of much heat, and not to interfere with the entrance and exit of the wire-cloth and substances laid on it. The ceiling of the heated chamber rises gradually from the end next the fire to the opposite end, where the bread enters, for the purpose of facilitating the issue of the steam from the bread or biscuit at the end at which they enter. Cordwood is the best fuel to use upon the grates; but peat or coke, or any kind of fuel which yields little smoke, may also be used. Coals, which generate much soot, would too soon choke up the flues, and prevent the heat from penetrating into the chamber. In small ovens the endless

web may be dispensed with, and a wire-cloth stretched upon a light frame of iron, of the length of the oven, be used, which, with the bread, &c. placed upon it, is to be pushed in at the farthest end from the fire, and to be gradually advanced to the other end, at which it is as gradually withdrawn.

The patentee states, that, by this mode of baking, time, fuel, and labour, are saved, and the bread is better baked, as it experiences the lowest degree of heat when it first enters the oven, and regularly advances to a hotter situation, as it dries and is better able to endure it: the drying is also facilitated by the escape of the steam at the end of the chamber where the bread enters, instead of being confined, as in the common oven; and the bread or biscuit, lying on the open wire-cloth, has the heat admitted freely to all its parts: by this means it is dried sooner when it leaves the oven, and will keep longer. The baker has it also in his power to roll the biscuit, &c. out of the oven the instant he discovers it to be done enough: he may keep the heat of the oven regulated to a proper degree by means of thermometers, and a judicious management of the fires.

The principal objection to the above-described apparatus, would arise from the liability of the wire-cloth to be broken and destroyed, by the frequent bending which it must experience in passing round the rollers. But it is probable that this might be remedied, by putting the wire-web in narrow frames of iron, connected together side-ways by rings, and using polygonal prisms, in the place of the cylindrical rollers, with sides of a fit size each to receive one of the frames.

OUEN-CA'I, a city of China, of the second rank, in Koei-tcheou. Lat. 27. N. lon. 106. 20. E.

OUEN-TCHANG', a town of China, of the third rank, in the isle of Hai-nan: thirty-two miles south-east of Kiong-tcheou.

OUEN-TCHEOU', a city of China, of the first rank, in Tche-kian, on a river, with a good harbour, not far from the sea: 765 miles south-east of Peking. Lat. 28. 1. N. lon. 120. 29. E.

OUEN-TCHUEN', a town of Corea: eighty-five miles north-east of King-ki-tao.

OUEN-Y', a town of Corea: twenty miles south-south-west of Ou-tcheou.

OUEN-YEN', a town of Corea: thirty-three miles south-south-west of Ou-tcheou.

OV'ENDEN, a village in the west riding of Yorkshire, with about 4513 inhabitants: two miles north-west of Halifax.

OUENS-OUET', a town of Corea: forty miles west-north-west of Ou-tchuen.

OU'EPAS, a town of Mexico, on the coast of Costa Rica, south of Carthago.

O'VER hath a double signification in the names of places, according to the different situations of them. If the place be upon or near a river, it comes from the Saxon *oppe*, "a brink or bank;" but, if there is in the neighbourhood another of the same name, distinguished by the addition of "nether," then *over* is from the Gothic *ufar*, "above." *Gilson's Camden*.

O'VER, *prep.* [*ufar*, Goth.] Above; with respect to excellence or dignity.—It will afford field enough for a divine to enlarge on, by shewing the advantages which the Christian world has *over* the Heathen. *Swift*.

How happy some *o'er* other some can be!
Through Athens I am thought as fair as she. *Shakespeare*.

High, *over* all, was your great conduct shown:
You fought our safety, but forgot your own. *Dryden*.

Above, with regard to rule or authority. Opposed to *under*.—The church has *over* her bishops, able to silence the factious, no less by their preaching than by their authority. *South*.—Captain, yourself are the fittest to live and reign, not *over*, but next and immediately *under*, the people. *Dryden*.—Above in place. Opposed to *below*.

Thrice

Thrice happy is that humble pair,
Beneath the level of all care;
Over whose heads those arrows fly,
Of sad distrust and jealousy.

Waller.

Acrofs; from side to side: as, He leaped *over* the brook.
—Certain lakes and pits, such as that of *Avennes*, poison
birds which fly *over* them. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

The geese fly *o'er* the barn, the bees in arms
Drive headlong from their waxen cells in swarms. *Dryden.*

Through, diffusively.—All the world *over*, those that received not the commands of Christ and his doctrines of purity and perseverance, were signally destroyed. *Hammond*.—Upon.—Wife governours have as great a watch *over* fames as they have of the actions and designs. *Bacon.*

Angelic quires

Sung heavenly anthems of his victory
Over temptation and the tempter proud.

Milton.

It is in all senses written in poetry, by contraction, *o'er*.

O'VER, *adv.* Above the top.—Give, and it shall be given unto you; good measure, pressed down and shaken together, and running *over*, shall men give. *Luke vi. 38.*—More than a quantity assigned.—Even here, likewise, the laws of nature and reason be of necessary use; yet somewhat *over* and besides them is necessary, namely, human and positive law. *Hooker*.—When they had mete it, he that gathered much had nothing *over*, and he that gathered little had no lack. *Ex. xvi. 18.*—The eastern people determined their digit by the breadth of barley-corns, six making a digit, and twenty-four a hand's breadth; a small matter *over* or under. *Arbuthnot*.—From side to side.—The fan of the Indian king, made of the feathers of a peacock's tail, composed into a round form, bound altogether with a circular rim, above a foot *over*. *Grew*.—From one to another.—This golden cluster the herald delivereth to the Tirfan, who delivereth it *over* to that fon that he had chosen. *Bacon*.—From a country beyond the sea.—It hath a white berry; but is not brought *over* with the coral. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

They brought new customs and new vices *o'er*;
Taught us more arts than honest men require. *Philips.*

On the surface.—The first came out red all *over*, like an hairy garment. *Genesis*.—Past. This is rather the sense of an adjective.—Soliman pausing upon the matter, the heat of his fury being something *over*, suffered himself to be intreated. *Knolles*.—Meditate upon the effects of anger; and the best time to do this, is to look back upon anger when the fit is *over*. *Bacon*.

There youths and nymphs in consort gay
Shall hail the rising, close the parting, day;
With me, alas! with me those joys are *o'er*,
For me the vernal garlands bloom no more. *Pope.*

Throughout; completely.—Have you read *o'er* the letters I sent you? *Shakespeare*.—Let them argue *over* all the topics of divine goodness and human weakness, yet how trifling must be their plea! *South's Sermons*.—With repetition; another time.—When children forget, or do an action awkwardly, make them do it *over* and *over* again, till they are perfect. *Locke*.—If this miracle of Christ's rising from the dead, be not sufficient to convince a resolved libertine, neither would the rising of one now from the dead be sufficient for that purpose; since it would only be the doing that *over* again, which hath been done already. *Atterbury*.

Thou, O my Hector, art thyself alone,
My parents, brothers, and my lord, in one:
Oh! kill not all my kindred *o'er* again,
Nor tempt the dangers of the dusty plain;
But in this tower, for our defence, remain. *Dryden.*

He cramm'd his pockets with the precious store,
And every night review'd it *o'er* and *o'er*. *Harte.*

Extraordinary; in a great degree.—The word symbol should not seem to be *over* difficult. *Baker*.

OVER AND ABOVE. Besides; beyond what was first supposed or immediately intended.—Moses took the redemption-money of them that were *over and above*. *Numb. iii. 49.*—He gathered a great mass of treasure; and gained, *over and above*, the good will and esteem of all people wherever he came. *L'Estrange*.

OVER-AGAINST. Opposite; regarding in front.—In *Ticin* is a church with windows only from above. It reporteth the voice thirteen times, if you stand close by the end of the wall, *over-against* the door. *Bacon*.—I visit his picture, and place myself *over-against* it whole hours together. *Addison*.

TO GIVE OVER. To cease from:

These, when they praise, the world believes no more
Than when they promise to give scribbling *o'er*. *Pope.*

To attempt to help no longer; as, His physicians have given him *over*; His friends, who advised him, have given him *over*.

In composition it has a great variety of significations: it is arbitrarily prefixed to nouns, adjectives, or other parts of speech, in a sense equivalent to more than enough; too much.

O'VER, *adj.* Upper:

For these my hands from this my face shall rip,
Even with this knife, my nose and *over* lip. *Mir. for Mag.*

TO O'VER, *v. a.* To get over; to get through: an elliptical expression in the North: as, "I am afraid he'll not *over* it;" i. e. will not recover from his illness. *Pegge*.

O'VER, a village in Gloucestershire, south-west of Chipping-Sodbury, in the hundred of Langley and Swinehead. The manor-house is large, with a park, in which the traces of a large round camp are still visible.

TO OVER-ABOUND, *v. n.* To abound more than enough.—The learned, never *over-abounding* in transitory coin, should not be discontented. *Pope's Letters*.

Both imbibe

Fitting congenial juice, so rich the soil,
So much does fructuous moisture *o'er-abound*. *Philips.*

TO OVER-ACT, *v. a.* To act more than enough.—Princes' courts may *over-act* their reverence, and make themselves laughed at for their foolishness and extravagant relative worship. *Stillingfleet*.—Good men often blemish the reputation of their piety, by *over-acting* some things in religion; by an indiscreet zeal about things wherein religion is not concerned. *Tillotson*.—He *over-acted* his part; his passions, when once let loose, were too impetuous to be managed. *Atterbury*.

TO OVER-ACT, *v. n.* To act more than is requisite.—There, while they acted and *over-acted*, among other young scholars I was a spectator; they thought themselves gallant men, and I thought them fools; they made sport, and I laughed. *Milton's Apol. for Smeclymnus*.

You *over-act*, when you should under-do:
A little call yourself again, and think. *B. Jonson.*

TO OVER-AGITATE, *v. a.* To discuss or controvert too much.—What is fit to be determined in a business so *over-agitated*, I shall shut up in these propositions. *Bp. Hall's Cases of Consc.*

OVER-ANXIOUS, *adj.* Over-careful; too anxious.

OVER-ANXIOUSLY, *adv.* With too great anxiety.

TO OVER-ARCH, *v. a.* To cover as with an arch:

Where high Ithaca *o'erlooks* the floods,
Brown with *o'er-arching* shades and pendant woods. *Pope.*

TO OVER-AWE, *v. a.* To keep in awe by superior influence.—The king was present in person to overlook the magistrates, and to *over-awe* these subjects with the terror of his sword. *Spenfer on Ireland*.

T

Her

Her graceful innocence, her every air
Of gesture, or least action, *over-aw'd*
His malice.

Milton's *P. L.*

To OVER-BAL'ANCE, *v. a.* To weigh down; to preponderate.—The hundred thousand pounds per annum, wherein we *over-balance* them in trade, must be paid us in money. *Locke*.—When these important considerations are set before a rational being, acknowledging the truth of every article, should a bare fingle possibility be of weight enough to *over-balance* them? *Rogers*.

OVER-BAL'ANCE, *f.* Something more than equivalent.—Our exported commodities would, by the return, encrease the treasure of this kingdom above what it can ever be by other means than a mighty *over-balance* of our exports to imported commodities. *Temple*.

OVER-BAL'ANCING, *f.* An over-balance; that which has a power to out-weigh. *King Charles*.

OVER-BAT'TLE, *adj.* [Of this word I know not the derivation; *batten* is to grow fat, and to *battle* is at Oxford to feed on trust. *Johnson*.—It may be from the Sax. *batan*, to bait. But Mr. Stephens says, that *bat* is an ancient English word for *increase*. Perhaps it is from the Goth. *ga-batan*, to advantage. *Todd*.] Too fruitful; exuberant.—In the church of God sometimes it cometh to pass, as in *over-battle* grounds; the fertile disposition whereof is good, yet, because it exceedeth due proportion, it bringeth abundantly, through too much rankness, things less profitable, whereby that which principally it should yield, either prevented in place or defrauded of nourishment, faileth. *Hooker*.

To OVER-BEAR, *v. a.* To repress; to subdue; to overwhelm; to bear down.—What more savage than man, if he see himself able by fraud to over-reach, or by power to *over-bear*, the laws? *Hooker*.—Take care that the memory of the learner be not too much crowded with a tumultuous heap or *over-bearing* multitude of documents at one time. *Watts*.—The horror or loathsomeness of an object may *over-bear* the pleasure which results from its greatness, novelty, or beauty. *Addison*.

The ocean, over-peering of his list,
Eats not the flats with more impetuous haste
Than young Laertes, in a riotous head,
O'er-bears your officers.

Shakespeare.

To OVER-BEN'D, *v. a.* To stretch too intensely.—Consumptions, upon intemperances and licentiousness; madness, upon misplacing or *over-bending* our natural faculties; proceed from ourselves. *Donne's Devot.*

To OVER-BID, *v. a.* To offer more than equivalent: You have *o'er-bid* all my past sufferings,
And all my future too.

Dryden's *Spanish Friar*.

To OVER-BLO'W, *v. n.* To be past its violence.—All those tempests being *over-blown*, there long after arose a new storm, which over-run all Spain. *Spenser*.

Led with delight, they thus beguile the way,
Until the blustering storm is *over-blown*.

Spenser.

This agree-fit of fear is *over-blown*;
An easy task it is to win our own.

Seiz'd with secret joy

When storms are *over-blown*.

Dryden's *Virgil*.

To OVER-BLO'W, *v. a.* To drive away as clouds before the wind:

Some angel, that beholds her there,
Instruct us to record what she was here;
And, when this cloud of sorrow's *over-blown*,
Through the wide world we'll make her graces known.

Waller.

OVER-BOARD, *adv.* Off the ship; out of the ship.—The great assembly met again; and now, he that was the cause of the tempest being thrown *over-board*, there were hopes a calm should ensue. *Howell*.—A merchant having a vessel richly fraught at sea in a storm, there is but one

certain way to save it, which is, by throwing its rich lading *over-board*. *South*.

The trembling dotard to the deck he drew,
And hoisted up, and *over-board* he threw;
This done, he seiz'd the helm.

Dryden.

To OVER-BOIL, *v. a.* To boil too much.

OVER-BO'LD, *adj.* Too bold; impudent.

OVER-BO'LDLY, *adv.* With too much boldness, with impudence.—St. Hierom reporteth, that he saw a satyr; but the truth hereof I will not rashly impugn, or *over-boldly* affirm. *Peacham*.

To OVER-BROW, *v. a.* To hang over.—Strange shades *o'er-brow* the vallies deep. *Collins*.

OVER-BUILT, *part. adj.* Built over:

On either side,

Disparted Chaos, *over-built*, exclaim'd.

Milton.

To OVER-BUL'K, *v. a.* To oppress by bulk:

The feeding pride,
In rank Achilles, must or now be crop'd,
Or, shedding, breed a nursery of like evils,
To *over-bulk* us all.

Shakespeare's *Troil. and Cress.*

To OVER-BUR'DEN, *v. a.* To load with too great weight.—If she were not cloyed with his company, and that she thought not the earth *over-burthened* with him, she would cool his fiery grief. *Sidney*.

To OVER-BURN, *v. a.* To burn too much.—Take care you *over-burn* not the turf; it is only to be burnt so as may make it break. *Mortimer*.

OVER-BUS'Y, *adj.* Too busy; officious.—These *over-busy* spirits, whose labour is their only reward, hunt a shadow and chase the wind. *Decay of Chr. Piety*.

To OVER-BUY, *v. a.* To buy too dear.—He *over-bought* it upon the false pretence of an appendant commodity. *Bp. Hall's Cases of Conscience*.

He, when want requires, is only wise,
Who flights not foreign aids, nor *over-buys*;
But on our native strength, in time of need, relies.

Dryden.

To OVER-CAN'OPY, *v. a.* To cover as with a canopy.—Quite *over-canopied* with luscious woodbine. *Shakespeare's Midf. N. Dream*.

Where'er the rude and moss-grown beech
O'er-canopies the glade.

Gray.

OVER-CA'RE, *f.* Solitude; too great care:

Poets, like lovers, should be bold, and dare;
They spoil their business with an *over-care*:
And he, who servilely creeps after sense,
Is safe, but ne'er will reach an excellence.

Dryden.

OVER-CA'REFUL, *adj.* Too careful.

To OVER-CAR'RY, *v. a.* To hurry too far; to be urged to any thing violent or dangerous.—He was the king's uncle, but yet of no capacity to succeed; by reason whereof his natural affection and duty was less easy to be *over-carried* by ambition. *Hayward*.

To OVER-CAST, *v. a.* To cloud; to darken; to cover with gloom.—Our days of age are sad and *over-cast*, in which we find that, of all our vain passions and affections past, the sorrow only abideth. *Raleigh's Hist. of the World*.

The dawn is *over-cast*, the morning lours,
And heavily in clouds brings on the day.

Addison.

To cover. This sense is hardly retained but by needlewomen, who call that which is incircled with a thread *over-cast*.—When malice would work that which is evil, and, in working, avoid the suspicion of an evil intent, the colour wherewith it *over-casteth* itself is always a fair and plausible pretence of seeking to further that which is good. *Hooker*.

Their arms abroad with gray moss *over-cast*,
And their green leaves trembling with every blast.

Spenser.

To

To rate too high in computation.—The king in his account of peace and calms, did much *over-cast* his fortunes, which proved full of broken seas, tides, and tempests. *Bacon's Hen. VII.*

OVER-CAST'ING, *f.* A kind of needle-work. *Ash.*

To OVER-CATCH', *v. a.* [perhaps only in Spenser.] To overtake :

She sent an arrow forth with mightie draught,
That in the very dore him *over-caught*. *Fairy Queen.*

OVER-CAUTIOUS, *adj.* Too cautious.

To OVER-CHAR'GE, *v. a.* To oppress; to cloy; to surcharge.—On air we feed in every instant, and on meats but at times; and yet the heavy load of abundance, wherewith we oppress and *over-charge* nature, maketh her to sink unawares in the mid-way. *Raleigh's Hist. of the World.*—A man may as well expect to grow stronger by always eating, as wiser by always reading. Too much *over-charges* nature, and turns more into disease than nourishment. *Collier.*—To load; to crowd too much.—Our language is *over-charged* with consonants. *Pope.*—To burthen :

He whispers to his pillow
The secrets of his *over-charged* soul. *Shakespeare.*

To rate too high :

Here's Glo'ster, a foe to citizens,
O'er-charging your free purses with large fines. *Shakespeare.*

To fill too full.—The fumes of passion do as really intoxicate and confound the judging and discerning faculty, as the fumes of drink discompose and stupify the brain of a man *over-charged* with it. *South.*—The action of the Iliad and Æneid, in themselves exceeding short, are so beautifully extended by the invention of episodes, that they make up an agreeable story sufficient to employ the memory without *over-charging* it. *Addison's Spectator.*—To load with too great a charge.—As cannons *over-charge'd* with double cracks. *Shakespeare.*

Who in deep mines for hidden knowledge toils,
Like guns *o'er-charge'd*, breaks, misses, or recoils. *Denham.*

OVER-CHARGE, *f.* An excess in the account.

To OVER-CLIMB, *v. a.* To climb over.—The fatal gin thus *over-clambe* our walls. *Ld. Surrey's Tr. of Virg. Æn. 4.*

The childhood of the cheerful morn
Is almost grown a youth, and *over-climbs*
Yonder gilt eastern hills. *Brewer's Com. of Lingua.*

To OVER-CLOU'D, *v. a.* To cover with clouds.—The labour of wicked men is to turn blessing itself into a curse, to *over-cloud* joy with sorrow at least, if not desolation. *Abp. Laud's Sermons.*

The silver empress of the night,
O'er-clouded, glimmers in a fainter light. *Tickell.*

To OVER-CLOY', *v. a.* To fill beyond satiety :

A scum of Britons and base lackey peasants,
Whom their *o'er-cloyed* country vomits forth
To desperate adventures and destruction. *Shakespeare.*

OVER-CO'LD, *adj.* Too cold; rather too cold.—A gangrene doth arise in phlegmons, through the unseasonable application of *over-cold* medicaments. *Wifeman.*

OVER-CONFIDENCE, *f.* Too great confidence; presumption.—He has afforded us only the twilight of probability, suitable to that state of mediocrity he has placed us in here; wherein to check our *over-confidence* and presumption, we might, by every day's experience, be made sensible of our short-sightedness. *Locke.*

OVER-CONFIDENT, *adj.* Too confident; presumptuous.

OVER-CONFIDENTLY, *adv.* With too great confidence; presumptuously.

To OVER-COVER, *v. a.* To cover completely :

Shut me nightly in a charnel-house,
O'er-cover'd quite with dead men's rattling bones,
With reeky shanks and yellow chapless skulls. *Shakespeare.*

To OVER-COUNT, *v. a.* To rate above the true value :

Thou know'st how much
We do *o'er-count* thee. *Shakespeare's Ant. and Cleop.*

OVER-CRED'ULOUS, *adj.* Too credulous; too apt to believe :

Devilish Macbeth

By many of these trains hath fought to win me
Into his power: and modest wisdom plucks me
From *over-credulous* haste. *Shakespeare.*

To OVER-CROW, *v. a.* To crow as in triumph. Spenser has also written *over-craw*, for the sake of the rhyme.—A base varlet, that being but of late grown out of the dunghill, beginneth now to *over-crow* so high mountains, and make himself the great protector of all outlaws. *Spenser.*

So spake this bold breure with great disdain:
Little him answer'd the oak again,
But yielded, with shame and grief adawed,
That of a weed he was *over-crawed*. *Spenser.*

OVER-DA'RING, *adj.* Too venturefome :

Over-daring Talbot

Hath sullied all his glofs of former honour
By this unheedful desperate wild adventure. *Shakespeare.*

To OVER-DA'TE, *v. a.* To reckon or date beyond the proper period.—Had he redeemed his *over-dated* minority from a pupilage under bishops, he would much less have mistrusted his parliament. *Milton's Eiconoclast.*

OVER-DIGESTION, *f.* The state of having the digestive faculties too powerful. *Floyer.*

OVER-DI'GHT, *part. adj.* Covered over :

Day discover'd heaven's face
To finfull men with darkness *over-dight*. *Fairy Queen.*

OVER-DIL'IGENT, *adj.* Rather too diligent.

OVER-DIL'IGENTLY, *adv.* With too great diligence.—This part of grammar has been much neglected, as some others *over-diligently* cultivated. It is easy for men to write, one after another, of cases and genders. *Locke.*

To OVER-DO', *v. a.* To do more than enough.—Any thing so *over-done* is from the purpose of playing; whose end is to hold the mirror up to nature. *Shakespeare.*—When the meat is *over-done*, lay the fault upon your lady who hurried you. *Swift.*

To OVER-DO', *v. n.* To do too much.—Nature much oftener *over-does* than under-does: you shall find twenty eggs with two yolks for one that has none. *Grew.*

To OVER-DO'SE, *v. a.* To load with too large a dose.

OVER-DO'SE, *f.* A dose larger than it ought to be.—A grown person, surfeiting with honey, no sooner hears the name of it, but his fancy immediately carries sickness and qualms to his stomach: had this happened to him by an *over-dose* of honey when a child, all the same effects would have followed, but the cause would have been mistaken, and the antipathy counted natural. *Locke.*

To OVER-DRESS', *v. a.* To adorn lavishly :

In all, let nature never be forgot;
But treat the goddess like a modest fair,
Nor *over-dress*, nor leave her wholly bare. *Pope.*

To OVER-DRINK', *v. n.* [This was also a Saxon compound, *ofer-drincan*.] To drink too much; to become drunk.

To OVER-DRIVE, *v. a.* To drive too hard, or beyond strength.—The flocks and herds with young, if men should *over-drive* one day, all will die. *Gen. xxxiii. 13.*

To OVER-DRY', *v. a.* To dry too much.—Meats condite, powdered, and *over-dried*. *Burton's Anat. of Mel.*

OVER-DU'E, *adj.* Past the time of being due.

OVER-

OVER-E'AGER, *adj.* Too vehement in desire.—I have seen sad examples of extravagance in the more modest and private, but *over-eager*, pursuits of these recreations, [games of chance.] *Goodman's Wint. Ev. Conf.*

OVER-E'AGERLY, *adv.* With too much haste or vehemence.—Pursuing them *over-eagerly* into York. *Milton's Hist. of Eng.*

To OVER-E'AT, *v. n.* To eat too much.

To OVER-E'AT, *v. a.* To disorder by eating too much; as, He *over-eats* himself.

To OVER-EY'E, *v. a.* To superintend:

My love hath lasted from mine infancy,
And still increased as I grew myself:
When did Perseda passime in the streets,
But her Eraustus *over-ey'd* her sports?
When didst thou, with thy sampler, in the sun,
Sit sewing with thy feres, but I was by,
Marking thy lily hand's dexterity?

Trag. of Soliman and Perseda, 1599.

To observe; to remark:

I am doubtful of your modesties,
Left *over-eying* of his odd behaviour,
You break into some merry passion.

Shakespeare.

To OVER-EM'PTY, *v. a.* To make too empty.—The women would be loth to come behind the fashion in new-fangledness of the manner, if not in costliness of the matter, which might *over-empty* their husband's purses. *Carew.*

OVER-FALL, *f.* A fall of water; a cataract.—To status addeth, that those which dwell near those falls of water are deaf from their infancy, like those that dwell near the *over-falls* of Nilus. *Raleigh's Hist. of the World.*—Part of the side of a canal, or reservoir, over which the water runs away, or escapes, when it is too high. The upper gates or sluices of opening weirs are also called *over-falls*.

To OVER-FATI'GUE, *v. a.* To fatigue too much; to weary too much.—Don't *over-fatigue* the spirits, lest the mind be seized with a lassitude, and thereby nauseate and grow tir'd of a particular subject. *Watts.*

To OVER-FEE'D, *v. a.* To feed more than enough:

Wretched man *o'er-feeds*

His cramm'd desires with more than nature needs. *Dryden.*

OVER-FERMENTA'TION, *f.* A fermentation executed to too great a degree.—If the ferment of the breast be vigorous, an *over-fermentation* in the part produceth a phlegmon. *Wifeman.*

To OVER-FILL', *v. a.* To fill more than enough:

Bending o'er the cup, the tears she shed
Seem'd by the posture to discharge her head,
O'er-fill'd before.

Dryden.

To OVER-FLO'AT, *v. a.* To cover as with water:

The town is fill'd with slaughter, and *o'er-floats*,
With a red deluge, their increasing moats. *Dryden.*

To OVER-FLOUR'ISH, *v. a.* To flourish more than enough; to set off with too great advantage.—As they are likely to *over-flourish* their own case, their flattery is hardest to be discovered; for who would imagine himself guilty of putting tricks upon himself. *Collier.*

To OVER-FLY', *v. a.* To cross by flight:

A falling kite

Can scarce *o'er-fly* them in a day and night. *Dryden.*

OVER-FON'D, *adj.* Too fond.

OVER-FONDNESS, *f.* Too great fondness.—It is an ill way of establishing this truth, and silencing atheists, to take some men's having that idea of God in their minds, for the only proof of a deity; and, out of an *over-fondness* of that darling invention, cashier all other arguments. *Locke.*

OVER-FOR'WARD, *adj.* Too forward; officious.

OVER-FOR'WARDNESS, *f.* Too great quickness;

too great readiness.—By an *over-forwardness* in courts to give countenance to frivolous exceptions, though they make nothing to the true merit of the cause, it often happens that causes are not determined according to their merits. *Hale.*

OVER-FRE'E, *adj.* Too free; too generous; too familiar.

To OVER-FREI'GHT, *v. a.* pret. *over-freighted*, part. *over-fraught*.] To load too heavily; to fill with too great quantity.—A boat *over-freighted* with people, in rowing down the river, was, by the extreme weather, sunk. *Carew.*

Grief, that does not speak,
Whispers the *o'er-fraught* heart, and bids it break.

Shakespeare.

OVER-FRU'ITFUL, *adj.* Too rich; too luxuriant.—Rhyme bounds and circumscribes an *over-fruitful* fancy. *Dryden's Ess. on Dram. Poesy.*

To OVER-GET', *v. a.* To reach; to come up with.—With six hours' hard riding, through so wild places, as it was rather the cunning of my horse sometimes, than of myself, so rightly to hit the way, I *over-got* them a little before night. *Sidney.*

To OVER-GIL'D, *v. a.* To gild over; to varnish:

Gold doth men's thoughts to high attempts prepare,
And *over-gilds* the danger of the warre. *Mir. for Mag.*

To OVER-GIR'D, *v. a.* To bind too closely.—When the gentle west winds shall open the fruitful bosom of the earth, thus *over-girded* by your imprisonment, then the flowers put forth and spring; and then the sun shall scatter the mists, and the manuring hand of the tiller shall root-up all that burdens the soil, without thank to your bondage. *Milton's Reas. of Ch. Gov.*

To OVER-GLAN'CE, *v. a.* To look hastily over:

I have but with a cursory eye
O'er-glanc'd the articles. *Shakespeare's Hen. V.*

To OVER-GO', *v. a.* To surpass; to excel.—Thinking it beyond the degree of humanity to have a wit so far *over-going* his age, and such dreadful terror proceed from so excellent beauty. *Sidney.*

Great nature hath laid down at last
That mighty birth wherewith so long she went,
And *over-went* the times of ages past,
Here to lie-in upon our soft content.

Daniel.

To cover:

All which, my thoughts say, they shall never do,
But rather, that the earth shall *over-go*
Some one at least.

Chapman.

OVER-GO'NE, *part. adj.* Injured; ruined.—Sad-hearted men, much *over-gone* with care. *Shakespeare's Hen. VI. Part III.*

To OVER-GOR'GE, *v. a.* To gorge too much:

Art thou grown great,
And, like ambitious Sylla, *over-gorg'd*? *Shakespeare.*

OVER-GRASSED, *adj.* Having too much grafs; overgrown with grafs:

They bene like foule wagmoires *over-graft*,
That, if thy galage, once stickest fast,
The more to wind it out thou dost swink,
Thou mought aye deeper and deeper sink.

Spenser.

OVER-GREA'T, *adj.* Too great.—Though putting the mind unprepared upon an unusual stress ought to be avoided; yet this must not run it, by an *over-great* shyness of difficulties, into a lazy sauntering about obvious things. *Locke.*

OVER-GREE'DY, *adj.* Too greedy; too close.—The memory of the learner should not be too much crowded with a tumultuous heap of ideas; one idea effaces another; *over-greedy* grasp does not retain the largest handful. *Watts.*

To

To OVER-GROW, *v. a.* To cover with growth.—With wild thyme and the gadding vine *o'er-grown*. *Milton's Lycidas.*

Roof, and floor, and walls, were all of gold,
But *over-grown* with dust and old decay,
And hid in darkness, that none could behold
The hue thereof.

Spenser.

To rise above.—If the binds be very strong, and much *over-grown* the poles, some advise to strike off their heads with a long switch. *Mortimer.*

To OVER-GROW, *v. n.* To grow beyond the fit or natural size.—A huge *over-grown* ox was grazing in a meadow. *L'Estrange.*

Him for a happy man I own,
Whose fortune is not *over-grown*.

Swift.

OVER-GROWTH, *f.* Exuberant growth.—The fortune in being the first in an inventory, doth cause sometimes a wonderful *over-growth* in riches. *Bacon.*

The *over-growth* of some complexion,
Oft breaking down the pales and forts of reason. *Shakespeare.*

To OVER-HA'LE, *v. a.* To spread over:

The welked Phœbus gan avail
His weary wain; and now the frosty night
Her mantle black through heaven gan *over-haile*. *Spenser.*

To OVER-HAND'LE, *v. a.* To mention too often:

You will fall again
Into your idle *over-handled* theme. *Shakespeare.*

To OVER-HANG', *v. a.* To jut over; to impend over.—If you drink tea upon a promontory that *over-hangs* the sea, it is preferable to an assembly. *Pope.*

Hide me, ye forests, in your closest howers!
Where flows the murmuring brook, inviting dreams,
Where bordering hazel *over-hangs* the streams. *Gay.*

To OVER-HANG', *v. n.* To jut over:

The rest was craggy cliff, that *over-hung*
Still as it rose, impossible to climb. *Milton's P. L.*

OVER-HARD', *adj.* Rather too hard; harder than it ought to be.

To OVER-HAR'DEN, *v. a.* To make too hard.—By laying it in the air, it has acquired such a hardness, that it was brittle, like *over-hardened* steel. *Boyle.*

OVER-HA'STILY, *adv.* In too great a hurry.—Excepting myself and two or three more, that mean not *over-hastily* to marry. *Hale's Lett. to Sir D. Carleton, 1618.*

OVER-HASTINESS, *f.* Precipitation; too much haste.—His reply was, that it was well if the duke's *over-hastiness* did not turn to his disadvantage. *Reresby's Mem.*

OVER-HA'STY, *adj.* Too quick; in too great haste.—Not *over-hasty* to cleanse or purify. *Hammond's Works.*

To OVER-HAUL, *v. a.* [A sea-term.] To unfold or loosen an assemblage of tackle.—To examine over again.—I have this day received your plain letter. In it you have *over-hauled* the whole affair, which is already before the public with all its circumstances. *Lowth's Lett. to Warburton.*

OVER-HEAD', *adv.* Aloft; in the zenith; above; in the ceiling.—The four stars *over-head* represent the four children. *Addison.*

Over-head the moon
Sits arbitress, and nearer to the earth
Wheels her pale course.

Milton's P. L.

To OVER-HE'AR, *v. a.* To hear those who do not mean to be heard.—The witness, *over-hearing* the word pillory repeated, slunk away privately. *Addison.*

That such an enemy we have, who seeks
Our ruin, both, by thee inform'd, I learn,
And from the parting angel *over-heard*. *Milton's P. L.*

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To OVER-HE'AT, *v. a.* To heat too much.—It must be done upon the receipt of the wound, before the patient's spirits be *over-heated* with pain or fever. *Wise man.*

Pleas'd with the form and coolness of the place,
And *over-heated* by the morning chace. *Addison.*

To OVER-HE'LE, *v. a.* To cover over:

Thy rude voice, that doth so hoarsely blow;
Thy hair, thy beard, thy wings, *o'er-hel'd* with snow.
B. Jonson's Masques at Court.

To OVER-HEN'D, *v. a.* To overtake; to reach:

Als his fair leman, flying through a brook,
He *over-hent*, nought moved with her piteous look. *Spenser.*

To OVER-JOY', *v. a.* To transport; to ravish.—He that puts his confidence in God only, is neither *over-joyed* in any great good things of this life, nor sorrowful for a little thing. *Bp. Taylor's Guide to Devotion.*

This love-sick virgin, *over-joy'd* to find
The boy alone, still follow'd him behind. *Addison.*

OVER-JOY', *f.* Transport; ecstasy:

The mutual conference that my mind hath had,
Makes me the bolder to salute my king
With ruder terms; such as my wit affords,
And *over-joy* of heart doth minister. *Shakespeare.*

OVER-KEST', *pret.* [used by Spenser for over-cast.]—There a sad cloude of sleepe her *over-keft*. *Fairy Queen.*

To OVER-LA'BOUR, *v. a.* To take too much pains on any thing; to harass with toil:

She without noise will *over-see*
His children and his family;
And order all things till he come,
Sweaty and *over-labour'd*, home. *Dryden.*

To OVER-LA'DE, *v. a.* To over-burthen:

Thus to throng and *over-lade* a soul
With love, and then to have a room for fear,
That shall all that controul,
What is it but to rear
Our passions and our hopes on high,
That thence they may descry
The noblest way how to despair and die? *Suckling.*

OVER-LAN'DERBROECK, a town of the Netherlands, in the department of Utrecht: two miles north of Duerstede.

OVER-LAR'GE, *adj.* Larger than enough.—Our attainments cannot be *over-large*, and yet we manage a narrow fortune very unthriftilly. *Collier.*

To OVER-LASH', *v. n.* To exaggerate.—We are not accountable for every hyperbolical flash or flourish occurring in the Fathers; it being well known that they, in their encomiastic speeches, as orators are wont, following the heat and gaiety of fancy, do sometimes *over-lash*. *Barrow on the Pope's Supr.*

OVER-LASH'INGLY, *adv.* With exaggeration. A mean word, now obsolete.—Although I be far from their opinion who write *over-lashingly*, that the Arabian tongue is in use in two-third parts of the inhabited world, yet I find that it extendeth where the religion of Mahomet is professed. *Brerewood.*

To OVER-LAUNCH, *v. a.* in ship-building, to run the butt of one plank to a certain distance beyond the next butt above or beneath it, in order to make a stronger work. *Chambers.*

To OVER-LA'Y, *v. a.* To oppress by too much weight or power.—When any country is *over-laid* by the multitude which live upon it, there is a natural necessity compelling it to disburthen itself and lay the load upon others. *Raleigh.*

Some commons are barren, the nature is such;
And some *over-layeth* the commons too much. *Tusser.*

U

The

The strong Emetrius came in Arcite's aid,
And Palamon with odds was *over-laid*.

Dryden.

To smother with too much or too close covering.—The new-born babes by nurses *over-laid*. *Dryden*.—To smother; to crush; to overwhelm.—Season the passions of a child with devotion, which seldom dies; though it may seem extinguished for a while, it breaks out as soon as misfortunes have brought the man to himself. The fire may be covered and *over-laid*, but cannot be entirely quenched and smothered. *Addison's Spectator*.

The stars, no longer *over-laid* with weight,
Exert their heads from underneath the mafs,
And upward shoot.

Dryden.

To cloud; to over-cast:

Phœbus' golden face it did attain,
As when a cloud his beams doth *over-lay*.

Spenser.

To cover superficially:

By his prescript, a sanctuary is fram'd
Of cedar, *over-laid* with gold.

Milton's P. L.

To join by something laid over:

Thou us empower'd
To fortify thus far; and *over-lay*
With this portentous bridge the dark abyfs.

Milton.

OVER-LA'YING, *f.* A superficial covering.—The *over-laying* of their chapters [was] of silver, and all the pillars of the court were filleted with silver. *Exod. xxxviii. 17.*

To **OVER-LE'AP**, *v. a.* To pass by a jump:

A step,

On which I must fall down, or else o'er-leap,
For in my way it lies.

Shakespeare's Macbeth.

In vain did Nature's wife command
Divide the waters from the land;
If daring ships, and men profane,
The eternal fences *over-leap*,
And pass at will the boundless deep.

Dryden.

OVER-LEATHER, *f.* The part of the shoe that covers the foot.—I have sometimes more feet than shoes; or such shoes as my toes look through the *over-leather*. *Shakespeare*.

To **OVER-LEAVEN**, *v. a.* To swell out too much:

What then so swells each limb!

Only his clothes have *over-leaven'd* him.

B. Jonson.

To mix too much with; to corrupt:

Some habit, that too much o'er-leavens

The form of plausible manners.

Shakespeare's Hamlet.

OVER-LI'GHT, *adj.* Too light, either in weight or in splendour; as, an *over-light* guinea; an *over-light* room, or place.

OVER-LIGHT, *f.* Too strong light.—An *over-light* maketh the eyes dark, inasmuch as perpetual looking against the sun would cause blindness. *Bacon*.

To **OVER-LIVE**, *v. a.* To live longer than another; to survive; to out-live.—Mufidorus, who showed a mind not to *over-live* Pyrocles, prevailed. *Sidney*.

He concludes in hearty prayers,
That your attempts may *over-live* the hazard
And fearful meeting of their opposite.

Shakespeare.

To **OVER-LIVE**, *v. n.* To live too long:

Why do I *over-live*?

Why am I mock'd with death, and lengthen'd out
To deathless pain?

Milton's P. L.

OVER-LIVER, *f.* Survivor; that which lives longest.—A peace was concluded, to continue for both the king's lives, and the *over-liver* of them. *Bacon's Hen. VII.*

To **OVER-LO'AD**, *v. a.* To burthen with too much.—The memory of youth is charged and *over-loaded*, and all they learn is mere jargon. *Felton*.

Men *overloaded* with a large estate
May spill their treasure in a nice conceit;

The rich may be polite, but oh! 'tis sad,
To say you're curious, when we swear you're mad. *Young*.

OVER-LONG', *adj.* Too long.—I have transgressed the laws of oratory, in making my periods and parantheses *over-long*. *Boyle*.

To **OVER-LOV'E**, *v. a.* To prize or value too much.—I cannot so *over-love* this issue of my own brain, as to hold it worthy of your majesty's judicious eyes. *Bp. Hall's Dedication*.

OVER-LO'W, *adj.* Too low.

O'VER-MAN, *f.* in a coal-mine, the person who has the sole direction of the under-ground economy of a pit. He takes his instructions from the viewer, and every person else in the pit is subordinate to him.

O'VER-MAN, in Scotch Law, a person appointed by arbiters, or by the parties submitters, to determine the matter submitted, in case the arbiters disagree in their opinion.

OVER-MASTED, *adj.* Having the masts too high or too heavy for the weight of the hull to counterbalance:

Cloanthus, better mann'd, pursu'd him fast,
But his o'er-masted galley check'd his haste. *Dryden*.

To **OVER-MASTER**, *v. a.* To subdue; to govern.—They are *over-mastered* with a score of drunkards, the only soldiery left about them, or else comply with all the rapines and violences. *Milton on Education*.

So sleeps a pilot, whose poor bark is prest
With many a merciless o'er-mast'ring wave. *Crashaw*.

To **OVER-MATCH**, *v. a.* To be too powerful; to conquer; to oppress by superior force.—How great soever our curiosity be, our excess is greater, and does not only *over-match*, but supplant it. *Decay of Chr. Piety*.

I have seen a swan

With bootless labour swim against the tide,
And spend her strength with *over-matching* waves. *Shakespeare*.

It moves our wonder, that a foreign guest
Should *over-match* the most and match the best. *Dryden*.

OVER-MATCH, *f.* One of superior powers; one not to be overcome.—Spain is no *over-match* for England by that which leadeth all men; that is, experience and reason. *Bacon*.

Eve was Eve;

This far his *over-match*, who, self-deceiv'd
And rash, before-hand had no better weigh'd
The strength he was to cope with or his own.

Milton.

To **OVER-MEASURE**, *v. a.* To measure or estimate too largely.—An argument, fit for great and mighty princes to have in their hand; to the end, that neither by *over-measuring* their forces they leave themselves in vain enterprises; nor, on the other side, by undervaluing them, descend to fearful and pusillanimous counsels. *Bacon's Essay*.

OVER-MEASURE, *f.* Something given over the due measure.

To **OVER-MIX'**, *v. a.* To mix with too much:

Those things these parts o'er-rule, no joys shall know,
Or little pleasure *over-mix* with woe.

Creech.

OVER-MIC'KLE, *adj.* [Sax. *ofermicel*.] Overmuch: a common word in the north of England.

OVER-MODEST, *adj.* Too bashful; too reserved.—It is the courtier's rule, that *over-moderate* suitors seldom speed. *Hale's Rem.*

OVER-MUCH', *adj.* Too much; more than enough.—It was the custom of those former ages, in their *over-much* gratitude, to advance the first authors of any useful discovery among the number of their gods. *Wilkins*.—An *over-much* use of salt, besides that it occasions thirst and *over-much* drinking, has other ill effects. *Locke*.

OVER-MUCH, *adv.* In too great a degree.—The fault which we find in them is, that they *over-much* abridge the church of her power in these things. Whereupon they

they re-charge us, as if in these things we gave the church a liberty which hath no limits or bounds. *Hooker.*

I also err'd, in *over-much* admiring
What seem'd in thee so perfect, that I thought
No evil durst attempt thee. *Milton.*

OVER-MUCH, *f.* More than enough.—With respect to the blessings the world enjoys, even good men may ascribe *over-much* to themselves. *Grew.*

By attributing *over-much* to things
Less excellent, as thou thyself perceiv'st. *Milton.*

OVER-MUCH'NESS, *f.* Exuberance; superabundance. *Not used, nor elegant.*—There are words that do as much raise a style, as others can depress it; superlatation and *over-muchness* amplifies. It may be above faith, but never above a mean. *B. Jonson's Discoveries.*

To OVER-MUL'TITUDE, *v. a.* To exceed in number:

Nature would be furcharg'd with her own weight,
And strangled in her waste fertility:
The earth cumber'd, and the wing'd air dark'd with plumes;
The herds would *over-multitude* their lords. *Milton.*

To OVER-NAME, *v. a.* To name in a series.—*Over-name* them; and as thou namest them I will describe them. *Shakesp. Merch. of Ven.*

OVER-NIGHT, *f.* The time of the night past before going to bed.—Will confesses, that for half his life his head ached every morning with reading men *over-night*. *Addison.*

If I had given you this at *over-night*,
She might have been o'er-ta'en. *Shakespeare.*

OVER-NIGHT, *adj.* On the evening before; at night before bed-time.

To OVER-NOISE, *v. a.* To overpower by noise:

No tide of wine would drown your cares;
No mirth or music *over-noise* your fears. *Cowley.*

To OVER-OFFICE, *v. a.* To lord by virtue of an office.—This might be the fate of a politician which this *as over-offices*. *Shakespeare's Hamlet.*

OVER-OFFICIOUS, *adj.* Too busy; too importunate.—This is an *over-officious* truth, and is always at a man's heels; so that if he looks about him, he must take notice of it. *Collier on Reason.*

To OVER-PAINT, *v. a.* To colour or describe too strongly.—Him whom no verse *o'er-paints*. *A. Hill.*

To OVER-PA'SS, *v. a.* To cross:

What have my Scyllas and my Syrtes done,
When these they *over-pas*s and those they shun? *Dryden.*

To over-look; to pass with disregard.—The complaint about psalms and hymns might as well be *over-past* without any answer, as it is without any cause brought forth. *Hooker.*

I read the satire thou entitlest first,

And laid aside the rest, and *over-past*,

And swore, I thought the writer was accurst,

That his first satire had not been his last. *Harington.*

Remember that Pellean conquerour,

A youth, how all the beauties of the east

He slightly view'd, and slightly *over-pas*s'd. *Milton's P. R.*

To omit in a reckoning.—Arithmetical progression demonstrates how fast mankind would increase, *over-passing* as miraculous, though indeed natural, that example of the Israelites who were multiplied in two hundred and fifteen years, from seventy to sixty thousand able men. *Raleigh.*—To omit; not to receive; not to comprise.—

If the grace of him which saveth *overpas*s some, so that the prayer of the church for them be not received, this we may leave to the hidden judgments of righteousness. *Hooker.*

OVER-PA'ST, *part. adj.* Gone; past:

What canst thou swear by now?—By time to come.—

That thou hast wrong'd in the time *over-past*. *Shakesp.*

To OVER-PAY, *v. a.* To reward beyond the price:

You have yourself your kindness *over-paid*;

He ceases to oblige who can upbraid. *Dryden.*

To OVER-PEER, *v. a.* To over-look; to hover above. *Out of use.*—They are invincible by reason of the *over-peering* mountains that back the one, and slender fortifications of the other to landward. *Sandys's Journey.*

The ocean, *over-peering* of his list,
Eats not the flats with more impetuous haste,
Than young Laertes, in a riotous head,
O'erbears your officers. *Shakespeare's Hamlet.*

Your Argosies with portly fail

Do *over-peer* the petty traffickers,

That curt'ly to them, do them reverence. *Shakespeare.*

Mountainous error would be too highly heapt,
For truth to *over-peer*. *Shakespeare's Coriol.*

Thus yields the cedar to the axe's edge,
Whose top branch *over-peer'd* Jove's spreading tree,
And kept low shrubs from winter's powerful wind. *Shakesp.*

To OVER-PERCH, *v. a.* To fly over:

With love's light wings did I *o'er-perch* these walls,
For stony limits cannot hold love out. *Shakespeare.*

To OVER-PICTURE, *v. a.* To exceed the representation or picture:

She did lie

In her pavilion, (cloth of gold, of tissue,)

O'er-picturing that Venus, where we see

The fancy out-work nature. *Shakespeare's Ant. and Cleop.*

To OVER-PLY, *v. a.* To employ too laboriously:

What supports me, dost thou ask?

The conscience, friend, to have lost them, *over-ply'd*

In liberty's defence. *Milton's Sonnet.*

To OVER-POISE, *v. a.* To outweigh.—Whether cripples who have lost their thighs will float; their lungs being able to waft up their bodies, which are in others *over-poised* by the hinder legs; we have not made experiment. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

The scale,

O'er-pois'd by darkness, lets the night prevail. *Creech.*

OVER-POISE, *f.* Preponderant weight.—Horace, in his first and second book of odes, was still rising, but came not to his meridian till the third. After which his judgment was an *over-poise* to his imagination. He grew too cautious to be bold enough, for he descended in his fourth by slow degrees. *Dryden.*

Some *over-poise* of sway by turns they share;

In peace the people, and the prince in war. *Dryden.*

To OVER-POLISH, *v. a.* To finish too nicely.—A judicious ear would be offended with a style *over-polished*. *Blackwall's Sac. Classics.*

OVER-PONDEROUS, *adj.* Too weighty; too depressing.—Neither can I think that, so reputed and so valued as you are, you would, to the forfeit of your own discerning ability, impose upon me an unfit and *over-ponderous* argument. *Milton on Education.*

To OVER-POST, *v. a.* To get quickly over.—You may thank the unquiet time for your quiet *o'er-posting* that action. *Shakespeare's Hen. IV.*

To OVER-POWER, *v. a.* To be predominant over; to oppress by superiority.—Inspiration is, when such an *over-powering* impression of any proposition is made upon the mind by God himself, that gives a convincing and indubitable evidence of the truth and divinity of it. *Watts's Logic.*

Now in danger try'd, now known in arms
Not to be *over-power'd*.

Milton's P. L.

To OVER-PRESS', v. a. To bear upon with irresistible force; to overwhelm; to crush.—When a prince enters on a war, he ought maturely to consider whether his coffers be full, his people rich by a long peace and free trade, not *over-pressed* with many burthensome taxes. *Swift*.

Michael's arm main promontories flung,
And *over press'd* whole legions weak with sin. *Roscommon*.

To overcome by entreaty; to press or persuade too much.

To OVER-PRIZE, v. a. To value at too high price.—Parents *over-prize* their children, while they behold them through the vapours of affection. *Wotton*.

OVER-PROMPTNESS, f. Hastiness; precipitation.—There is an *over-promptness* in many young men, who desire to be counted men of valour and resolution, upon every slight occasion to raise a quarrel, and admit of no other means of composing and ending it but by sword and single combat. *Hale's Sermon on Duels*.

OVER-QUIETNESS, f. A state of too much quiet.—To strenuous minds there is an inquietude in *over-quietness*, and no laboriousness in labour. *Brown's Chr. Mor.*

To OVER-RA'KE, v. a. A sea term; to break in, as waves on a ship from head to stern. *Bailey*.

OVER-RANK', adj. Too rank.—It produces *over-rank* binds. *Mortimer's Husbandry*.

To OVER-RANK', v. a. To place in too high a rank.

To OVER-RATE, v. a. To rate at too much.—To avoid the temptations of poverty, it concerns us not to *over-rate* the conveniences of our station, and, in estimating the proportion fit for us, to fix it rather low than high; for our desires will be proportioned to our wants, real or imaginary, and our temptations to our desires. *Rogers*.

While vain shows and scenes you *over-rate*,
'Tis to be fear'd,

That, as a fire the former house o'er-threw,
Machines and tempests will destroy the new. *Dryden*.

To OVER-RE'ACH, v. a. To rise above.—Sixteen hundred years after the earth was made, it was overflowed in a deluge of water in such excess, that the floods *over-reached* the tops of the highest mountains. *Burnet*.—To deceive; to go beyond; to circumvent. A sagacious man is said to have a long *reach*.—What more cruel than man, if he see himself able by fraud to *over-reach*, or by power to overbear, the laws whereunto he should be subject. *Hooker*.—I have laid my brain in the sun and dried it, that it wants matter to prevent so gross *over-reaching*. *Shakespeare*.—There is no pleasanter encounter than a trial of skill betwixt sharpers to *over-reach* one another. *L'Estrange*.

A man who had been matchless held
In cunning, *over-reach'd* where least he thought,
To save his credit, and for very spite
Still will be tempting him who foils him still. *Milton*.

To OVER-RE'ACH, v. n. A horse is said to *over-reach* when he brings his hinder feet too far forwards, and strikes his toes against his fore-shoes. *Farrier's Dict.*

OVER-RE'ACHER, f. A cheat; a deceiver.

To OVER-RE'AD, v. a. To peruse.—The contents of this is the return of the duke; you shall anon *over-read* it at your pleasure. *Shakespeare*.

To OVER-RECK'ON, v. a. To reckon too much.

To OVER-RED', v. a. To smear with red.

Prick thy face, and *over-red* thy fear,
Thou lily-liver'd boy. *Shakespeare's Macbeth*.

To OVER-RIDE, v. a. To ride over.

The carter, *over-riden* by his cart,
Under the whele lay ful low adowne. *Chaucer*.

To ride too much: as, The horse was *over-ridden*.

OVER-RID'ING, f. The act of riding a horse beyond its strength.

OVER-RIG'ID, adj. Too rigid.

OVER-RI'PE, adj. Too ripe.

To OVER-RIPEN, v. a. To make too ripe:

Why droops my lord, like *over-ripen'd* corn,
Hanging the head with Ceres' plenteous load. *Shakespeare*.

To OVER-RO'AST, v. a. To roast too much:

'Twas burnt and dried away;
And better 'twere that both of us did fast,
Since of ourselves, ourselves are choleric,
Than feed it with such *over-roasted* flesh. *Shakespeare*.

To OVER-RU'LE, v. a. To influence with predominant power; to be superior in authority.—He is acted by a passion which absolutely *over-rules* him; and so can no more recover himself, than a bowl rolling down a hill stop itself in the midst of its career. *South*.—A wise man shall *over-rule* his stars, and have a greater influence upon his own content than all the constellations and planets of the firmament. *Taylor*.—A man may, by the influence of an *over-ruling* planet, be inclined to lust, and yet by the force of reason overcome that bad influence. *Swift*.—To govern with high authority; to superintend.—Wherefore does he not now come forth and openly *over-rule*, as in other matters he is accustomed? *Hayward*.—To supersede: as, in law, to *over-rule* a plea, is to reject it as incompetent.—Thirty acres make a farthing-land, nine farthings a Cornish acre, and four Cornish acres a knight's fee: but this rule is *over-ruled* to a greater or lesser quantity, according to the fruitfulness or barrenness of the soil. *Carew*.

OVER-RU'LER, f. Director; governour.—Then did proof, the *over-ruler* of opinions, make manifest that all these are but serving sciences. *Sidney's Def. of Poesy*.

To OVER-RUN', v. a. To harass by incursions; to ravage; to rove over in a hostile manner.—A commonwealth may be *over-run* by a powerful neighbour, which may produce bad consequences upon your trade and liberty. *Swift's Miscell.*

They err who count it glorious to subdue
By conquest far and wide, to *over-run*
Large countries, and in field great battles win,
Great cities by assault. *Milton's Paradise Regained*.

Till the tears she shed,
Like envious clouds *o'er-ran* her lovely face,
She was the fairest creature in the world. *Shakespeare*.

To out-run; to pass.—Pyrocles, being come to sixteen, *over-run* his age in growth, strength, and all things following it, that not Musidorus could perform any action on horse or foot more strongly, or deliver that strength more nimbly, or become the delivery more gracefully, or employ all more virtuously. *Sidney*.—Ahimaaz ran by the way of the plain, and *over-ran* Cush. 2 Sam. xviii. 23.—Galilæus noteth, that if an open trough, wherein water is, be driven faster than the water can follow, the water gathereth upon a heap towards the hinder end, where the motion began; which he supposeth, holding the motion of the earth to be the cause of the ebbing and flowing of the ocean, because the earth *over-runneeth* the water. *Bacon*.

We may out-run
By violent swiftness that which we run at,
And lose by *over-running*. *Shakespeare's Hen. VIII.*

To over-spread; to cover all over.—This disposition of the parts of the earth, shows us the footsteps of some kind of ruin which happened in such a way, that at the same time a general flood of waters would necessarily *over-run* the whole earth. *Burnet*.

His tears defac'd the surface of the well;
And now the lovely face but half appears,
O'er-run with wrinkles, and deform'd with tears. *Addison*.

To mischief by great numbers; to pester.—To flatter foolish men into a hope of life where there is none, is much

much the same with betraying people into an opinion, that they are in a virtuous and happy state, when they are *over-run* with passion and drowned in their lusts. *L'Estrange*.—To injure by treading down.—Among printers; to change the disposition of lines and words, by reason of infections or erasures.

To OVER-RUN, *v. n.* To overflow; to be more than full.—Cattle in inclosures shall always have fresh pasture, that now is all trampled and *over-run*. *Spenser*.

Though you have left me,
Yet still my soul *o'er-runs* with fondness towards you. *Smith*.

OVER-RUN'NER, *f.* One who roves over in a hostile manner:

Vandal *o'er-runners*, Goths in literature,
Ploughmen that would Parnassus new manure.

Lovelace's Luc. Posth. 1659.

OVER-SCUT'CHT, *adj.* [from *over* and *scotch*.] Flogged with a whip.—Sung those tunes to the *over-scutecht* hufwives that he heard the carmen whistle. *Shakespeare's Hen. IV. P. II.*

OVER-SE'A, *adj.* Foreign; from beyond seas.—Some far-journied gentlemen, at their return home, like as they love to go in foreign apparel, so they will powder their talke with *over-sea* language. *Wilson's Arte of Rhet.* 1553.

To OVER-SHA'DE, *v. a.* To cover with any thing that causes darkness.—No great and mighty subject might eclipse or *over-shade* the imperial power. *Bacon*.

Dark cloudy death *o'er-shades* his beams of life,
And he nor sees nor hears us. *Shakespeare*.

To OVER-SHAD'OW, *v. a.* To throw a shadow over any thing.—Weeds choke and *over-shadow* the corn, and bear it down, or starve and deprive it of nourishment. *Bacon*.

Darkness must *over-shadow* all his bounds,
Palpable darkness, and blot out three days. *Milton's P. L.*
To shelter; to protect; to cover with superior influence.—My *over-shadowing* spirit and might with thee I send along. *Milton*.

On her should come
The Holy Ghost, and the Power of the Highest
O'er-shadow her. *Milton's P. Regained*.

OVER-SHAD'OWER, *f.* One who throws a shade over any thing.—Your nobility in a right distance between crown and people; no oppressors of the people, no *over-shadowers* of the crown. *Bacon's Lett. to the King*, 2 Jan. 1618.

To OVER-SHOOT, *v. n.* To fly beyond the mark.—Often it drops, or *over-shoots*, by the disproportions of distance or application. *Collier on Reason*.

To OVER-SHOOT, *v. a.* To shoot beyond the mark.—Every inordinate appetite defeats its own satisfaction, by *over-shooting* the mark it aims at. *Tillotson*.—To pass swiftly over:

High-raised on fortune's hill, new Alpes he spies,
O'er-shoots the valley which beneath him lies,
Forgets the depths between, and travels with his eyes. *Harte*.

[With the reciprocal pronoun.] To venture too far; to assert too much.—Leave it to themselves to consider, whether they have in this point or not *over-shot themselves*; which is quickly done, even when our meaning is most sincere. *Hooker*.—In finding fault with the laws, I doubt me you shall much *over-shoot yourself*, and make me the more dislike your other dislikes of that government. *Spenser on Ireland*.

OVER-SI'ZE, *adj.* Above the usual size.

To OVER-SI'ZE, *v. a.* To surpass in bulk.—Those bred in a mountainous country, *over-size* those that dwell
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on low levels. *Sandys's Journey*.—[*Over* and *size*, a compound with which masons cover walls.] To plaster over:

He, thus *o'er-siz'd* with coagulate gore,
Old grandfire Priam seeks. *Shakespeare's Hamlet*.

To OVER-SKIP, *v. a.* To pass by leaping.—Presume not ye that are sheep, to make yourselves guides of them that should guide you; neither seek ye to *over-skip* the fold, which they about you have pitched. *Hooker*.—To pass over:

Mark if, to get them, she *o'er-skip* the rest;
Mark if she read them twice, or kiss the name. *Donne*.

To escape:

When that hour *o'er-skips* me in the day,
Wherein I sigh not, Julia, for thy sake;
The next ensuing hour some foul mischief
Torment me! *Shakespeare's Two Gent. of Ver.*

Who alone suffers, suffers most in the mind;
But then the mind much sufferance does *o'er-skip*,
When grief hath mates and bearing fellowship. *Shakespeare*.

To OVER-SLEEP, *v. a.* To sleep too long.

To OVER-SLIP, *v. a.* To pass undone, unnoticed, or unused; to neglect.—He that hath *over-slipt* such opportunities, is to bewail and retrieve them betimes. *Hammond*.

To OVER-SLOW, *v. a.* To render slow; to check; to curb.—Means able to *over-slow* this furious driver. *Hammond*.

To OVER-SNOW, *v. a.* To cover with snow.—Ere age unstrung my nerves, or time *o'er-snow'd* my head. *Dryden's Æn.*

For never-resting time leads summer on
To hideous winter, and confounds him there;
Sap check'd with frost, and lusty leaves quite gone,
Beauty *o'er-snow'd*, and bareness everywhere. *Shakespeare*.

OVER-SO'LD, *part.* Sold at too high a price:

Life with ease I can disclaim,
And think it *over-sold* to purchase fame. *Dryden*.

OVER-SOON, *adv.* Too soon.—The lad may prove well enough, if he *over-soon* think not too well of himself, and will bear away that he heareth of his elders. *Sidney*.

To OVER-SOR'ROW, *v. a.* To afflict with too much sorrow.—The much-wronged and *over-sorrowed* state of matrimony. *Milton's Doct. and Disc. of Div.*

To OVER-SPEAK, *v. a.* To say too much; to express in too many words; with the reciprocal pronoun.—Describing a small fly, he extremely over-worded and *over-spake himself* in his expression of it; as if he had spoken of the Nemean lion. *Hales*.

OVER-SPEN'T, *part.* Wearied; harassed; forespent. The verb *over-spend* is not used.

Thestylis, wild thyme, and garlick beats,
For harvest-hinds, *o'er-spent* with toil and heats. *Dryden*.

To OVER-SPREAD, *v. a.* To cover over; to fill; to scatter over.—Of the three sons of Noah was the whole earth *over-spread*. *Gen. ix. 19*.—Not a deluge that only over-run some particular region; but that *over-spread* the face of the whole earth, from pole to pole, and from east to west. *Burnet*.

Darkness Europe's face did *over-spread*,
From lazy cells, where superstition bred. *Denham*.

To OVER-STAND, *v. a.* To stand too much upon conditions:

Her's they shall be, since you refuse the price:
What madman would *o'er-stand* his market twice? *Dryd.*

To OVER-STARE, *v. n.* To stare widely.—Some warlike

like sign must be used; either a slovenly buskin, or an *over-flaring* frowned head. *Ascham.*

To OVER-STOCK', v. a. To fill too full; to crowd.—Had the world been eternal, it must long ere this have been *over-stocked*, and become too narrow for the inhabitants. *Wilkins.*—Since we are so bent upon enlarging our flocks, it may be worth enquiring what we shall do with our wool, in case Barnstable should be ever *over-stocked*. *Swift.*

To OVER-STO'RE, v. a. To store with too much.—Fishes are more numerous than beasts or birds, as appears by their numerous spawn; and, if all these should come to maturity, even the ocean itself would have been long since *over-stored* with fish. *Hale's Orig. of Mankind.*

To OVER-STRAIN', v. u. To make too violent efforts.—Craesus lost himself, his equipage, and his army, by *over-straining* for the Parthian gold. *Collier.*—He wished all painters would imprint this lesson deeply in their memory, that, with *over-straining*, and earnestness of finishing their pieces, they often did them more harm than good. *Dryden's Dufresnoy.*

To OVER-STRAIN', v. a. To stretch too far.—Confessors were apt to *over-strain* their privileges, in which St. Cyprian made a notable stand against them. *Ayliffe.*

To OVER-STREW', v. a. To spread over.—With all which several medicines the body of the earth is so everywhere replenished, yea and the surface of it so every-where *over-strewed*. *Fotherby's Atheom.* p. 254.

The bottom poison, and the top *o'er-strew'd*
With sweets. *Shakespeare's Venus and Adonis.*

To OVER-STRIKE, v. a. To strike beyond:

For, as he in his rage him *over-strooke*,
He, ere he could his weapon backe repair,
His side all bare and naked *over-tooke*. *Spenser.*

To OVER-SWAY', v. a. To over-rule; to bear down.—When they are the major part of a general assembly, then their voices, being more in number, must *over-sway* their judgments who are fewer. *Hooker.*—Great command *o'er-sways* our order. *Shakespeare.*—Some great and powerful nations *over-sway* the rest. *Heylin.*

To OVER-SWELL', v. a. To rise above:
Fill, Lucius, till the wine *o'er-swell* the cup.
I cannot drink too much of Brutus' love. *Shakespeare.*

When his banks the prince of rivers, Po,
Doth *over-swell*, he breaks with hideous fall. *Fairfax.*

To OVER-TASK, v. a. To burthen with too heavy duties or injunctions.—That office is performed by the parts with difficulty, because they were *over-tasked*. *Harvey on Consumptions.*

To find out that good shepherd, I suppose,
In such a scant allowance of star-light,
Would *over-task* the best land-pilot's art,
Without the sure guides of well-practis'd feet. *Milton.*

To OVER-TAX, v. a. To tax too heavily.

OVER-TEEM'ED, adj. Worn down with teeming:

A clout upon that head,
Where late the diadem stood; and for a robe,
About her lank and all *o'er-teemed* loins,
A blanket in th' alarm of fear caught up. *Shakespeare.*

To OVER-TIRE, v. a. To subdue with fatigue:

He his guide requested
As *over-tir'd*, to let him lean a while
With both his arms on those two massy pillars. *Milton.*

To OVER-TIT'LE, v. a. To give too high a title to.
Over-titling his own quarrels to be God's cause. *Fuller's Holy War.*

To OVER-TOP', v. a. To rise above; to raise the head above.—*O'er-top* old Pelion, or the skyish head of blue Olympus. *Shakespeare's Hamlet.*

In the dance the graceful goddess leads

The quire of nymphs, and *over-tops* their heads. *Dryden.*
To excel; to surpass.—As far as the soul *o'er-tops* the body, so far its pains, or rather mournful sensations, exceed those of the carcase. *Harvey.*

Who ever yet
Have stood to charity, and display'd the effects
Of disposition gentle, and of wisdom
O'er-topping woman's power. *Shakespeare's Hen. VIII.*

To obscure; to make of less importance by superior excellence.—Whereas he had been heretofore an arbiter of Europe, he should now grow less, and be *over-topped* by so great a conjunction. *Bacon's Hen. VII.*

One whom you love,
Had champion kill'd or trophy won,
Ratlier than thus be *over-top'd*,
Would you not wish his laurels cropt? *Swift.*

To OVER-TOWER, v. u. To soar too high.—This miscarriage came very seasonably to abate their *over-towering* conceits of him. *Fuller's Holy War.*

To OVER-TRIP', v. a. To trip over; to walk lightly over:

In such a night,
Did Thisbe fearfully *o'er-trip* the dew,
And saw the lion's shadow ere himself,
And ran dismay'd away. *Shakespeare's Merch. of Ven.*

To OVER-TROW, v. u. [*oepentupan*, Sax.] To be over confident; to think too highly.—I am no thing *overtrowyng* to myself. *Wicliffe, 1 Cor. iv.*

To OVER-TRUST, v. a. To place too much reliance on.—Some there are that do so *over-trust* their leaders' eyes, that they care not to see with their own. *Bp. Hall's Cases of Consc.*

To OVER-VALUE, v. a. To rate at too high a price.—To *over-value* human power, is an argument of human weakness. *Holyday.*

To OVER-VEIL, v. a. To cover:
The day begins to break, and night is fled,
Whose pitchy mantle *over-veil'd* the earth. *Shakespeare.*

Thou mak'st the night to *over-veil* the day;
Then savage beasts creep from the silent wood:
Then lions' whelps lie roaring for their prey,
And at thy powerful hand demand their food. *Wotton.*

To OVER-VO'TE, v. a. To conquer by plurality of votes.—The lords and commons might be content to be *over-voted* by the major part of both houses, when they had used each their own freedom. *King Charles.*

To OVER-WAT'CH, v. u. To subdue with long want of rest:

Morpheus is dispatch'd;
Which done, the lazy monarch, *over-watch'd*,
Down from his propping elbow drops his head,
Dissolv'd in sleep, and shrinks within his bed. *Dryden.*

OVER-WAT'CHED, adj. Tired with too much watching.—While the dog hunted in the river, he had withdrawn himself, to pacify with sleep his *over-watched* eyes. *Sidney.*

OVER-WE'AK, adj. Too weak; too feeble.—Paternal persuasions, after mankind began to forget the original giver of life, became in all *over-weak* to resist the first inclination of evil; or after, when it became habitual, to constrain it. *Raleigh's Hist. of the World.*

OVER-WE'ARY, adj. Too weary for farther exertion.
To OVER-WE'ARY, v. a. To subdue with fatigue.—Might not Palinurus fall asleep and drop into the sea, having been *over-wearied* with watching. *Dryden.*

To OVER-WEATH'ER, v. a. To batter by violence of weather:

How like a younker or a prodigal
The scarfed bark puts from her native bay,

Hugg'd and embraced by the strumpet wind !
How like the prodigal doth the return,
With *over-weather'd* ribs and ragged sails,
Lean, rent, and beggar'd, by the strumpet wind. *Shakespeare.*

To *OVER-WEE'N*, *v. n.* To think too highly ; to think with arrogance. To reach beyond the truth of any thing in thought ; especially in the opinion of a man's self. *Hammer.*—No man is so bold, rash, and *over-weening* of his own works, as an ill painter and a bad poet. *Dryden.*

Take heed of *over-weening* ; and compare
Thy peacock's feet with thy gay peacock's train ;
Study the best and highest things that are,
But of thyself an humble thought retain. *Davies.*

OVER-WEE'NINGLY, *adv.* With too much arrogance ; with too high an opinion.—Till he himself had been infallible, like him whose peculiar words he *over-weeningly* assumes. *Milton's Eiconoclast.*

To *OVER-WEIGH*, *v. a.* To preponderate.—Sharp and subtle discourses of wit procure many times very great applause ; but, being laid in the balance with that which the habit of sound experience delivereth, they are *over-weighed*. *Hooker.*

My unfoil'd name, the auftereness of my life,
Will so your accusation *over-weigh*,
That you shall stifle in your own report. *Shakespeare.*

OVER-WEIGHT, *f.* Preponderance.—Sinking into water is but an *over-weight* of the body, in respect of the water. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

OVER-WENT, [used by Spenser for] Overthrown :
But he, like hound full greedy of his prey,
Being impatient of impediment,
Continued still his course, and by the way
Thought with his spear him quight have *over-went*.
Fairy Queen.

To *OVER-WING'*, *v. a.* To out-reach the wing of an army ; to out-flank.—Agricola, doubting to be *over-winged*, stretches out his front, though somewhat of the thinnest. *Milton's Hist. of Eng.*

OVER-WISE, *adj.* Wise to affectation.—Make not thyself *over-wise*. *Ecc. vii. 16.*

OVER-WISENESS, *f.* Pretended wisdom ; science falsely so called :

Tell wit how much it wrangles
In tickle points of niceness ;
Tell wisdom the entangles
Herself in *over-wiseneſſe*. *Sir W. Raleigh.*

To *OVER-WOR'D*, *v. a.* To say too much.—Describing a small fly, he extremely *over-worded* and *over-spake* himself in his expression of it ; as if he had spoken of the Nemean lion. *Hales.*

To *OVER-WOR'K*, *v. a.* To tire.—It is such a pleasure as can never cloy or *over-work* the mind. *South's Sermons.*

OVER-WOR'N, *part.* Worn out ; subdued by toil :
With watching *over-worn*, with cares oppress'd,
Unhappy, I had laid me down to rest. *Dryden.*
Spoiled by time :

The jealous *o'er-worn* widow and herself
Are mighty gossips in this monarchy. *Shakespeare.*

To *OVER-WRES'TLE*, *v. a.* To subdue by wrestling :
Life recover'd had the raine,
And *over-wrestled* his strong enemy. *Spenser.*

OVER-WROU'GHT, *part.* Laboured too much.—Apelles said of Protogenes, that he knew not when to give over. A work may be *over-wrought* as well as under-wrought : too much labour often takes away the spirit, by adding to the polishing ; so that there remains nothing but a dull correctness, a piece without any considerable faults, but with few beauties. *Dryden's Duſſynoy.*—Worked all over :

Of Gothic structure was the northern side,
O'er-wrought with ornaments of barbarous pride. *Pope.*
It has in Shakespeare a sense which I know not well how to reconcile to the original meaning of the word, and therefore conclude it misprinted for *over-raught* ; that is, *over-reached*, or cheated. *Johnson.*

By some device or other,
The villain is *o'er-wrought* of all my money :
They say this town is full of cozenage. *Shakespeare.*

OVER-YE'ARED, *adj.* Too old.—A maid whose fruit was ripe, not *over-yeared*. *Fairfax.*

OVER YS'CHIE, a town of France, in the department of the Dyle, on the river Yſche : ten miles south-east of Brussels.

OVER-ZE'ALED, *adj.* Ruled by too much zeal. *Not in use.*—Thus was the good king's judgment *over-zealed*. *Fuller's Holy War.*

OVER-ZEAL'OUS, *adj.* Too zealous.—It is not of such weighty necessity to determine one way or the other, as some, *over-zealous* for or against the immateriality of the soul, have been forward to make the world believe. *Locke.*

OVERA. See *AWERI.*

OVERAC'KEN, a small island on the west side of the gulf of Bothnia. Lat. 63. 50. N. lon. 20. 29. E.

OVERALL (John), a celebrated prelate of the church of England in the seventeenth century, was born about the year 1599. From the grammar-school he was sent to St. John's College, in the university of Cambridge, of which society he was elected a scholar. Afterwards he removed to Trinity College, where he was chosen a fellow. In the year 1596, he was nominated regius professor of divinity, and took the degree of doctor in that faculty. About the same time he was elected master of Catharine-hall. In 1601-2, queen Elizabeth, on the recommendation of sir Fulke Greville, afterwards lord Brooke, his patron, promoted him to the deanery of St. Paul's ; London. Soon after the accession of king James I. he was chosen prolocutor of the lower house of convocation ; and in 1612 he was appointed one of the first governors of the Charter-house, then recently founded. In 1614, he was nominated to the see of Lichfield and Coventry ; from which he was translated, in 1618, to that of Norwich ; where he died in 1619, about the age of sixty. He is ranked among the best divines of his time, and is said to have particularly excelled in scholastic theology. He maintained a correspondence with Gerard Vossius and Grotius, to whom letters from him may be seen in the collection, entitled "*Præstantium et eruditorum Viro-rum Epistolæ ecclesiasticæ et theologicæ.*" In this correspondence he declares himself in favour of Arminianism ; however, he thinks that St. Augustine's opinion of grace may be tolerated, but absolutely condemns the doctrine of confining grace to the elect alone. Indeed, he seems to have paved the way for the reception of Arminianism in England, where it was within a few years generally embraced by the clergy of the established church, chiefly by the authority and influence of archbishop Laud. He laboured zealously to conciliate the differences which had been occasioned in Holland, by what is known by the name of the *quinquarticular controversy*, and expressed great concern for the unjust and cruel treatment which the efforts and proposals of Grotius for peace had met with ; as appears in part from the correspondence above mentioned. But our prelate is chiefly known in England, by the controversy occasioned by Dr. afterwards bishop, Sherlock's attributing his conversion from nonjuring principles, to a passage in our author's "*Convocation Book.*" Of the history of this work we shall lay before our readers the following account from bishop Burnet. "There was a book drawn up by bishop Overall, four-score years ago, concerning government ; in which its being of a divine institution was very positively asserted. It

It was read in convocation, and passed by that body, in order to the publishing it, in opposition to the principles laid down in that famous book of Parsons the Jesuit, under the name of *Dollman*. King James I. did not like a convocation entering into such a theory of politics; so he wrote a long letter to Abbot, who was afterwards archbishop of Canterbury, but was then in the lower house. I had the original, writ all in his own hand; in my possession. By it he desired that no further progress should be made in that matter, and that this book might not be offered to him for his assent. Thus that matter slept; but Sancroft had got Overall's own book into his hands. So, in the beginning of this reign, he resolved to publish it, as an authentic declaration that the church of England had made in this matter; and it was published, as well as licensed by him, a very few days before he came under suspension for not taking the oaths. But there was a paragraph or two in it that they had not considered, which was plainly calculated to justify the owning the United Provinces to be a lawful government. For it was there laid down, that, when a change of government was brought to a thorough settlement, it was then to be owned and submitted to, as a work of the providence of God; and a part of king James's letter to Abbot related to this. When Sherlock observed this, he had some conferences with the party, in order to convince them by that which he said had convinced himself. Soon after that, he took the oaths, and was made dean of St. Paul's." *Biog. Brit.*

OVERBEKE (Bonaventure Van), a draughtsman and antiquary, was born at Amsterdam in 1660. Having imbibed a passion for antiquities, he made three journeys to Rome, where he designed all the relics of ancient magnificence in that capital. He first copied all the monuments which subsist in an entire state; and then all the mutilated ones, exactly in their present condition, and with the greatest accuracy of proportions. On his return to his own country he engraved all these designs with his own hand, and subjoined the descriptions of the best antiquaries to each subject. He also added the names and medals of the popes who have renovated any of them, and the ancient and modern descriptions relative to them. He died at Amsterdam in 1706. His collection, which was first written in Dutch, was translated into Latin and French. In the former language it was published under the title of "*Reliquæ antiquæ Urbis Romanæ, &c.*" 3 vols. folio, Amst. each volume containing fifty plates and descriptions. It was also published in French, in three volumes, folio, 1709, 1763. *Gen. Biog.*

O'VERBURY (Sir Thomas), a learned English gentleman and miscellaneous writer, was descended from an ancient family at Ashton-under-Edge in Gloucestershire. He was born in 1581, at the house of a maternal relation in Warwickshire; and, after having laid the foundation of his grammar learning in that country, he was entered as a gentleman commoner of Queen's college, Oxford. From this place he removed to the Middle Temple for the study of the law, to which profession his father belonged; but, not having a taste for legal pursuits, he endeavoured to push his fortune at court. About the year 1604 he contracted an intimacy with Robert Carr, the favourite of king James, who was afterwards created earl of Somerset, and by whose means Mr. Overbury was knighted, and his father raised to the honour of being a Welsh judge. This was in the year 1603; and in the following year Sir Thomas made a tour on the continent; and, on his return, published "*Observations*" on what he had seen. It was not likely that his principles should be pure while connected with a licentious court; and, accordingly, it appears that he assisted his friend and patron Carr in his amorous correspondence with the countess of Essex, but, after her divorce, he as earnestly opposed the marriage of the two adulterers, for which he incurred the hatred of them both. The consequences have been detailed under the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 663, 4. Sir Thomas, though by no means a blameless character, was

lamented as a victim to the passions of a most abandoned pair. He was author of several pieces in prose and verse. The poem entitled "*The Wife*," describing the character of a woman qualified to render the marriage-state happy, was extremely popular. The tenth edition of his works was published in 8vo. in 1753. In the *Biog. Brit.* there is a long and very detailed account of the methods used to destroy Sir Thomas Overbury.

O'VERBURY, in geography. See SHIPSTON-UPON-STOUR.

TO OVERCOME, *v. a.* pret. *I overcame*; part. pass. *overcome*; anciently *overcomen*, as in Spenser. [*overcomen*, Dut.] To subdue; to conquer; to vanquish.—Of whom a man is *overcome*, of the same is he brought in bondage. 2 *Pet.* ii. 19.

They, *overcomen*, were deprived
Of their proud beauty, and the one moiety
Transform'd to fish, for their bold surquedry. *Spenser.*
To surmount.—Miranda is a constant relief to poor people in their misfortunes and accidents; there are sometimes little misfortunes that happen to them, which of themselves they could never be able to *overcome*. *Law.*—To overflow; to surcharge:

The unfallow'd glebe
Yearly *o'ermoves* the granaries with stores. *Philips.*
To come over or upon; to invade suddenly. *Not in use.*

Can such things be,
And *overcome* us like a summer's cloud,
Without our special wonder? *Shakespeare's Macbeth.*

TO OVERCOME, *v. n.* To gain the superiority.—That thou mightest be justified in thy sayings, and mightest *overcome* when thou art judged. *Rom.* iii. 4.

OVERCOMER, *f.* He who overcomes.—Great rewards and rich gifts were appointed for the *overcomers*. *Powell's Hist. of Wales*, 1584.

OVERCOM'INGLY, *adv.* With superiority; in the manner of a conqueror.—That they should so boldly and *overcomingly* dictate to him such things as are not fit. *More's Conf. Cab.* 1653.

OVERFLAK'EE, or Zuid Voorn, an island of the Netherlands, in the province of South Holland, in the Meuse, about thirteen miles long from east to west, and four in its greatest breadth. The first name it receives from a sand-bank, named *Flaque*, or *Flakee*, which lies in the stream north of the island; the last, from its situation with respect to the isle of Voorn, from which it is about two miles to the south. Lat. 51. 43. N. lon. 4. 24. E.

OVERFLAX, a town of Sweden, in the government of Wasa: six miles north of Wasa.

TO OVERFLOW, *v. n.* To be fuller than the brim can hold.—Had I the same consciousness that I saw Noah's flood, as that I saw the *overflowing* of the Thames last winter, I could not doubt, that I, who saw the Thames *overflowed*, and viewed the flood at the general deluge, was the same self. *Locke.*

While our strong walls secure us from the foe,
E'er yet with blood our ditches *overflow*. *Dryden.*

To exuberate; to abound.—A very ungrateful return to the author of all we enjoy, but such as an *overflowing* plenty too much inclines men to make. *Rogers.*

TO OVERFLOW, *v. c.* To fill beyond the brim.—Suppose thyself in as great a sadness as ever did load thy spirit, wouldst thou not bear it cheerfully, if thou wert sure that some excellent fortune would relieve and recompense thee so as to *overflow* all thy hopes. *Bp. Taylor.*

New milk that all the winter never fails,
And all the summer *overflows* the pails. *Dryden.*

To deluge; to drown; to over-run; to over-power.—The Scythians, at such time as the northern nations *overflowed* all Christendom, came down to the sea-coast. *Spenser.*—*Clanlus overflow'd th' unhappy coast. Dryden.*—Do not the

the Nile and the Niger make yearly inundations in our days, as they have formerly done? and are not the countries so *overflowed* still situate between the tropics? *Bentley*.—Sixteen hundred and odd years after the earth was made, it was *overflowed* and destroyed in a deluge of water that overspread the face of the whole earth, from pole to pole, and from east to west. *Burnet*.

Thus oft by mariners are shown
Earl Godwin's castles *overflowed*.

Swift.

The participle *overflowed* is, among the examples, used, we see, by such excellent writers as Swift and Bentley; yet *flowu* is not the participle of *flow*, but of *fly*. *Todd*.

O'VERFLOW, *f*. Inundation; more than fulness; such a quantity as runs over; exuberance.—Where there are great *overflows* in fens, the drowning of them in winter maketh the summer following more fruitful; for that it keepeth the ground warm. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—It requires pains to find the coherence of abstruse writings: so that it is not to be wondered, that St. Paul's Epistles have, with many, passed for disjointed pious discourses, full of warmth and zeal and *overflows* of light, rather than for calm, strong, coherent, reasonings, all through. *Locke*.—After every *overflow* of the Nile, there was not always a mensuration. *Arbuthnot on Coius*.—The expression may be ascribed to an *overflow* of gratitude in the general disposition of Ulysses. *Brome*.

Did he break out into tears?—

In great measure.—

—A kind *overflow* of kindness.

Shakespeare.

O'VERFLOWING, *f*. Exuberance; copiousness.—When men are young, they might vent the *overflowings* of their fancy that way. *Denbau's Dedie*.—When the *overflowings* of ungodliness make us afraid, the ministers of religion cannot better discharge their duty of opposing it. *Rogers*.

O'VERFLOWINGLY, *adv*. Exuberantly; in great abundance. *A word not elegant, nor in use*.—Nor was it his indigence that forced him to make the world; but his goodness pressed him to impart the goods which he so *overflowingly* abounds with. *Boyle*.

O'VERISSEL, or **O'VER YSSEL**, the seventh of the northern provinces of the new kingdom of the Netherlands, so called from its situation beyond the river Issel, is bounded on the north by Friesland and the lordship of Groningen, on the east by the territory of Munster, on the south by Guelderland, and on the west by the Issel, or Yssel, and the Zuyder Sea. Its greatest length, from north to south, is more than twenty leagues; its breadth, from east to west, about eighteen. The island of Schokland, in the Zuyder Sea, belongs to this province: it contains 600 inhabitants, and the whole province 148,000. The number of towns and villages is 55. The chief towns are Zwol, Deventer; and Campen.

The chief rivers of this province are the Vecht and the Aa.—The Vecht rises near Coesfeld in Westphalia; is increased by the waters of some marshes as it enters the province of Overissel; washes the village of Ommen, beyond which it receives the Regge; crosses the town of Zwol, beyond which it receives the Aa, (the second river of that name;) it then takes the name of *Swaarte-water*, or Black-water, and empties itself into the Zuyder Sea.—The Aa (the third of that name), after washing the village of Staenwylch, runs into the Zuyder Sea near Blackzyl.

This province sends four deputies to the second chamber of the states-general. The provincial states consist of sixty-three members; of whom twenty-one are chosen by the equestrian order, twenty-one by the towns, and twenty-one by the peasantry. The soil, in that part of the province which is near Friesland, consists chiefly of marshy ground, and is productive of heath. There is little arable land, but much pasturage, and a good deal of wood and turf. It produces little corn, but plenty of fruit and ve-

getables. The cattle are fine, and the butter excellent. *Géographie du Royaume des Pays Bas*, 1819.

TO OVERLOOK, *v. a*. To view from a higher place.—I will do it with the same respect to him, as if he were alive, and *overlooking* my paper while I write. *Dryden*.

The pile o'er-look'd the town, and drew the sight,
Surpris'd at once with reverence and delight. *Dryden*.

To view fully; to peruse.—Would I had *overlook'd* the letter. *Shakespeare*.—To superintend; to over-see.—In the greater out-parishes, many of the poor parishioners, through neglect, do perish, for want of some heedful eye to *overlook* them. *Graunt*.—To review:

The time and care that are requir'd,
To *overlook* and file, and polish well,
Fright poets from that necessary toil.

Roscommon.

To pass by indulgently.—This part of good-nature, which consists in the pardoning and *overlooking* of faults, is to be exercised only in doing ourselves justice in the ordinary commerce of life. *Addison*.—To neglect; to slight.—The happiest of mankind, *overlooking* those solid blessings which they already have, set their hearts upon somewhat they want. *Atterbury*.—They *overlook* truth in the judgements they pass on adversity and prosperity. The temptations that attend the former they can easily see, and dread at a distance; but they have no apprehensions of the dangerous consequences of the latter. *Atterbury*.

OVERLOOK'ER, *f*. The original word signifies an *overlooker*, or one who stands higher than his fellows, and overlooks them. *Watts*.—The Holy Ghost hath made you overseers, *overlookers*, and watchmen, over the flock of Christ. *Bp. of Chichester's Two Sermons*, 1576.—God then is present, and his angel seeth thee: O wicked and damnd man, if thou contemne such *overlookers*! *Woolton's Chr. Manual*, 1576.

OVERLOOP, *f*. The same with *orlop*.—In extremity we carry our ordnance better than we were wont, because our nether *overloops* are raised commonly from the water; to wit, between the lower part of the port and the sea. *Raleigh*.

OVERLY, *adj*. [oueplice, Sax. negligently.] Careless; negligent; inattentive; slight.—This is also a Scottish adjective; and Dr. Jamieson, noticing it, observes, that *overly* must have been formerly used in English, as Somner mentions it in rendering the Saxon word. I will satisfy him that it was a very common word, though Dr. Johnson has wholly overpassed it. *Todd*.—Not fearing the frowns of that *overly* host, she thrusts herself into Simon's house to find Jesus. *Bp. Hall's Contempl.*—A kind of *overly* desire. *Mountagu's App. to Caesar*.—Not to content themselves with a slight and *overly* examination. *Saunders's Sermons*, Pref.

The courteous citizen bade me to his feast,
With hollow words, and *overly* request. *Bp. Hall's Sat.*

OVERMOST, *adj*. Highest; over the rest in authority. *Ainworth*.

O'U'ERO, a river of Mexico, which runs into the bay of Honduras in lat. 15. 43. N. lon. 87. 45. W.

O'VERPLUS, *f*. Surplus; what remains more than sufficient.—A great deal too much of it was made, and the *overplus* remained still in the mortar. *L'Estrange*.—It would look like a fable to report, that this gentleman gives away all which is the *overplus* of a great fortune. *Addison*.

O'VERSALL, a small island in the Caledonian Sea, near the west coast of Scotland. Lat. 55. 44. N. lon. 38. 6. W.

O'VERSBRIDGE, a village near Gloucester. Here was formerly an abbey, moated round; it was destroyed in the civil wars.

TO OVERSEE, *v. a*. To superintend; to overlook:

She without noise will *oversee*
His children and his family.

Dryden.

Y

To

To overlook; to pass by unheeded; to omit:

I, who resolve to *oversee*
No lucky opportunity,
Will go to council to advise
Which way to encounter, or surprise.

Hudibras.

OVERSEER, *part.* Mistaken; deceived.—A common-received error is never utterly overthrown, till such times as we go from signs unto causes, and shew some manifest root or fountain thereof common unto all, whereby it may clearly appear how it hath come to pass that so many have been *overseen*. *Hooker*.—Such overseers, as the overseers of this building, would be so *overseen*, as to make that which is narrower contain that which is larger. *Holyday*.

OVERSEER, *f.* One who overlooks; a superintendent.—Jehiel and Azariah were *overseers* unto Cononiah. *2 Chron.* xxxi. 13.—There are in the world certain voluntary *overseers* of all books, whose censure would fall sharp on us. *Hooker*.

To entertain a guest, with what a care
Would he his household ornaments prepare;
Harass his servants, and as *overseer* stand,
To keep them working with a threatening wand.
Clean all my plate, he cries.

Dryden.

An officer who has the care of the parochial provision for the poor.—Then the churchwardens and *overseers* of the poor might find it possible to discharge their duties; whereas now, in the greater out-parishes, many of the poorer parishioners, through neglect, do perish, for want of some heedful eye to overlook them. *Graunt's Bills of Mortality*.

OVERSEERS of the POOR are public officers, who must be substantial householders, and they must be generally resident in the parish. They were created by the stat. 43 Eliz. cap. 2. and nominated yearly in Easter-week, or within one month after Easter, under the hand and seal of two or more justices of the peace in the same county, and dwelling in or near the parish, whereof one is to be of the quorum, who must meet together for this purpose; to provide for the poor of every parish; and are sometimes two, or three, or four, according to the largeness of the parish: but not more than four, nor less than two, can be appointed. By 17 Geo. II. c. 38. in every township or place where are no churchwardens, the overseers alone may act in all respects as churchwardens and overseers may do in other places by virtue of this or any former act; and, if any overseer shall die, or remove, or become insolvent, before the expiration of his office, two justices (on oath thereof made) may appoint another in his stead; and, if in any place there shall be no such nomination of overseers as is before appointed, every justice of the division shall forfeit 5*l.* to the poor of such place, to be levied by the churchwardens and overseers, or one of them, by distress, by warrant from the sessions. This forfeiture supposes that the justices are obliged to divide; for, in that case, the appointment was to be by the justices in or near the division, and not otherwise; but now the justices at large are all equally concerned; and therefore it seems, that this penalty cannot be levied on any particular justice. But, if in any place no overseer shall be appointed, a mandamus will go to the justices at large, to compel them to appoint. Parishioners, as well as overseers appointed, may appeal to the sessions against the appointment. Overseers refusing to take the office may be indicted for it; nor will the court quash an indictment against an overseer. The overseers thus appointed, and taking upon them the office, shall, within fourteen days, receive the books of assessment and accounts from their predecessors, and what money and materials shall be in their hands, and reimburse them their arrears. 17 G. II. cap. 28.

Their office and duty, according to stat. 43 Eliz. are principally these: first, to raise competent sums for the

necessary relief of the poor, impotent, old, and blind, and such as are not able to work; and, secondly, to provide for such as are able, but cannot otherwise get employment: for these joint purposes, they are empowered to make and levy rates upon the several inhabitants of the parish, by the same act of parliament, which has been farther enforced and explained by several subsequent statutes. And, by 17 Geo. II. cap. 38. if any person shall be aggrieved by any thing done or committed by the churchwardens and overseers, or by any of his majesty's justices of the peace, he may, giving *reasonable notice* to the churchwardens or overseers, appeal to the next quarter-sessions, when the same shall be heard and finally determined; but, if reasonable notice be not given, then they shall adjourn the appeal to the next quarter-sessions; and the court may award reasonable costs to either party. By 43 Eliz. c. 2. the churchwardens and overseers shall, within four days after the end of their year, and other overseers nominated, make and yield up to two justices a true and perfect account of all sums by them received, or rated and assessed and not received, and also of such stock as shall be in their hands, or in the hands of any of the poor to work, and of all other things concerning their office; and such sums of money as shall be in their hands shall pay and deliver over to their successors; and the subsequent churchwardens or overseers, by warrant from two such justices, may levy by distress and sale of the offender's goods the said sums or stock which shall be behind on any account to be made; and, in defect of such distress, two such justices may commit him to the common gaol, there to remain, without bail or mainprize, until payment of the said sum and stock: and, also any such two justices may commit to the said prison every one of the said churchwardens and overseers, which shall refuse to account, there to remain, without bail or mainprize, until he have made a true account, and satisfied and paid so much as upon the said account shall be remaining in his hands.

And, by the 17 Geo. II. c. 38, it is enacted as follows: The churchwardens and overseers shall yearly, within fourteen days after other overseers shall be appointed, deliver in to the succeeding overseers a just account in writing, fairly entered in a book to be kept for that purpose, and signed by them, of all sums by them received, or rated and not received; and also of all materials that shall be in their hands, or in the hands of any of the poor to be wrought, and of all money paid by such churchwardens and overseers so accounting, and of all other things concerning their office; and shall also pay and deliver over all sums of money and other things, which shall be in their hands, to the succeeding overseers; which account shall be verified by oath before one justice, who shall sign and attest the taking of the same at the foot of the account, without fee; and the said books shall be preserved by the churchwardens and overseers in some public or other place within the parish or township; and they shall permit any person assessed, or liable to be assessed, to inspect the same at all seasonable times, paying 6*d.* for such inspection; and shall, upon demand, give copies at the rate of 6*d.* for every three hundred words, and so in proportion. And, if they shall refuse or neglect to make and yield up such account, verified as aforesaid, within such time, or shall refuse or neglect to pay over the money and other things in their hands; any two justices may commit them to the common gaol, till they shall have given such account, or shall have paid and yielded up such money and other things in their hands as aforesaid.

And, if any overseer shall remove, he shall, before his removal, deliver over to some churchwarden or other overseer his accounts, verified as aforesaid, with all assessments, books, papers, money, and other things, concerning his office; and, if any overseer shall die, his executors or administrators shall, within forty days after his decease, deliver over all things concerning his office to some churchwarden or other overseer, and shall pay out of the assets

all money remaining due, which he received by virtue of his office, before any of his other debts are paid.

In case of an overseer becoming a bankrupt, the balance of his account is not due till fourteen days after his year is expired.

Overseers, neglecting their duty, shall forfeit for every default 20s. to the poor, to be levied by distress, or be committed to the common gaol. (43 Eliz.) And, by 17 Geo. II. any parish officer, neglecting to observe the directions of that act, shall forfeit, on conviction within two calendar months after the offence committed, a sum not exceeding 5l. nor less than 40s. to the poor, by distress. By 33 Geo. III. c. 55. neglect of duty, or disobedience to any lawful warrant or order of any justice, by any overseer of the poor or other parish-officer, upon complaint on oath, shall incur a fine, imposed by two justices at any special or petty sessions, not exceeding 40s. to be levied by distress, and applied to the use of the poor. Overseers are indemnified in the performance of their duty by 43 Eliz. 1 Jac. c. 5. and 21 Jac. c. 12. the benefit of which latter statute is extended by 26 Geo. II. c. 44.

Churchwardens (by 43 Eliz.) are called overseers of the poor, and they join with the overseers in making a poor-rate, &c. But the churchwardens, having distinct business of their own, usually leave the care of the poor to the overseers only; though anciently they were the sole overseers of the poor.

It seems not to have been determined whether a justice of the peace may be appointed overseer. But it appears to be a prevalent opinion, that the offices of justice of the peace, and overseers of the poor, are incompatible, because the accounts of the latter are subject to the controul of the former.

By 1 W. and M. c. 18. dissenting teachers, qualifying themselves according to the toleration-act, are exempted from being chosen or appointed to serve as overseers. By 18 Geo. II. c. 15. freemen of the corporation of surgeons in London are also exempted; so is an alderman of London. The same is the case with respect to attorneys and practising barristers. It seems also that a clergyman is not liable to serve the office of overseer, even though he have no cure of souls. An officer of the customs is also exempted; and it is said, in Gibson's Codex, 215, that all peers of the realm by reason of their dignity, all clergymen by reason of their order, and all parliamentary men by reason of their privilege, are exempted from the office of churchwarden. See POOR.

TO OVERSET', v. a. To turn bottom upwards; to throw off the basis; to subvert.—Would the confederacy exert itself as much to annoy the enemy as they do for their defence, we might bear them down with the weight of our armies, and *overset* the whole power of France. *Addison on the War.*

The tempests met,
The sailors master'd, and the ship *o'erfet*. *Dryden.*

To throw out of regularity.—His action against Cataline ruined the consul, when it saved the city; for it so swelled his soul, that ever afterwards it was apt to be *overset* with vanity. *Dryden.*

TO OVERSET', v. n. To fall off the basis; to turn upside down.—Part of the weight will be under the axle-tree, which will so far counterpoise what is above it, that it will very much prevent the *oversetting*. *Mortimer.*

O'VERSIGHT, f. Superintendence.—They gave the money, being told, unto them that had the *oversight* of the house. 2 Kings xii. 11.—Feed the flock of God, taking the *oversight* thereof, not by constraint, but willingly. 2 Pet. v. 2.—Mistake; error.—Amongst so many huge volumes as the infinite pains of St. Augustine have brought forth, what one hath gotten greater love, commendation, and honour, than the book wherein he carefully owns his *oversights*, and sincerely condemneth them. *Hooker's Pref.*—They watch their opportunity to take advantage of their adversaries' *oversight*. *Kettlewell.*

Not so his son, he mark'd this *oversight*,
And then mistook reverse of wrong for right. *Pope.*

OVERT', adj. [*ouvert*, Fr.] Open; public; apparent.—My repulse at Hull, was the first *overt* essay to be made how patiently I could bear the loss of my kingdoms. *K. Charles.*

To vouch this, is no proof,
Without more certain and more *overt* test,
Than these thin habits and poor likelihoods. *Shakespeare.*

OVERT ACT, an open act, which, by law, must be manifestly proved. 3 Inst. 12.—Some overt act is to be alleged in every indictment for high treason. And no evidence shall be admitted of any overt-act, that is not expressly laid in the indictment by stat. 7 Will. III. c. 3. *Jacob's Law Dict.*—The design of their destruction may have been projected in the dark; but, when all was ripe, their enemies proceeded to so many *overt acts* in the face of the nation, that it was obvious to the meanest. *Swift.*

TO OVERTAKE, v. a. To catch any thing by pursuit; to come up to something going before.—The enemy said, I will pursue, I will *overtake*, I will divide the spoil. *Exod. xv. 9.*—How must he tremble for fear vengeance should *overtake* him before he has made his peace with God? *Rogers.*

If I had given you this at over-night,
She might have been *o'ertaken*; and yet she writes
Pursuit would be but vain. *Shakespeare.*

I shall see
The winged vengeance *overtake* such children. *Shakesp.*

To take by surprise.—If a man be *overtaken* in a fault, ye which are spiritual restore such a one in the spirit of meekness. *Gal. vi. 1.*—If it fall out that, through infirmity, we be *overtaken* by any temptation, we must labour to rise again, and turn from one sin to God by new and speedy repentance. *Perkins.*

TO OVERTHROW, v. a. preter. *overthrew*; part. *overthrown*.—To turn upside down.—Pittacus was a wife and valiant man, but his wife *overthrew* the table when he had invited his friends. *Bp. Taylor.*—To throw down:

The *overthrown* he rais'd, and as a herd
Drove them before him. *Dryden.*

To ruin; to demolish:
When the walls of Thebes he *overthrew*;
His fatal hand my royal father slew. *Dryden.*

To defeat; to conquer; to vanquish.—Our endeavour is not so much to *overthrow* them with whom we contend, as to yield them reasonable causes. *Hooker.*

To Sujah next your conquering army drew;
Him they surpris'd, and easily *o'erthrew*. *Dryden.*

To destroy; to subvert; to mischief; to bring to nothing.—Thou walkest in peril of thy *overthrowing*. *Ecc. xiii. 13.*—God *overthroweth* the wicked for their wickedness. *Prov.*

O loss of one in heav'n, to judge of wise,
Since Satan fell, whom folly *overthrew*. *Milton's P. L.*

O'VERTHROW, f. The state of being turned upside down.—Ruin; destruction.—Of those Christian oratories the *overthrow* and ruin is desired, not by infidels, pagans, or Turks, but by a special refined sect of Christian believers. *Hooker.*

I serve my mortal foe,
The man who caus'd my country's *overthrow*. *Dryden.*
Defeat; discomfiture.—From these, divers Scots feared more harm by victory than they found among their enemies by their *overthrow*. *Hayward.*

Quiet soul, depart;
For I have seen our enemies' *overthrow*. *Shakespeare.*
Degradation:
His *overthrow* heap'd happiness upon him;
For then, and not till then, he felt himself,
And found the blessedness of being little. *Shakespeare.*

OVERTHROWER,

OVERTHROWER, *f.* He who overthrows.
OVERTHWART, *adj.* Opposite; being over-against.—We whisper, for fear our *overthwart* neighbours should hear us, and betray us to the government. *Dryden*.—Crossing any thing perpendicularly.—Perverse; contradictory; cross.—Without benygnyte, traitouris, *overthwarte*. *Wicliffe*, 2 *Tim.* iii.—Alas, what ayle you to be so *overthwart*? *Skelton*.—Two or three acts disposed them to cross and oppose any proposition; and that *overthwart* humour was discovered to rule in the breasts of many. *Clarendon*.
OVERTHWART, *f.* A cross or adverse circumstance. *Obsolete*:

A heart, well stay'd, in *overthwart's* deep
 Hopeth amends.

Ld. Surrey.

OVERTHWART, *prep.* Across; as, He laid a plank *overthwart* the brook. *This is the original use.*

To **OVERTHWART**, *v. u.* To oppose.—All the practice of the church rashly they break and *overthwart*. *Stapleton's Fort. of the Faith*, 1565.

OVERTHWARTLY, *adv.* Across; transversely.—The brawn of the thigh shall appear, by drawing small hair strokes from the hip to the knee, shadowed again *overthwart*. *Peacham on Drawing*.—Pervicaciously; perversely.

OVERTHWARTNESS, *f.* Posture across.—Pervicacity; perverseness.—My younger sister indeed might have been married to a far greater fortune, had not the *overthwartness* of some neighbours interrupted it. *Ld. Herbert*.

OVERTLY, *adv.* Openly.—Good men are never *overtly* despised, but that they are first calumniated. *Dean Young's Sermons*.

OVERTON, a small town and parish in the Kingsclere-division of the county of Southampton, is situated on the great western road, at the distance of three miles east-north-east from Whitechurch, and fifty-four miles west-south-west from London. It was formerly a borough, and sent two members to parliament; but lost this privilege by neglect. The parish contains the tythings of Pollhampton, Quidhampton, and Southington; and, according to the population-returns of 1811, the houses were computed at 231, and the inhabitants at 1178, in number.

The market, if it subsists, is on Monday; but Wilkes's Directory says that it is discontinued; that the market-house is entirely taken away; and that part of Sapley-farm, which is half a mile from the town, is built with some of the materials. The church is about a quarter of a mile from the heart of the place, and stands upon a rising ground.

The soil about Overton for miles every way is extremely good for barley; and large quantities of excellent malt are made here and in the neighbouring villages and towns; particularly at Kingsclere, which sends a great deal to London every season. Here is a fine stream for trout, which rises in a marshy ground in the parish of Ashe, about a mile from Overton. It drives three corn-mills, and a very large silk-mill. The silk-mill was built in the year 1769 by Thomas Streetwells and Thomas Adkins, esqrs. It is a curious piece of building, in the form of a long square, and employs a great number of men, women, and children. Here is also a paper-mill. There are four fairs in a year, viz. the 4th of May, Whit-Monday, the 18th of July, and the 22d of October, all principally for sheep and lambs; that on the 18th of July is the most capital fair for lambs in the county.

OVERTON, a village in Flintshire, North Wales, eight miles south of Wrexham; it has four fairs, on Monday before Holy Thursday, June 11, August 29, and October 18.

OVERTON, a village in Gloucestershire, near Arlingham.

OVERTON, a county of North America, in West Tennessee; containing 5643 inhabitants, of whom 355 are slaves.

OVERTURE, *f.* [*overture*, Fr.] An opening; an aperture; an open place.—The foundations, the walls, the apertions or *overtures*. *Wotton on Architecture*.—In the center of the earth there is nothing but perfect darkness; nearer the upper region of that great body, where any *overture* is made, there is a kind of imperfect twilight. *Bp. Hall's Remains*.

Under its base there is an *overture*,
 Which summer-weeds do render so obscure,
 The careless traveller may pass, and ne'er
 Discover. *Cotton's Wonders of the Peak*.

Opening; disclosure; discovery:

I wish you'd in your silent judgment try'd it.
 Without more *overture*. *Shakespeare's Wint. Tale*.

Proposal; something offered to consideration.—Withstand the *overtures* of ill, and be intent and serious in good. *Fell*.

We with open breast
 Stand ready to receive them, if they like
 Our *overture*, and turn not back perverse. *Milton's P. L.*

A musical composition played at the beginning of an oratorio, concert, or opera.—The *overture* disposes the mind to that mood which fits it for the opening of the piece. *A. Smith on the Imt. Arts*.

To **OVERTUR'N**, *v. a.* To throw down; to topple down; to subvert; to ruin.—He is wise in heart and mighty in strength; which removeth the mountains, and *overturneth* them in his anger. *Job*.—If we will not encourage public works of beneficence, till we are secure that no storm shall *overturn* what we help to build; there is no room left for charity. *Atterbury*.

A monument of deathless fame

A woman's hand *o'erturns*.

Rowe.

To overpower; to conquer.—Pain excessive *overturns* all patience. *Milton*.

OVERTUR'N, *f.* State of being turned upside down; an overthrow.—No awkward *overturns* of glasses, plates, and salt-cellar. *Ld. Chesterfield's Letters*.

OVERTUR'NABLE, *adj.* That may be overturned.—Sir W. Petty gave an account of a commodious land-carriage he had lately contrived, far more secure than any coach; not being *overturnable* by any high on which the wheels can possibly move. *Hist. Royal Soc.*

OVERTURNER, *f.* Subverter.—I have brought before you a robber of the public treasure, an *overturner* of law and justice, and the destruction of the Sicilian province. *Swift*.

To **OVERWHELM**, *v. a.* To crush underneath something violent and weighty.—How trifling an apprehension is the shame of being laughed at by fools, when compared with that everlasting shame and astonishment which shall *overwhelm* the sinner when he shall appear before the tribunal of Christ. *Rogers*.

Back do I tofs these treasures to thy head,
 With the hell-hated lie *o'erwhelm* thy heart. *Shakespeare*.

Blind they rejoice, though now, even now, they fall;
 Death hastes amain; one hour *o'erwhelms* them all. *Pope*.

To overlook gloomily.—In tatter'd weeds, with *overwhelming* brows. *Shakespeare*.

Let the brow *o'erwhelm* it,
 As fearfully as doth a galled rock
 O'erhang and jutty his confounded base. *Shakespeare*.

To put over.—Then I *overwhelm* a broader pipe about the first. *Dr. Papin's Hist. R. Soc.*

OVERWHELM, *f.* The act of overwhelming. *Not received*:

An *overwhelm*
 Of wonderful on man's astonish'd sight. *Young*.

OVERWHELMINGLY, *adv.* In such a manner as to overwhelm. *Inelegant, and not in use*.—Men should not tolerate

tolerate themselves one minute in any known sin, nor impudently betray their souls to ruin for that which they call light and trivial; which is so indeed in respect of the acquiescent, but *overwhelmingly* ponderous in regard of the pernicious consequence. *Decay of Chr. Piety.*

OUESS'ANT. See USHANT.

OUE'ZE, a river of France, which runs into the Sorgue four miles north-north-east of Avignon.

OUGEIN, or OOEJIN, a city of India, the capital of the Mahratta chief Dowlut Rao Scindia, in the province of Malwa, his hereditary territory. See MAHRATTAS and MALWA, vol. xi.

The present city of Ougein is of an oblong form, about six miles in circumference, and surrounded by a stone wall with round towers. Within this space there is some waste ground, but the inhabited part occupies by far the greatest portion; it is much crowded with buildings, and is very populous. The houses are built partly of brick, partly of wood. Of the brick houses the frame is first constructed of wood, and the interstices filled up with brick. They are covered either with lime, tarra, or tiles. The principal bazar, or market, is a spacious and regular street, paved with stone. The houses on each side are of two stories; the lower, to which you mount from the street by five or six steps, are mostly built of stone, and taken up with shops; the upper, of brick or wood, serve for the habitations of the owners. The most remarkable buildings are four mosques, erected by private individuals, and a great number of Hindoo temples. Of the latter the most considerable is a little way out of the town, at a place called Unk-pat, held in great veneration, as being that where Krishna and his brother received the rudiments of their education. Here is a stone tank, with steps leading down to the water's edge, said to be of great antiquity; but it has been of late years enclosed with a stone wall, and two temples have been erected within the inclosure. These temples are square, with pyramidal roofs. That on the right, as you enter the gate, contains the images of Rama, Lakshman, and Sita, in white marble; and that on the left, those of Krishna and Radha, the first in black, the second in white, marble. All these figures are well executed. Scindia's palace is an extensive and sufficiently commodious house, but without any claim to magnificence; and it is so closely surrounded by other buildings, as to make but little appearance on the outside. Near it is a gate, the only remains of a fort, said to have been built soon after the overthrow of the ancient city, which affords a good specimen of the old Hindoo architecture.

Within the city, and near the eastern wall, is a hill of a considerable height, on the top of which is a Hindoo temple of Mahadeva, and adjoining to it the tomb of a Mussulman saint. This hill is conspicuous from a distance, and a spectator from the top of it commands an extensive prospect on every side. To the northward he sees, at the distance of four miles, the rude and massy structure of Kalideh, or Calydeh, an ancient palace, built on an island in the river Sipparah, by a king of the family of Gour. A description of this extraordinary fabric is inserted in the Oriental Repertory, vol. i. from a letter of sir C. W. Malet, dated Oujein, 13th of April, 1785. By an extract from a history of Malwa, or Malava, these buildings appear to have been constructed by, or in the reign of, sultan Nasir ud-deen Gilgee, who ascended the throne of Malava in the year of the Hegira 905, (A. D. 1500,) and reigned eleven years. These singular buildings, we may judge from their name, were erected or consecrated to the honour of Kali, consort of Mahadeva, (see those articles,) to whom the temple on the hill within the city appears above to be dedicated. There are two square buildings, each covered with a hemispherical cupola, and divided below into eight apartments, besides the space in the centre. The communication to the island is by a stone bridge over one of the branches into which the river Sipparah is here divided. Below the bridge are several

apartments constructed on a level with the water; and the rocky bed of the river is cut into channels of various regular forms, such as circles, spirals, squares, &c. to which, in the dry season, the current is confined. Turning to the westward, the spectator, from the top of the hill above-mentioned, traces the winding course of the Sipparah through a fertile valley, where fields of corn and clumps of fruit-trees, intersecting, diversify the prospect, till his attention is arrested by the fort of Beiroungurh, situated close on the opposite bank. It is about a quarter of a mile in length, surrounded by a rampart of earth; and contains an ancient temple, dedicated to the tutelary divinity of the place, whose name it bears. *Beiroungurh* means the Fort of Beiroun, or Bheroo, a Mahratta pronunciation of Bhairava, the offspring of Mahadeva. In the Sanscrit language Bhairava means *tremendous*. Still farther up the stream, and nearly opposite to the middle of the town, are the gardens of two Mahratta nobles, containing the luxuries of nature, with extensive artificial decorations. Beyond these, at the distance of half a mile from the river, is a grove of trees on a rising ground. It contains the tomb of a Mahometan saint; and is remarkable for having been the scene of a bloody action, fought about the year 1762, between Madajee Scindia and one of his rebellious officers, named Raghu, who marched to Ougein at the head of thirty thousand men to attack his sovereign with only five or six thousand. With this inequality the fight began on the plain near the tomb above-mentioned; but Scindia was joined by a party of six thousand Gofains, (religious mendicants,) and, a chance-shot killing Raghu, the rebel party was wholly routed.

The south wall of Ougein is washed by the Sipparah, which here makes a sudden turning. This extremity of the city is called *Jeyfing-poorah*, that is, the Quarter of Jeyfing, and contains an observatory, built by the enlightened and liberal rajah of that name. He also built observatories at four other cities, viz. at Ambheer, his own capital, (since named from him Jeynagar,) Matra, Benares, and Delhi. He published, in 1728, a set of astronomical tables, which, in compliment to the then reigning emperor, he entitled *Zij Mahommedshahy*. Of these five observatories, and the astronomical tables, and labours in that science, of this illustrious prince the rajah Jeyfing, (or more correctly Jayasinha,) a learned and very interesting account is given in vol. v. of the Asiatic Researches, by Dr. W. Hunter, from whose "Narrative of a Journey from Agra to Oujein," in vol. vi. of that work, this article is chiefly taken. See the article BENARES, vol. ii.

The rajah Jeyfing held the city and territory of Ougein of the emperor, in quality of subahdar; but it soon after fell into the hands of the Mahrattas, and has belonged to the family of Scindia for three generations. The district depending immediately on the city yields a revenue of five lacks of rupees (60,000l.) per annum, and comprehends 175 villages. The officers of government are almost the only Mahratta inhabitants of Ougein. The bulk of the people, both Hindoos and Mussulmans, speak a dialect very little different from that of Agra and Delhi. The Mussulmans form a very considerable portion of the inhabitants; and of these the tribe of *Bohras* amounts to about 1500 families. This singular tribe forms a large society in most of the cities and large towns of Hindoostan and the Deccan. Surat is said to contain 6000 families. The head-quarters of the tribe are Burhanpoor, where their *moulla*, or high-priest, resides. A younger brother of the moulla resides in Ougein. They exercise both a temporal and spiritual authority over their sect, which forms the most useful and industrious class of the inhabitants.

The soil in the vicinity of Ougein, and indeed over the greatest part of the province of Malwa, is a black vegetable mould, which, in the rainy season, becomes so soft, that travelling is hardly practicable. On drying, it cracks in all directions; and the fissures are so wide and deep in many parts by the road-side, that it is dangerous for a traveller to go off the beaten track; as a horse, getting his

foot into one of these fissures, endangers his own limbs, and the life of his rider. The quantity of rain that falls in ordinary seasons is so considerable, and the ground so retentive of moisture, that wells are rarely used for agricultural irrigation. A great part of the labour, incident to cultivation in other parts of India, is thus saved. But this very circumstance makes the suffering more severe on a failure of the periodical rains; for the husbandman, accustomed to depend on the spontaneous bounty of heaven, is unprovided with wells, and is with difficulty brought to undertake the unusual labours of irrigation, especially as they must commence with digging the sources. There are, as in other parts of Hindoostan, two harvests in Malwa; the first in March and April, the second in September and October. Wheat, pease, and various sorts of vetches, ripen in the first. Barley is not cultivated, nor rice, otherwise than in small detached low spots. Grapes are abundant. Ougein is first supplied from Burhanpoor, a very large and flourishing town, more than 100 miles to the southward. By the time the Burhanpoor grapes are exhausted, in April, those of Ougein ripen, but are inferior to the former. The vines produce a second crop in the rainy season, but of an acidulous and much inferior grape. The other fruits are the mango, guava, plantain, melon, water-melon, two species of annona (squamosa and reticulata), several varieties of oranges and limes, the falfah (Grewia Asiatica), from which is made a most refreshing sherbet.

The principal articles of export trade are cotton, which is sent in large quantities to Guzerat for the Bombay and China market, coarse printed cloths, and opium. From Bombay, through Surat, are received various kinds of European and China goods, many of which are sometimes to be purchased cheaper at Ougein than in the English settlements; also pearls, which are partly used here, and partly forwarded to Hindoostan. Assafetida, which is produced in Sind and provinces beyond it, comes hither, on its way to the eastward, to Mirzapoor, &c. and diamonds, from Bundelcund to Surat.

The situation of this city is of importance, because it is considered as the first meridian by Hindoo geographers and astronomers. By the medium of eleven observations of Jupiter's first and second satellites, Dr. Hunter determined its lon. to be 75. 51. E. from Greenwich; its lat. by a medium of eight observations, he made 23. 11. 13. N. It may be roundly reckoned about 300 miles north-east from Surat, and something more south from Agra. Indore, the capital of the Mahratta family of Holkar, is about twenty miles in a southerly direction, and Bopal (properly Bhupala) about 100 to the eastward.

The ancient city of Ougein was situated about a mile to the northward; and now lies, and has for many centuries lain, buried in the earth to the depth of from fifteen to eighteen feet. On digging, its walls are said to be found entire, pillars erect and unbroken, pieces of wood of extraordinary hardness, &c. The bricks thus dug up are now applied to the purposes of building, but are much larger than any made in the present or late ages. Utensils of various kinds have been found, and ancient coins. Very little, however, has been yet done towards developing the present state of this submerged city; the interesting Herculaneum of India. Dr. Hunter noticed a large quantity of wheat that was found while he was there; it was in a charred state; a potter's kiln he also saw, filled with broken earthen vessels. Tradition imputes the destruction of the city to a shower of earth, an idea likely to have originated in superficial observation; for, although Dr. Hunter observed no volcanic hills nor scoria in the neighbourhood, and thinks the state and position of the walls and pillars militate against the supposition of an earthquake having effected the submergence of the city, it is yet difficult to impute it to any other than a volcanic cause, operating perhaps with less violence and convulsion than have attended similar phenomena in other countries, and combined with, or rather causing, an inun-

dation of the river. A change in the course of the river is said to have taken place at the time; and an ancient bed is now traceable. A destructive inundation was witnessed and recorded by Dr. Hunter; and it would appear that the neighbourhood of Ougein is particularly subject to inundation; and, when the loose friable nature of the soil is considered, it seems most reasonable to resort to an alluvial hypothesis, to account for the submergence of the ancient city. But, whatever may have been the real cause of the catastrophe, it cannot be supposed that the wild fancies of Hindoo historians would suffer the fact to be simply told. It must be dressed up in a mythological allegory. In fable or fact the interventions of the gods cannot be dispensed with. The following story is accordingly related.

A certain Gandharva, or celestial chorister, was condemned, for an affront to the god Indra, to be born on earth in the shape of an ass; but, on entreaty, the sentence was mitigated, and he was allowed at night to assume the form and functions of a man. This incarnation took place at Ougein in the reign of rajah Sadavafena, whose daughter was demanded in marriage by the ass; and his consent was obtained, on learning the divine origin of his intended son-in-law, confirmed, as he witnessed, by certain prodigies. All day he lived in the stable like an ass; at night, secretly slipping out of his skin, and assuming the appearance of a handsome and accomplished young prince, he repaired to the palace, and enjoyed the conversation of his beauteous and happy bride. In due time the princess became pregnant; and, her chastity being suspected, she revealed to her inquisitive parents the mystery of her spouse's delectable nocturnal metamorphosis; which the rajah, (or, by other accounts, the mother,) being conveniently concealed, himself beheld; and, unwilling that his son should return to his uncouth disguise, set fire to, and consumed, the vacant ass's skin. Rejoiced at his release, for this event appears to have broken the spell, the incarnate Gandharva warned his beloved wife to quit the city, which he foresaw was about to be overwhelmed with a shower of earth, from the resentment of Indra, thus disappointed of his vengeance in the termination of the banishment of his insolent servant. She fled accordingly to a village at a safe distance, and brought forth a son named *Vikramaditya*; and a shower of *cold earth*, poured down by Indra, buried the city and its inhabitants.

It may be here noticed that this fable, wild as it is, affords still some confirmation of the supposition of an inundation during the rainy season having destroyed the city. For Indra is the god of showers; and such an event would of course be attributed to the vengeance of the Jupiter Pluvius of the Hindoo Pantheon, in the same manner as we frequently find the case in the natural phenomena mythologized in the Iliad.

The seeming fable has also another feature of historic truth; for *Vikramaditya*, so distinguished in his origin and birth, is no less so as a monarch and an astronomer. His name marks an era much used all over India, of which the 1869th year corresponds with 1813 of our's. Several monarchs of Malwa of this name are however recorded; and differences of opinion exist on some chronological points connected with this era. (See *As. Res.* vol. ix.) The *Vikrama* in question is, however, particularly distinguished by the surname of his putative parent, who is called *Gardha-rupa*, or the Ass-faced; and his era is hence to be ascertained with more accuracy than is usually obtainable on remote points of Hindoo chronology. He was the third *Vikramaditya*; and appears, by several historical coincidences, to have ascended the throne of Malwa in the year of Christ 441. It hence appears that the city sunk about 1400 years ago. The story of the ass, variously modified, is widely spread in the popular tales of India, Persia, Turkey, Arabia, and other oriental countries; and has found its way even into the literature and legends of Europe.

The

The classical name of this city is *Ujjaini*, not materially altered in its present designations. It is also called *Avanti* in the Puranas, is much venerated by the Hindoos, and is one of the most celebrated for producing great and learned men among the cities of India. If Benares has been thought to deserve the name of the Athens, Oujein may lay claim to the honour of being the Florence, of Hindoostan. From this circumstance we have been induced to be more diffuse than is usual with us in like cases, in our account of this city, which, and the legends connected with it, furnish ample subjects for the descriptive and fabulous details of Puranic romance. From this source we shall notice one more tale, or rather a variation of that already given, accounting for one of the ancient names of the city; premising, however, that such tales being found in the Puranas, fully prove those books, a portion of them at least, to have been written subsequent to the catastrophe that they describe. The varied legend to which we advert, says that, the curse having expired in the consumption of his asinine disguise, the Gandharva ascended to the heaven of Indra; and that his wife, resolving to die, ripped open her belly, took out the child, and gave it to a *mahini* (gardener's wife) to nurse. She took it to Ujjaini; and, from the signal preservation of the child in that city, it obtained the name of *Avanti*, from the Sanscrit *ava*, to preserve.

The city of Oujein appears evidently, both as to name and position, in the Periplus of the Erythrean Sea as well as in Ptolemy, under the name of *Ozœna*. *Asiatic Researches*, vol. vi.

OUGH, *f.* [aphr̥, that is, a whit, Sax. This word is therefore more properly written AUGHT.] Any thing; not nothing.—He asked him if he saw *ought*. *Mark* viii. 23.

O Universal Lord! be bounteous still
To give us only good; and, if the night
Have gather'd *ought* of evil, or conceal'd,
Disperse it, as now light dispels the dark. *Milton's P.L.*

OUGH, *verb imperfect*; in the second person *oughtest*. This word the etymologists make the preterite of *owe*, but it has often a present signification. [Preterite of *owe*.] Owed; was bound to pay; have been indebted.—Apprehending the occasion, I will add a continuance to that happy motion, and besides give you some tribute of the love and duty I long have *ought* you. *Spelman*.

This blood which men by treason sought,
That followed, sir, which to myself I *ought*. *Dryden*.

[Preterite of *owe*, in the sense of *own*.] Had a right to.—The knight, the which that castle *ought*. *Spenser*.

Where is the booty,
And where is eke your friend which half it *ought*?
Spenser.

To be obliged by duty.—Know how thou *oughtest* to behave. 1 *Tim.* iii. 15.—Judges *ought* to remember, that their office is to interpret law, and not to make or give law. *Bacon*.—We *ought* to profess our dependance upon him, and our obligations to him for the good things we enjoy. We *ought* to publish to the world our sense of his goodness with the voice of praise, and tell of all his wondrous works. We *ought* to comfort his servants and children in their afflictions, and relieve his poor distressed members in their manifold necessities; for he that giveth alms sacrificeth praise. *Nelson*.

She acts just as he *ought*,
But never, never, reach'd one gen'rous thought. *Pope*.

To be fit; to be necessary.—These things *ought* not so to be. *James* iii. 10.—If grammar *ought* to be taught, it must be to one that can speak the language already. *Locke*.—Applied to persons, it has a sense not easily explained. To be fit or necessary that he should.—*Ought* not Christ to have suffered? *Luke*.—*Ought* is both of the present and past tenses, and of all persons except the second singular.

OUGH'TER LOUGH. See LOUGH, vol. xiii.

OUGH'TERARD, a small post-town of Ireland, in the county of Galway, situated on Lough Corrib. The rocks here are of black and white marble. It is 120 miles west by north from Dublin, and about 14 north-west from Galway.

OUGH'TRED (William), an English divine and very eminent mathematician, was born at Eton in Buckinghamshire, about the year 1573. Having been educated upon the foundation of that school, he was elected thence, in 1592, to King's College, Cambridge, of which, after the regular time of probation, he was admitted fellow. Here he applied with great assiduity to the different branches of academical learning, and particularly that of the mathematics, to which the bent of his genius most powerfully directed him. He read all the ancient authors in this science, examining diligently the sagacity of their invention, and careful to comprehend the peculiar force and elegance of their demonstrations. While he was yet an under-graduate, he invented "An easy Method of Geometrical Dialling," which was not given to the public before the year 1647, but was privately received with so much esteem, that Mr. (afterwards Sir Christopher) Wren, at that time a scholar of Wadham-college in Oxford, immediately translated it into Latin. This piece was added to the second edition of the author's "Clavis." In 1596 Mr. Oughtred was admitted to the degree of B. A. and in 1599 he commenced M. A. In the year 1600, he projected "A Horizontal Instrument" for delineating dials upon any kind of plane, and for working most questions which could be performed by the globe. An account of this invention he gave to be published in 1633, together with his "Circles of Proportion," by William Foster, who had been one of his pupils. About the year 1603, Mr. Oughtred was ordained priest, and presented to the rectory of Aldbury, near Guildford in Surrey; upon which he quitted the university, and resided upon his living, distinguishing himself by the faithful and diligent discharge of his pastoral duties. Here he led a retired and studious life, seldom travelling so far as London once a-year, his principal recreation consisting in a diversity of studies. "As oft," says he, "as I was toiled with the labours of my own profession, I have allayed that tediousness by walking in the pleasant and more than Elysian fields of the diverse and various parts of human learning, and not of the mathematics only." So high was his reputation for mathematical knowledge, that his house was continually filled with young gentlemen who came thither for his instructions, and many of the chief mathematicians of that age owed much of their skill to him. He also maintained a correspondence with some of the most eminent scholars of his time upon mathematical subjects. In the year 1614, Mr. Briggs, professor of geometry at Gresham-college, having met with lord Napier's newly-published account of his invention of logarithms, and desiring to perfect his lordship's plan, consulted Mr. Oughtred upon the subject, who probably wrote his treatise on Trigonometry about this time, since it is evidently formed upon the plan of lord Napier's work. It was not published, however, before the year 1657, when it appeared under the title of "Trigonometria; hoc est modus computandi Triangulorum Latra et Angulos, ex canone mathematico traditus et demonstratus. Una cum Tabulis Sinum, Tangent. et Secant." &c. 4to. and in the same year, an English edition of it was also published at London, in 4to. In prosecuting the same subject, he invented, not many years afterwards, his instrument called "The Circles of Proportion," mentioned above, by which all such questions in arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and navigation, as depended upon simple and compound proportion, might be worked; and it was the first sliding-rule that was projected for those uses, as well as those of gauging. About the year 1628, Mr. Oughtred being engaged by the earl of Arundel to become mathematical tutor to his son lord William Howard, for the

use of his noble pupil he drew up "Arithmetica in Numero et Speciebus Institutio: quæ tum Logistica, tum Analytica, atque adeo totius Mathematica, quasi Clavis est," which he published in 1631, 8vo. This work was intended by the author to serve as a general key to the mathematics; and was found to contain so many excellent theorems, several of which were entirely new, both in algebra and geometry, that it met with a favourable reception from the first mathematicians of the age, both at home and abroad; and the general plan of it has been since followed by the best authors upon the subject. An English version of it was published in 1647, 8vo. under the title of "The Key of the Mathematics new forged and filed; together with a Treatise of the Resolution of affected Equations in Numbers; with the Rule of Compound Usury; and a Demonstration of the Rule of False Position; and a most easy Art of delineating all Manner of plain Sun Dials, geometrically taught." In the following year, it was reprinted in Latin, with the additional tracts in the English version, under the title of "Gulielmi Oughtredi Zetonensis, quondam Collegii Regalis in Cantabrigia, Socii, Clavis Mathematica denuo limata sive potius fabricata," &c. 8vo. A third edition of it in Latin was published in 1652, with still further additions, consisting of a treatise on the use of logarithms; a declaration of the tenth book of Euclid's Elements; a treatise of regular solids; and the theorems contained in the books of Archimides. This work of our author had now become a standard-book with tutors in the instruction of mathematical pupils at the universities, especially at Cambridge; and some parts of it were made the subjects of the geometrical lectures at Gresham-college in London. In the year 1636, Mr. Oughtred published a treatise, entitled "Description and Use of the double Horizontal Dial," 8vo. The pieces which he published at subsequent dates, have already been introduced to our readers in the preceding narrative.

Notwithstanding all his mathematical merit, he was in danger, about the year 1646, of a sequestration by the committee for plundered ministers, several articles having been deposed and sworn against him, material enough, as it is said, to have sequestered him. But, upon his day of hearing, William Lilly, the famous astrologer, applied to sir Bulstrode Whitlocke, and all his old friends, who appeared in such numbers on his behalf, that, though the chairman and many other members were active against him, he was acquitted by the majority. "The truth is," says Lilly, in the History of his own Life and Times, where he styles Mr. Oughtred the most famous mathematician then in Europe, "he had a considerable personage; and that alone was enough to sequester any moderate judgement: besides, he was also well known to affect his majesty." In these times, when, as David Lloyd observes in his Memoirs, "he was little observed in England, he was much requested to have lived in Italy, France, and Holland." The same writer gives us this character of him: that he was "as facetious in Greek and Latin, as solid in arithmetic, astronomy, and the sphere of all measures, music, &c. exact in his style as in his judgment; handling his cube and other instruments at eighty as steadily as others did at thirty; owing this, he said, to temperance and archery; principling his people with plain and solid truths, as he did the world with great and useful arts; *advancing new inventions in all things but religion, which, in its old order and decency, he maintained secure in his privacy, prudence, meekness, simplicity, resolution, patience, and contentment.*" He died in 1660, at the great age of eighty-six; and his death is said to have been occasioned by a sudden ecstasy of joy, upon hearing of the vote which passed at Westminster for the restoration of Charles II.

Oughtred had a son, whom he put apprentice to a watchmaker; and he wrote for his use a book of instructions in that art. He left behind him a great number of manuscripts upon mathematical subjects; and most of

his Greek and Latin books contained notes in his own hand-writing, with an abridgment of almost every proposition and demonstration in the margin. These books and manuscripts came into the possession of Mr. William Jones, the father of the late excellent sir William Jones; and afterwards into the hands of his friend sir Charles Scarborough, the physician, who carefully selected such of the manuscripts as were found fit for the press, and printed them at Oxford in 1676, under the title of "Opuscula Mathematica hætenus inedita," 8vo. In the year 1660, sir Jonas Moore annexed to his Arithmetic, then printed in 8vo. a treatise, entitled "Conical Sections, or, the several Sections of a Cone; being an Analysis or methodical Contraction of the two first Books of Mydorgius, and whereby the nature of the Parabola, Hyperbola, and Ellipsis, is very plainly laid down. Translated from the Papers of the learned William Oughtred." We cannot conclude this article without observing, that, though our author was undoubtedly a very great mathematician, yet he was far from having the happiest method of treating the several subjects on which he wrote. His style and manner were very concise, obscure, and dry; and his rules and precepts so involved in symbols and abbreviations, that his mathematical writings were rendered very troublesome to the reader, and very difficult to be understood. *Gen. Biog. Martin's Biog. Phil. Hutton's Math. Dict.*

OU'GLY. See HOOGLY.

OU'GLY, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Sanore: fourteen miles north-east of Konapour, and seventy-five west of Sanore.

OUGUE'LA, a town of Portugal, in the province of Alentejo: four miles north-north-east of Campo Mayor, and six south of Albuquerque in Spain. Lat. 38. 54. N. lon. 6. 43. W.

OUGUE'LA, a town of Africa, in the country of Tripoli.

OVID, a town of New York: 160 miles north-west of New York.

OVID, or PUBLIUS OVIDIUS NASO, one of the most celebrated of the Roman poets, was born in the consulate of Hirtius and Pansa, B.C. 43, at Sulmo, in the territory of the Peligni, the present Abruzzo. He was of an ancient equestrian family; and was sent in his youth to Rome, together with a brother, a year older, to be educated in liberal studies under the best masters. A propensity to poetry was his earliest and ruling passion; and it was not without difficulty that his father could prevail upon him to relinquish the unproductive culture of the muses for the thriving pursuits of the law. He appears, however, to have made a good progress in forensic eloquence and judicial knowledge; for he mentions having pleaded causes successfully in the centumviral court, and having as a judge decided private affairs, and sat as one of the triumvirs to whom criminal jurisdiction was committed. His brother died at the age of twenty; and Ovid, probably no longer obliged to follow the law as a gainful profession, deserted the courts, and gave himself up to pleasure and poetry. His talents and amiable qualities introduced him to the politest society in Rome; and he has recorded his intimacy with several of the brightest ornaments of the court of Augustus. He was thrice married: the first time, when scarcely arrived at years of maturity, to one whom he represents as an unsuitable partner; the second, to a blameless spouse, but not capable of inspiring a lasting attachment; and from these two he seems to have been divorced, according to the loose practice of that age. His third wife, Perilla, of whom he speaks with great affection, and by whom he had a daughter, adhered to him in all fortunes, and probably survived him. From the licentiousness of some of his poems, and the acquaintance he displays with the arts of intrigue, there can be little doubt that he also indulged in transitory amours. He seems to have lived in ease and affluence, possessing a house in Rome near the capitol,

capitol, and pleasant gardens on the Appian way, as well as a villa in his native country.

A lively genius and a fertile imagination gained him many admirers; Virgil, Propertius, Tibullus, and Horace, honoured him with their correspondence, and Augustus patronised him with the most unbounded liberality. He had rendered himself famous by several poetical compositions, when, at about the age of fifty, he suddenly incurred a sentence of banishment, which was never revoked, and which made him an exile for the remainder of his life. The true cause of this circumstance has never been known. Few incidents in classical biography have more excited the discussion of the curious than this; still a mystery hangs upon it which no elucidation can thoroughly clear. He has himself assigned two reasons for the anger of Augustus: one, and that the ostensible cause, though certainly not the true reason, the licentiousness of his juvenile poems; the other, he says, was "an error not a crime," something of which his eyes had been guilty, not his intentions:

Cur aliquid vidi? Cur noxia lumina feci?

Cur imprudens cognita culpa mihi est?

Inscius Aetæon vidit sine veste Dianam,

Præda fuit canibus non minus ille suis.

Again,

Inscia quod crimen viderunt lumina plector,
Peccatumque oculos est habuisse meum.

And in another place,

Perdiderunt cum me duo crimina, carmen et error,
Alterius facti culpa silenda mihi est.

It was something in which the emperor's feelings were particularly concerned; some attribute it to an amour of Ovid with Livia, the wife of Augustus; while others suppose it arose from the knowledge which the poet, involuntarily, had of the shocking incest of the emperor with his daughter Julia.

The place of Ovid's exile was Tomi, a town in Scythia, near the Euxine Sea, and not far from the mouths of the Danube. His elegiac epistles from that place are full of complaints of the severity of the climate, the wildness of the scenery, and the savage manners of the surrounding people. In his banishment he betrayed his pusillanimity in a great degree; and, however affected and distressed his situation was, yet the flattery and impatience which he showed in his writings are a disgrace to his pen, and lay him more open to ridicule than to pity. Though he prostituted his pen and his time to adulation, yet the emperor proved deaf to all entreaties, and refused to listen to his most ardent friends at Rome who wished for his return. Ovid, who really wished for a Brutus to deliver Rome of her tyrannical Augustus, still continued his flattery even to meanness; and, when the emperor died, he was so mercenary as to consecrate a small temple to the departed tyrant on the shore of the Euxine, where he regularly offered frankincense every morning. Tiberius proved as regardless as his predecessor to the entreaties which were made for the poet, and he died in the seventh or eighth year of his banishment, in the fifty-seventh year of his age. He was buried at Tomi, the people of which place are said to have mourned publicly for him, and to have erected a stately monument to his memory without the walls of their city.

Ovid was a copious writer, and the greater part of his works has come down to our times. Those which we possess are his "Heroical Epistles," composed in the characters of distinguished lovers in the heroical ages; his elegies, entitled "*Amorum*," and books on the "Art of Love;" his fifteen books of "*Metamorphoses*;" his six books of "*Fasti*" on the Roman calendar, which are only half the number that he composed; his elegiac lamentations entitled "*Tristia*," and "*Epistolæ ex Ponto*." Besides these, there is his "*Ibis*," written in imitation of a

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poem of Callimachus of the same title, which is a satirical performance: there are also fragments of other poems; among these, some of a tragedy entitled "*Medea*." The loss of half the *Fasti* is to be greatly regretted, as it is probable it contained much valuable and interesting information respecting the religious antiquities of the Romans. The tragedy of *Medea* was regarded as one of the best productions of the Roman theatre.

It is unnecessary here to enter into the particular merits of works so well known to the classical reader as those of Ovid. In general it may be said of him, that, in the qualities of faculty and ingenuity, he probably surpassed every other poet, ancient and modern. There is no subject which, in his hands, does not turn into poetry, or, at least, into elegant verse. His vein is inexhaustible; and his principal faults arise from that superabundance of wit and fancy which is apt to run him out of breath, while he chafes one thought or image after another. He abounds, beyond any other ancient, with points and turns of expression, sometimes really beautiful and striking, often deviating into trifling puerility. In his happiest moods, he describes with wonderful force and vivacity; sometimes splendid and picturesque, sometimes elegantly chaste and simple. With all his tendency to superfluity, no one has exceeded him in the neat and energetic brevity with which he occasionally gives a moral sentiment; so that his works are an admirable store of mottoes and sentences. He is sometimes, though rarely, sublime; often brilliant, frequently pathetic, and almost always amusing. If he does not rank with the very first class of poets, he certainly is one of the most agreeable. He possessed great erudition, as well as imagination; and poetical history is indebted to him for some of its choicest ornaments. The editions of the whole and of parts of his works have been extremely numerous. Among the most valuable of the whole may be mentioned Heinſius's, Elzev. 3 vol. 12mo. 1629, frequently reprinted; Burman's, Amst. 4 vol. 4to. 1727; Wetſtein's, Amst. 3 vol. 12mo. 1751; Barbou's, Paris, 3 vol. 12mo. 1762; and Fischer's, Lips. 4 vol. 8vo. 1773. *Gen. Biog. Ency. Brit.*—It is to be lamented that there is no good complete translation of the works of this elegant poet.

OVIDUCT, *f.* [from the Lat. *ovum*, an egg, and *ductus*, a passage.] A passage for the egg from the ovary to the womb.—The torpedo's ovarium is near the liver and double *oviduct* and womb, wherein the young ones swim free, and have no communication with the womb. *Hist. R. Soc.*

OVIEDA, *f.* [named by Linnæus in honour of Gonzalvo Ferdinando d'Oviedo, otherwise de Valde, a Spanish divine, who, in the reign of Ferdinand V. was superintendent of the gold-mines of South America, and resided at Santa Maria in Darien, of which he was rector. He wrote a History of the West Indies, containing an account of many American plants; which may be seen in the Collection of Voyages published by the Giunti at Venice in 1556, and which is taken from the Spanish edition printed at Toledo in 1526. Of this there are English, Italian, and French, translations. Plumier, who first established the present genus, called it *Valdia*, which Linnæus properly corrected.] In botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order angiospermia, natural order of personate, (caprifolia, *Juss.*) Generic characters—Calyx: one-leafed, five-cleft, bell-shaped, acute, erect, broadish, short, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled, ringent; (funnel-form, trifid, *Gartner.*) Tube very long, narrow, subcylindric; border short, three-lobed, almost equal. Stamina: filaments four, longer than the corolla; anthers roundish. Pistillum: germ inferior, globular; style filiform, the length of the stamens; stigma bifid, acute. Pericarpium: berry globular, one-celled, quadripartite, placed upon the calyx, enlarged, bell-shaped, erect. Seeds four, gibbous on one side, angular on the other, one-celled.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-cleft; A a corolla,

corolla, tube subcylindric, superior, very long; border three-lobed or three-cleft; berry globular, one-celled, quadripartite, four-seeded. There are but two very distinct species.

1. *Ovieda spinosa*, spinous, or West-Indian, ovieda: leaves oval, toothed, broad. A shrub, with opposite, petioled, oblong, toothed, leaves; the teeth terminated by spines, rigid; flowers terminating, corymbed, subsessile among the terminating leaves; berries black. Native of South America, in the mountains of Hispaniola. The fruit is ripe in May. Very rare.

2. *Ovieda mitis*, smooth, or East-Indian, ovieda: leaves lanceolate, subrepand, narrow. This also is a shrub. Leaves opposite, petioled, smooth, five or six inches long, less than one inch wide. Berry succulent, covered by the acutely-triangular segments of the calyx, subglobular, one-celled, having four stones when ripe, drying up and divisible into four parts. Cuticle, when ripe, somewhat spongy, wrinkled, fastened to the back of the stones; which are regularly four, but two only commonly ripen, coriaceous-crustaceous, gibbous on one side, wrinkled, concave or angular on the other, one-celled. There is one seed in each stone, of the same shape with it, fastened to its base, rufescent. Inhabits Java.

OVIE'DO, a city of Spain, and capital of the province of Asturias, situated on a plain between two small rivers, the Ovia or Ove, and Nora; the former of which runs into the Nora, and this into the Nalon, the first running to the north, and the second to the south, of Oviedo. Some, without sufficient authority, have made Oviedo the *Lucus Asturum*; others have deduced its name from the Ovia, after Froila, the grandson of Pelagius, had built it in 757; and, according to others again, it was so considerable in the time of Pelagius, that, after his accession, he made it the chief place of his states, and transferred to it the episcopal see of a neighbouring town called Emerita. However this be, Oviedo, in the ninth century, was honoured throughout Christendom with the singular title of "the City of Bishops," because a number of them, exiled and persecuted by the Saracens, took refuge in this place. In 901 a council was held here; and, while it was convened, the bishopric was elevated into an archbishopric by the pope, which dignity was afterwards transferred to the church of St. Jago de Compostella; and Oviedo again became a bishopric.

Oviedo contains an episcopal palace, a cathedral, a collegiate chapter, three parishes, three convents of monks, three of nuns, three colleges, three hospitals, an university founded in 1580, a drawing-school, a royal audience, an alcade-mayor, &c. Its population is estimated at about 6400 inhabitants. The streets are tolerably straight, regular, and well paved; the principal square is handsome and large, and almost all the streets open into it, and the market is held there. The public edifices are a Gothic cathedral, said to be built by Froila in 760, and containing a rich treasury of valuable vases, relics, and ornaments, and the bones of fourteen kings and queens; the beautiful church of San Salvador, built by a prince named Sito, who flourished in 774, and enriched by a great number of relics; the university, which is considered one of the handsomest ornaments of the town; and the aqueduct of forty arcades. Oviedo has little commerce; it has two tan-yards, a manufactory of hats, one of horn-combs and bone-buttons, and a grand magazine of arms for the army. It is forty-seven miles north of Leon. Lat. 43. 19. N. lon. 5. 57. W.

OVIE'DO (Gonzalo Fernandez de), one of the earliest historians of the New World, was born at Madrid in 1478. He spent his youth about the court, and became page to Ferdinand king of Arragon, and Isabella queen of Castile. He accompanied Columbus on his first voyage to Hispaniola, where he resided many years, and wrote the "Historia General de las Indias," in fifty books. Twenty-one of these were printed at Seville in 1535, and at Salamanca in 1547. A summary of this work, which Oviedo

drew up for the emperor Charles V. is inserted in Barcia's Collection of the *Historiadores Primitivos de las Indias Occidentales*. This summary contains the most decisive passage concerning the importation of syphilis from America that is any-where to be found. Oviedo also wrote two tracts concerning the "Palo de Guayacan," and the "Palo Santo," translations of which are in the first volumes of his collection "Scriptorum de Morbo Gallico." This office of chronicler was given to him by Charles V. when he was in the seventieth year of his age. He left behind him many unpublished works, besides the sequel of his great history. *Moreri. Gen. Biog.*

OVIE'DO (Andres de), bishop of Hieropolis and patriarch of Ethiopia. He was born at Ilhescas, a town about half-way between Madrid and Toledo, graduated at Alcalá, and then went to Rome, where, in the year 1541, he entered the company of Jesuits, then in its infancy. When Joam III. founded the first Jesuit-college at Coimbra, he, with eight Flemish companions, was sent to colonize it by Peter Faber. Oviedo soon distinguished himself by his devotion, humility, and self-austerity; and, when Francisco de Borja established a college at Gandia, he was thought a fit person to be nominated rector. A fitter could not be found: he never wore a shirt, he flogged himself every day, and vociferated so loudly in his single combats with the devil at night, that they who were within hearing frequently ran to his assistance. There was no trick in all this: flagellation was among the good works of his belief. Such a man was well chosen to foster the zeal of the duke, and he went with him to Rome. He was then made rector of the college at Naples.

Thus far (says Mr. Southey) his talents had been well employed; but, when Loyola nominated him as coadjutor and successor to Joam Nunez Baretto, in the Abyssinian mission, he mistook the character of Oviedo. A statesman was wanting, not a fanatic.

Previous to his departure, he was consecrated bishop of Hieropolis; but still, with the ostentatious humility which then distinguished his brethren, he used to fetch water for the college, and carry the pitcher upon his rocquet. Wherever he travelled, he took up his lodging in the hospital. At length, in 1556, he and Baretto set sail, and reached Goa after one of the shortest voyages that had then ever been remembered, being four months and ten days, of which four weeks had been lost at Mozambique. The affairs of Abyssinia at this time were in so unprosperous a state, that it was not thought expedient for the patriarch to proceed thither; he was therefore detained at Goa, while Oviedo, with five companions, was sent forward on the mission. They landed at Arkeeko five days only before that fort was taken possession of by the Turks. Claudius, or Atzenaf Segued, (in Abyssinian names Bruce is the best authority to follow,) was at that time reigning. On his way to court, Oviedo was welcomed by the Portuguese, and regaled so plentifully, that he might well have thought his lot had fallen unto him in a goodly land. Claudius received him with great honour, and made him an ample allowance for himself and all his followers. It was not long before he had a conference with him upon matters of religion, at which no person was present. What passed is not known; but Oviedo came away in a passion, and said the king was a great heretic. Other disputes followed: he then tried what a controversial letter would do; and, finding the king would not change his creed, and acknowledge the supremacy of the pope, the Jesuit, who was equally bigoted and far more brutal, excommunicated all the Portuguese who should remain in his service. He himself would have returned to India in disgust; but some of his countrymen, who were settled in Abyssinia and had families there, besought him so earnestly to stay, and not leave their souls in such imminent danger, that he yielded to their entreaties.

After the defeat and death of Claudius, his brother Menas (or Adamas Segued), who succeeded him, was reconciled

reconciled to Oviedo. This reconciliation was of little avail; the old dispute was revived. The new king's Latin was not intelligible; an interpreter was called in, who falsified all Oviedo said; and, upon discovering this, he and his companions began to learn the language of the country, which it is marvellous that they had not done sooner. Oviedo had better have remained ignorant of it, as, by making his insolence intelligible, it only served to widen the breach. "Bishop," said the king to him one day, "do you know why I am circumcised?—it is for cleanliness." The surly Jesuit answered, "Then you and your cleanliness will go to hell." It was not to be supposed that any sovereign, or any man, would hear such language without resenting it. Menas, however, seems to have borne his brutality with exemplary patience; and Abyssinia was at that time in such a state, that, had this missionary been really a statesman, and the government of India in the hands of Albuquerque, Gondar might have been this day the capital of a civilized empire. Oviedo, however, once more forbade all the Portuguese to serve him, on pain of excommunication. His great hope seems to have been that the king would make him a martyr; and in this hope, one day, in one of their disputes, when he had, as he thought, sufficiently exasperated him, he threw off his cloak, and knelt down to receive the blow. Menas was satisfied with giving him a good thrashing; and then, turning to the Portuguese, who still continued to serve him, he said, "You see what a fellow my brother the king of Portugal has sent me! had he no Portuguese whom he could have sent?" This question should imply that they were ashamed of him, and had repented to the king that he was a Castilian, not their countryman.

Oviedo and the other Jesuits now secretly abetted a rebellion in the country; and, though they were successful in their attempts to injure and harass the existing government, yet their stay in the country was thought so fruitless, that orders came from Rome for them to go to Japan. By the death of Bareto, Oviedo had now succeeded to the vain title of patriarch; it was not, however, the pride of rank, nor the fear or hope of martyrdom, which made him remain in Abyssinia: he had no possible means of getting out of it; and, so destitute was he of all European conveniences, that the letter which he contrived to send to Rome in reply was written upon slips of paper cut from the margin of his breviary. Sertza Denghel, the successor of Menas, did not think him worthy of persecution, and wisely left him to linger out the remainder of his days in obscurity. He died in 1577, having been twenty years employed in a mission for which he was in every respect unqualified. His head was some years afterwards removed to Goa as a relic. *Gen. Biog.*

OUJE'IN. See OUGEIN.

O'VIFORM, *adj.* Having the shape of an egg.—This notion of the mundane egg, or that the world was *oviform*, hath been the sense and language of all antiquity. *Burnet.*

OVIL'IA, in ancient Rome, a place in the Campus Martius, at first railed-in like a sheep's pen; whence its name. Afterwards it was mounted with marble, and beautified with walks and galleries; as also with a tribunal, or seat of justice. Within this precinct, or inclosure, the people were called to give their suffrages for the election of magistrates.

The ascent into the ovilia was not by stairs, but by *pontes*, a sort of bridges made for the time; every curia, tribe, and century, as the assembly was centuriate or tribuate, &c. having its proper bridge. Whence the proverb, *de ponte deficiendus*, where a person is to be debarred from giving his vote.

OUIL'LY, a town of France, in the department of the Calvados: six miles west of Falaise, and eighteen south of Caen.

OU'INEASKE, or SHELBURNE BAY, a bay on the east side of Lake Champlain, which sets up southerly, through

the town of Burlington in Vermont, into the northern part of Shelburne.

OUINICHTAGAN', a lake of Lower Canada: 183 miles north of Quebec. Lat. 50. 0. N. lon. 70. 56. W.

OVIP'AROUS, *adj.* [from the Lat. *ovum*, an egg, and *pario*, to bring forth.] Bringing forth eggs; not viviparous. —Birds and *oviparous* creatures have eggs enough at first conceived in them to serve them for many years' laying. *Ray.*

OVIPAROUS ANIMALS stand in opposition to those which bring forth their young alive, called viviparous animals, as man, quadrupeds, &c. They may be defined to be such as conceive eggs, which they afterwards bring forth, and from which, by the incubation of the parent, or some other principle of warmth and fermentation, at length arise animals; which, after they have spent the moisture or humour they were surrounded withal, and are grown to a sufficient bulk, firmness, and strength, break their shell, and come forth. The oviparous kind, besides birds, includes divers species of animals; as serpents, lizards, tortoises, crabs, lobsters, frogs, &c.

The distinction between oviparous and viviparous creatures, seems, in the insect-world, to be much less fixed and determinate than is supposed. It is evident, that some flies, which are naturally oviparous, if they are kept from the finding a proper nidus for their eggs, be it meat, or any thing else, will retain them so long beyond their due time of exclusion, that they will hatch into worms in the body of the parent, and be afterwards deposited alive in flesh, or in the manner of the young of the viviparous insects. Bartholine gives an account, in his Medical Observations, of a hen, which, instead of eggs, brought forth no less than five living chickens; but she died of it.

O'VIS, *f.* the LAMB and SHEEP; a genus of quadrupeds of the class mammalia, order pecora. Generic characters—Horns hollow, wrinkled, turned backwards and outwards into a circular or spiral form; eight lower fore-teeth, tusks none. The animals of this genus are gentle, harmless, and useful; they supply food and raiment; they are not very active, but fight by butting each other with the head reclined; they drink little; the females are gravid five months, bring one or two, rarely three, young at a time. According to the Linnæan system there are four species; but Dr. Shaw includes the whole genus in three species, placing the *strepsiceros*, or Cretan sheep, among the numerous varieties of the *O. aries*, or common sheep; and in this particular we are disposed to agree with him.

1. *Ovis Ammon*, the argali, or wild sheep: horns arched, semi-circular; wrinkled above, flattish beneath; dewlaps hairy, loose.

As the *Capra ægagrus*, or Caucasian ibex, is supposed to be the original of the domestic goat, so the *Ovis Ammon*, argali, or musimon, is believed to be the chief primeval stock from which all the kinds of domestic sheep have proceeded; and, on that account, we have followed Dr. Shaw, in placing that species first, though Linnæus begins with the common sheep. We shall, moreover, dispatch what little we have to say of the other species, and leave the *O. aries*, with its varieties and sub-varieties, to the last.

The *argali*, which in the Siberian language means "wild sheep," is called by the Russians *kanenoi barann*, or "sheep of the rocks," from its ordinary place of abode. According to Pallas, it is the same with the *musimon* of Pliny, and the *ophion* of the Greeks. It is found, in all its native wildness, vigour, and activity, inhabiting the vast chain of mountains which run through the centre of Asia to the Eastern Sea, and the various branches of this chain, extending through Great Tartary, China, the north of Hindoostan, and Persia. The argali delights to bask in the sun on the bare rocks, but avoids the woods and shade; it feeds on alpine plants and shrubs; it prefers a temperate climate, but is found also amongst the rocks

rocks of Asiatic Siberia. This animal loves a state of solitude, and flees the haunts of men. According to professor Pallas, nothing but the surrounding sea can account for the argali being found on an inhabited island, as is sometimes the case. But it is said, that these animals also inhabit California. The Jesuits, who visited that country in 1697, say, that they found a species of sheep as big as a calf of a year or two old, with a head like that of a stag, enormous horns like those of a ram, and tail and hair shorter than that of a stag. This is very likely, as the migration from Kamtschatka to America is far from being difficult. They were once inhabitants of the British isles. Boethius mentions a species of sheep in St. Kilda, larger than the biggest he-goat, with tail hanging to the ground, and horns longer and as thick as those of an ox. "This account," says Mr. Pennant, "like the rest of his history, is a mixture of truth and fable: I should have been silent on this head, had I not better authority; for I find the figure of this animal on a Roman sculpture, taken out of Antoninus's wall near Glasgow. It accompanies a recumbent female figure, with a *rota*, or wheel, expressive of a *via*, or way, cut possibly into Caledonia, where these animals might, in that early age, have been found. Whether they were the objects of worship, as among the ancient Tartars, I will not pretend to say; for, among the graves of those distant Asiatics, brazen images and stone figures of their *argali*, or wild sheep, are frequently found."

The argali is about the size of the fallow-deer, but its make is more robust, being less elegant than the deer, and its neck and legs are shorter. Its head resembles that of a ram, with long straggling hairs about the mouth, but no beard like the goat. The colour is a greyish ferruginous, brown above, and whitish beneath; the face is also whitish, and behind each shoulder is often observed a dusky spot or patch; the legs, at least in the European kind, are commonly white. The head strongly resembles that of a ram; but the ears are smaller in proportion; the neck more slender; the body large; the limbs slender, but strong; the tail very short, being hardly more than three inches in length: the horns, in the full-grown or old animals, are extremely large, placed on the top of the head, and stand close at their base, rising first upwards, and then bending down, and twisting outwards, as in the common ram. The body is covered with hair instead of wool; in which particular consists its chief difference from the general aspect of a sheep; but in winter the face, and particularly the part about the tip of the nose, becomes more white, the back of a more ferruginous cast, and the hair, which in summer is close, like that of a deer, becomes somewhat rough, wavy, and a little curled; consisting of a kind of wool intermixed with hair, and concealing at its roots a fine white woolly down: the hair about the neck and shoulders, as well as under the throat, is considerably longer than on other parts. The female is inferior in size to the male, and has smaller and less-curved horns.

In Siberia, the argali is chiefly seen on the tops of the highest mountains, exposed to the sun, and free from woods. The animals generally go in small flocks; they produce their young in the middle of March, and have one, and sometimes two, at a birth. The young, when first born, are covered with a soft grey curling fleece, which gradually changes into hair towards the end of summer. From spring to autumn the argalis feed in the little valleys among the upper regions of the mountains, on the young shoots of the alpine plants, and are said to grow very fat. As winter approaches, they descend lower, and eat grass and other vegetables. They are fond of frequenting spots of a saline nature, and will excavate the ground in such places, in order to get at the salt. The horns of the old males grow to a vast size, and have been found of the length of two Russian yards, measured along the spires; weighing fifteen pounds each. We are assured by Rubruquis, a traveller in the thirteenth

century, that he had seen some of the horns so large that he could hardly lift a pair with one hand, and that the Tartars made great drinking-cups of them. A more modern traveller has asserted, that young foxes occasionally shelter themselves in such as are here and there found in the deserts.

The argali is a very timid animal, and, when closely pursued, does not run in a directly-progressive course, but obliquely, from side to side, in the manner of other sheep, ascending the rocky mountains with great agility, and, like the wild goat, going over the narrowest and most dangerous passes with perfect safety. The males are said to fight frequently among themselves, and will sometimes precipitate each other down the rocks in their contests. Their chase is dangerous and difficult, but is an important object with some of the Asiatics, since the animal furnishes a great number of necessary articles; the skin being used for clothing, and the flesh for food. Pallas informs us, that the flesh of the lamb is excellent; that of the old animals good; but more particularly when roasted.

In Corsica the argali is known by the name of *musfro*; where it is so wild as to be rarely taken alive, but is shot by the hunters, who lie in wait for it among the mountains. When the young are taken, however, which is sometimes the case when the parent is shot, they are observed to be very readily tamed. The Corsican argali, or *moufflon* of Buffon, is of a darker colour than the Asiatic kind.

From the above description it will sufficiently appear, that the wild sheep is by no means that seemingly-helpless animal which we view in a state of confinement and artificial life; but in the highest degree active and vigorous. It is supposed to live about fourteen years. It is remarkable that Linnæus, in the twelfth edition of the *Systema Naturæ*, places this animal in the genus *Capra* instead of *Ovis*; appearing rather to consider it as the parent of the goat than the sheep. In fact, these two genera are so closely allied, that the line of separation is not very easily discoverable. The present animal, however, whether we consider its figure or manners, seems rather to be the parent or stock of the sheep than of the goat race; and it seems, therefore, peculiarly proper to place it at the head of the genus.

β. *O. tragelaphus*, the bearded sheep. There can be little doubt of this being a variety of the preceding, differing only in the length of the hair on the breast, and in having a beard. Its description and character is thus given by Mr. Pennant, who, in his *Synopsis of Quadrupeds*, referred it to the genus *Capra*: "Sheep with the hair on the lower part of the cheeks and upper jaws extremely long, forming a divided or double beard; with hairs on the sides and body short; on the top of the neck longer, and a little erect. The whole under part of the neck and shoulders covered with coarse hairs, not less than fourteen inches long. Beneath the hairs, on every part, was a short genuine wool, the rudiments of a fleecy clothing: the colour of the breast, neck, back, and sides, a pale ferruginous. Tail very short. Horns close at their base, recurved; twenty-five inches long; eleven in circumference in the thickest place; diverging, and bending outwards; their points being nineteen inches distant from each other." Mr. Pennant observes, that the learned Dr. Kay, or Caius, gives a good description of this animal, from a specimen brought into England from Barbary in the year 1561. Dr. Caius says, that it inhabited the mountainous and rocky parts of Mauritania; and seemed in confinement to be very gentle, full of play, and frolicsome, like a goat: the horns were like those of a ram. This appears to be the *tragelaphus* of Pliny, not only on account of its beard and the great length of hair on its shoulders, but likewise of the place where that Roman naturalist says it was found, near the river Phasis; for Pallas says, that an animal with a divided beard, probably the same, has lately been discovered by professor

professor Guildenfaedt, on the mountains of Caucasus; from whose foot arises the very river on whose banks were its ancient haunts.

This is by Dr. Turton marked as a var. (12.) of the common sheep.

His var. 13. which he calls the *morvant*, belongs no doubt to this species also, being another bearded variety of it: beard long, (not from the cheeks, but) on the forehead of the breast; a short mane on the neck.

2. *Ovis pudu*, the Chili sheep: horns smooth, round, divergent; tail none. This is a newly-discovered species, having been first described by Molina, in his Natural History of Chili. He informs us that it is a native of the Andes; that it is of a brown colour; about the size of a kid of half a year old; with very much the appearance of a goat, but with small smooth horns, bending outwards, and without any appearance of beard. It is of a gregarious nature; and, when the snow falls on the upper parts of the mountains, descends into the valleys in large herds, to feed in the plains of Chili, at which time it is easily taken, and readily tamed. The female is without horns.

3. *Ovis aries*, the common sheep: horns compressed and lunate.

Of all the animals with which Divine Providence has stored the world for the use of man, none is to be found more innocent, more useful, or more valuable, than the SHEEP. The sheep supplies us with food and clothing, and finds ample employment for our poor at all times and seasons of the year, whereby a variety of manufactures of woollen cloth is carried on without interruption to domestic comfort and loss to friendly society, or injury to health, as is the case with many other occupations. Every lock of wool that grows on its back becomes the means of support to the staplers, dyers, pickers, scourers, scriblers; carders, combers, spinners, spoolers, warpers, queers, weavers, fullers, tuckers, burlers, shearmen, pressers, clothiers, and packers, who, one after another, tumble and tofs, and twist, and bake, and boil, this raw material, till they have each extracted a livelihood out of it; and then comes the merchant, who, in his turn, ships it (in its highest state of improvement) to all quarters of the globe, and thence brings back every kind of riches to his country, in return for this valuable commodity which the sheep affords.

Beside this, the useful animal, after being deprived of his coat, produces another against the next year; and, when we are hungry, and kill him for food, he gives us his skin to employ the fellmongers and parchment-makers, who supply us with a durable material for securing our estates, rights, and possessions; and, if our enemies take the field against us, supplies us with a powerful instrument for rousing our courage to repel their attacks. When the parchment-maker has taken as much of the skin as he can use, the glue-maker comes after, and picks up every morsel that is left, and therewith supplies a material for the carpenter and cabinet-maker, which they cannot do without, and which is essentially necessary, before we can have elegant furniture in our houses; tables, chairs, looking-glasses, and a hundred other articles of convenience; and, when the winter-nights come on, while we are deprived of the cheering light of the sun, the sheep supplies us with an artificial mode of light, whereby we preserve every pleasure of domestic society, and with whose assistance we can continue our work, or write, or read, and improve our minds, or enjoy the social mirth of our tables. Another part of the slaughtered animal supplies us with an ingredient necessary for making good common soap, a useful store for producing cleanliness in every family, rich or poor. Neither need the horns be thrown away; for they are converted by the button-makers and turners into a cheap kind of buttons, tips for bows, and many useful ornaments. From the very trotters an oil is extracted useful for many purposes, and they afford good food when baked in an oven. Even the bones are useful also; for, by a late invention of Dr.

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Higgins, they are found, when reduced to ashes, to be an useful and essential ingredient in the composition of the finest artificial stone in ornamental work for chimney-pieces, cornices of rooms, houses, &c. which renders the composition more durable by effectually preventing its cracking. Any curious person would be much entertained to see the manufactory of bone-ash, carried on in White-chapel-road, wherein the bones of sheep and cows undergo many ingenious processes. 1. There is a mill, to break them; 2. A cauldron, to extract their oil, marrow, and fat; 3. A reverberatory, to heat them red-hot; 4. An oven, for those bones to moulder to ashes; 5. A still, to collect the fumes of the burnt bones into a brown fluid, from whence hartshorn is made; 6. Furnaces for making parts thereof into Glauber's salts; 7. A sand-heat, containing twelve jars, for collecting a crystallizing vapour into sal-ammoniac.

If it be objected to this meek inoffensive creature, that he is expensive while living, in eating-up our grass, &c. it may be answered, that it is quite the contrary; for he can feed where every other animal has been before him, and grazed all they could find; and that, if he takes a little grass on our downs, or in our fields, he amply repays us for every blade of it, in the richness of the manure which he leaves behind him. He protects the hands from the cold wintry blast, by providing them with the softest leather for gloves. Every gentleman's library is also more or less indebted to him for the binding of his books, for the sheath of his sword, and for cases for his instruments; in short, not to be tedious in mentioning the various uses of leather, there is hardly any furniture or utensil of life, but the sheep contributes to render either more useful, convenient, or ornamental.

The domestic sheep, in its most valuable or woolly state, exists hardly any-where in perfection, except in Europe, and some of the temperate parts of Asia. When transported into very warm climates, it loses its peculiar covering, and appears coated with hair, having only a short wool next the skin. In very cold climates also, the exterior part of the wool is observed to be hard and coarse, though the interior is more soft and fine. In England, and some other European regions, the wool acquires a peculiar length and fineness, and is best adapted to the various purposes of commerce. That of Spain is still finer, but less proper for using alone; and is mixed with the English for the superior kinds of cloth. "England," says Mr. Pennant, "once the envy of Europe, for its vast commerce in the productions of this creature, now begins to be rivalled by others, through the neglect, the luxury, and the too-great avidity, of our manufacturers."

The sheep is proverbially a timid, simple, and harmless, animal; yet, as is well observed by Mr. Smellie, in his edition of Buffon, "Though the talents of the sheep are not so brilliant as those of other quadrupeds, yet he appears not to be that stupid defenceless creature painted by the French naturalist." "Sheep," says Mr. Smellie, "when enslaved by man, tremble at the voice of the shepherd or his dog; but, on those extensive mountains where they are allowed to range almost without controul, and where they seldom depend on the aid of the shepherd, they assume a very different mode of behaviour. In these situations, a ram or a wedder will boldly attack a single dog, and often come off victorious; but, when the danger is more alarming, they have recourse to the collected strength of the whole flock. On such occasions they draw up into a complete body, placing the young and the females in the centre, while the males take the foremost ranks, keeping close by each other. Thus an armed front is presented on all quarters, and cannot easily be attacked, without danger of destruction to the assailant. In this manner they wait with firmness the approach of the enemy; nor does their courage fail them in the moment of attack; for, when the aggressor advances within a few yards of the line, the rams dart upon them with such impetuosity as to lay him dead at their feet, unless

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he save himself by timely flight. Against the attacks of single dogs or foxes, when in this situation, they are perfectly secure. A ram, regardless of danger, will often engage a bull; and, his forehead being much harder than that of any other animal, he seldom fails to conquer; for the bull, by lowering his head, receives the stroke of the ram between his eyes, which usually brings him to the ground."

We are now to enumerate the varieties which have sprung from the *Ovis aries*, or rather (as it is said) from the *O. ammon*:

α. *O. Anglica*, the English sheep. The various breeds and cross-breeds of the sheep in this country have been sufficiently explained under the article *HUSBANDRY*, vol. x. 497-502. and the management of them, their diseases excepted, at p. 522-5.

The Linnæan character of the *O. Anglica* is—hornless, with the scrotum hanging as low as the knees. Some of our English sheep, however, have horns; and we shall give a delineation of each sort. Fig. 1. on the annexed Plate, a hornless sheep of the South-Down polled kind, from the flock of the late duke of Bedford at Woburn; and fig. 2. is one of the horned Norfolk breed, from Mr. Coke's farm at Holkham. We refer to the before-cited article, p. 497, 498, for the description.

In Ireland, sheep are kept on account of their milk; the same thing is common in Caermarthenshire; and less frequent in other parts of Great Britain.

The native Irish sheep are of a small size, and have a great resemblance to the mountain-sheep in South Wales, being covered with nearly as much hair as wool. They are thin in the fore-quarters, narrow in the loins, and exhibit the same activity as the Norfolk breed. Some of this species are still to be met with, and are purchased from the mountains by gentlemen for their own use. They are not bought till they have attained the age of three or four years, and, when properly fed, they make delicious mutton; but the importation of English sheep has long ago altered the general breed, as has been the case in regard to the native Irish cattle. Whether this change was effected by admixture with the Tweed-side or the Leicestershire sheep, cannot easily be determined; but it is certain that the English and Irish breeds were intermixed long before Bakewell's day; and, considering the appearance of the Irish sheep at present, they seem to participate in the characters, as to wool and carcass, of the Romney-marsh species, though there can be none of these in Ireland. *Wakefield's Account of Ireland*, 1813.

The following are instances of extraordinary fecundity in this useful animal.—In the month of May, 1810, Mr. Meeds, of Mavis Enderby, Lincolnshire, bought a Norfolk ewe and lamb; in March 1811, the ewe yealed three lambs; in 1812, four lambs; 1813, three lambs; 1814, two lambs; 1815, four lambs; 1816, two lambs; 1817, three lambs; 1818, five lambs; total, 26 lambs in 8 years.—May 12, 1818, a South-Down ewe, the property of Mr. James Nixon, a farmer, residing at Knockhalt, near Sevenoaks, Kent, brought forth five lambs, all alive, three of which she suckled, and the whole five were brought up.—William Barton, who resides near Ashford in Kent, had an ewe, which, before it was a year old, yealed a lamb; at two years old, two lambs; at three years old, three lambs; at four years old, four lambs; and, when the animal died, in Feb. 1818, at the age of five years, her body contained five perfect lambs.

Monsters are not uncommon among the sheep kind.—In 1805, a lamb was yealed at Mr. Brown's, of High Winder, Westmoreland, with eight legs, two bodies, two necks, but only one head.—In 1809, a long Scotch ewe, on Mr. Lowthian's farm, at Briscoe, near Carlisle, yealed a tup-lamb with five perfect legs; the fifth leg was situated near the navel: this animal lived to be brought up, as did the following more-extraordinary monster.—In 1811, an ewe belonging to Mr. C. Shoubridge, of Withdean, near Brighton, brought forth a lamb with three

shoulders, five legs, and six feet. This extraordinary little animal was seen gamboling about with the rest of the flock, as healthy and nimble as the most perfect amongst them.

The consumption of sheep and lambs in London is estimated (1818) at 1,620,700, of horned cattle 164,000.

β. *O. rustica*, the Spanish coarse-woolled sheep: horned; tail short; wool short and coarse.

γ. *O. Hispanica*, the Spanish fine-woolled sheep: horns spiral, lengthened outwards; wool fine, and plentiful. The general mode of managing the Spanish flocks is detailed under the article *MESTA*, vol. xv. p. 192. but, to what has been said in the article *HUSBANDRY*, vol. x. p. 497, on the subject of the *merino* breed, we must add a few particulars.

Merino Sheep.—In this breed of sheep, the males have horns, but the females are without them. They have, according to lord Somerville, white faces and legs; the body not very perfect in shape; rather long in the legs; fine in the bone; a degree of throatiness, or production of loose pendulous skin under the neck; and the pelt fine and clear; weight, when tolerably fat, per quarter, in the rams about 17lbs. in the ewes 11lbs. the wool very fine. See the Plate, fig. 2 and 3.

His late majesty took the lead in the introduction of the merino breed into this country, and his first flock was imported in 1792; but other nations seem to have got the start in this respect, as Sweden had them even in 1723, where they have since greatly increased; and in France, Germany, and some other states, they were probably known long before. They have lately spread much in this country, and been greatly improved in different respects, by judicious crossing with other sorts. The horns in the true merino rams are now of a middle size; the faces and legs darkish-white, the latter rather inclined to be too long. The wool is uncommonly fine, and weighs about 3½lbs. to the fleece, not being liable to deteriorate in this climate. The fleeces have a dark-brown tinge in their surfaces, formed by dust sticking on the greasy yolk property of its pile; the contrast between which and the rich white-coloured wethers, and the rosy hue of the skin, is very striking on the first view.

The interest which the merinos had excited, was greatly increased by the sales from his late majesty's stock, which began in the year 1804. The desirable object of spreading them widely over the country, and subjecting them to the experiments of the most eminent professional breeders, has been greatly promoted by the institution of the Merino Society, in 1811, which now comprehends some of the greatest landholders, and the most eminent breeders, in the kingdom.

Here we cannot help digressing, to introduce a quotation from old Stowe. In his Chronicle, under the year 1464, he has the following passage: "*Shepe transported into Spain*. This yere king Edward IV. gave a license to pas over certain Cottewolde shepe into Spain; by reason whereof, it has come to pass, at this day, that the staple of wolls of Spain, kept at Brydges in Flanders, is so great, that our staple is nothing comparable to it." From which it appears, that the wool which we have for centuries imported from Spain, and upon which our finest fabrics of woollen are manufactured, is the produce of sheep originally bred in our own country. It appears, therefore, worthy of enquiry, whether the Cottewold breed has degenerated, and from what cause; whether the breed of 1464 is extinct; how it was improved in Spain, and still holds its value above British wool in countries whose agricultural improvements have not kept pace with ours; and how far it is possible to produce the finest wool in this country, without the importation of merino-rams as a cross to the offspring of their ancestors.

We now return to the particular subject of this variety of sheep.—The term *merino*, in the Spanish language, is an adjective, derived from the corrupt Latin *merinus*, or *majorinus*; when united with *ovejás*, it signifies the royal judge

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1. South Down Sheep. 2. Norfolk breed. 3. 4. Merinos. 5. Iceland Sheep.
6. Four-horned Sheep. 7. 8. Head of Cretan Sheep.



judge or superintendant of the sheep-walk. At the period when the *trashumantes*, or travelling flocks in Spain, were established, they became the objects of police, and were placed under the exclusive jurisdiction of mayors, with public walks and large districts allotted for their sustenance, and were termed *merinos ovejas*, or "the sheep under the care of the merino or mayor." The names peculiar to the establishment of these flocks, such as *mesa*, *cavana*, &c. are derived, not from the Morisco, but from the provincial Latin that prevailed in Spain before and after it was subdued by the Goths. The management of the flocks is peculiarly Roman; the merino, or mayor, corresponds exactly with the *magister pecoris* of Varro and Columella, and was superior to the *opiliones* and *pastores*. The practice of destroying half the sheep at their birth, and of suckling each of the survivors on two ewes; of sweating the sheep before they were shorn, to increase the softness of the fleece; and of conducting them from their winter to their summer stations by long journeys through public sheep-walks; has been derived from Roman institutions, with this difference, that in Italy their migrations were confined to the coarse-woolled sheep, while the *molles oves*, or fine-woolled flocks of antiquity, were always housed.

The experiment of Columella's uncle, ascertains the early introduction of fine-woolled sheep into Spain. Having procured some wild African rams at Cadiz, of a coarse fleece, but of an admirable colour, he gave them to some fine-woolled ewes, and the male progeny being again given to Tarentine ewes, the offspring, with their descendants, united the paternal colour with the peculiar softness of the maternal fleece. Columella's uncle resided in Bœtica, which comprehended the modern Estremadura; and, as Columella flourished under the emperor Claudius, the Tarentine breed must have been introduced into that province at the commencement of the Christian era. Whatever was the peculiar colour which the elder Columella introduced by means of African rams into his Tarentine flock, we may conclude that the same successful expedient was employed by other agriculturalists of Bœtica, to convert these coarse into fine woolled breeds, and to communicate the purest white to the black or part-coloured native flocks, which, according to Pliny, were common in Spain. The original intermixture of distinct breeds of native Spanish sheep with the Tarentine in different parts of Spain, may be inferred from other circumstances: each *cavana*, or flock, forms a distinct breed; and the Nigrette no more resembles the Paulac, than the Merino South-Down resembles the Merino Cheviot. The genuine unmixed descendants of the Tarentine breed would have preserved one uniform character; but the native flocks crossed with Tarentine rams would retain their distinctive varieties, and transmit them to each *cavana*.

That the merino is a mixed race, seems to be further indicated by the more tender constitutions of the fine-woolled flocks of antiquity. Of these, the Tarentine were most celebrated in Italy, and the Milesian in Asia Minor. They were termed *pellitæ* and *tectæ oves*, from the coverings of skin with which they were clothed to defend the fleece. They were denominated also *molles oves*, not only from the softness of the fleece, but from the delicacy of the constitution. They were always fed in the house; and, though satisfied with brambles, or the coarsest food, they are described as a most voracious breed; a diminution of their allowance from the fraud of servants, or the parsimony of the owner, was attended with certain destruction to the flock. (Plin. lib. viii. cap. 47.) As there was no sale for the lambs, nor any profit from the milk of a Tarentine flock, half the lambs were destroyed at the birth. The ram-lambs were chiefly reared, and were killed at two years, when their pelts sold to the merchant at an advanced price, on account of the beauty of the pile. This breed demanded constant care, when in the fields, to preserve their coverings from being torn,

and the fleeces injured. At home they required even greater care than abroad, as they were not daily conducted to their pastures. They were frequently uncovered and cooled for refreshment. The staples of the fleece were opened and disparted, and were frequently moistened with wine and oil. The whole flock was washed three times a-year, when the weather was warm. The stables were frequently swept, cleaned, and fumigated. For these different offices two shepherds were constantly required for every hundred sheep.

The excessive care bestowed on these flocks by the nations of antiquity, shows in what estimation their fleeces were held; and, though such attention is remote from modern practice, we are fully convinced that, by selecting the very finest and softest merino flocks, and covering the wool, and frequently anointing and washing, it would give to the pile that degree of softness which is so much wanted in the manufacture of shawls, and other costly articles of luxury, but which we seek for in vain in the finest fleeces of modern Europe. However expensive such attention might prove, we have no doubt that, on a limited scale, it would well repay the labour of the judicious experimentalist, as the wool would be worth more than 30s. per pound, could it be made to equal that of India in softness. It would appear, that the Tarentine breed were selected with much care for breeding, and every expedient adopted which was proved by experience to attenuate and soften the pile. The transition of these delicate animals into the merinos of Spain, which are a hardy race, can only be explained by supposing that other agriculturalists had imitated Columella, and obtained a fine-woolled race by crossing their native breeds with the more delicate animals from Italy. The beginning of this improvement is indeed described by Strabo, in the reign of Tiberius: he informs us that the inhabitants of Truditania had formerly imported many garments, but that their wool in his time surpassed that of the Coraxi, and excelled it in beauty so much, that a talent, equal to two hundred guineas, was the stated price of a ram to breed from; and that they excelled also in the fabrics which the Saliatæ manufactured. Truditania, according to Strabo, comprehended the province of Bœtica, from the Guadiana to the confines of Lusitania, and southward to Gibraltar, and eastward to Toledo. The wool of the Coraxi, with which Strabo compares that of this part of Spain, we are informed, in his account of Pontus, was from the soft-woolled Milesian sheep. Such high prices as a talent must have been produced by a very general demand for rams; not for the use of the Tarentine flocks, which could occasion no such competition, but for the purpose of crossing the indigenous breeds of the province, which, from the earliest period, appears to have abounded in sheep.

The travelling-flocks were not at that time introduced, as the mountainous regions had been till then infested by native as well as Lusitanian robbers, whom the Romans dislodged from their villages, and dispersed into cantons. (Diodorus Siculus, lib. v. cap. 32.) The Moorish looms of Andalusia and Catalonia, and those of the Christians at Segovia, in the 13th century, must have been supplied by the fine-woolled flocks introduced by the Romans. The vacant mountains, when cleared of banditti, offered a vast range of pasture from Estremadura northward, towards Galicia and the Asturias. A similar opportunity occurred to establish or renew the institution of travelling flocks, when the Christians descended, in the middle of the 13th century, to occupy the conquered provinces of Andalusia and Murcia. After that time, the travelling-flocks became so well established, that the *mentargo*, or tolls, on their passage through the mountains from province to province, the *servicio*, or tax to the crown, and the laws of the *mesa*, were imposed or ratified by government in the middle of the 15th century, before the Moorish kingdom of Grenada had been finally reduced.

We

We are thus enabled, from history, to trace the introduction and establishment of the merino race of sheep in Spain, from which, or from their descendants, nearly all the manufactories of fine cloth in Europe are at present supplied with wool.

The native breeds of Bœtica were originally and gradually converted into fine-woolled animals, by repeated crosses with the Tarentine flocks; and thus an immense number of hardy sheep, producing a most valuable pile, were spread over the country, and survived the successive conquests of the Goths and Vandals, and the protracted warfare of many centuries. The pure Tarentine breed in Greece and Italy being more delicate, is said to have become extinct with the destruction of the Roman empire; but the mixture of this race with the original flocks of Italy may still be distinctly traced, particularly in the middle and southern parts. The Italian wool was finer than that of any other country in Europe, except Spain, prior to the improvements which have recently taken place by the introduction of the merinos. It is not improbable, that the fine-woolled flocks of England, though greatly inferior to the merinos in the quality of the wool, were also originally descended from crosses with the Tarentine breed, introduced by the Romans when they established a manufacture of woollen cloth at Winchester.

The destruction or deterioration of the improved flocks in the ages of barbarism which succeeded the fall of the Roman empire, was the natural consequence of the decay of the manufactures, and of a total inattention to prevent the intermixture with coarser breeds. In Spain alone, the improved race had taken such complete possession of the mountainous districts, that it remained unmixed and unimpaired till the revival of commerce and the arts, when that country supplied the neighbouring nations with fine wool, and was supposed to possess some peculiar advantages of soil and climate, which it would be vain to seek for elsewhere. The opinion that the superior fineness of the Spanish fleeces was derived entirely from some peculiarity of the soil and climate, had obtained so generally, and was so firmly believed, even twenty-five years since, in this country, that he who asserted the contrary, was regarded by agriculturalists and clothiers as a speculative theorist, only deserving their pity.

It is not a little remarkable, that this prejudice continued undiminished nearly a century after the merino sheep had been introduced into Sweden and Saxony, and had continued to produce wool in those countries equally fine with that of their parent flocks in the Spanish peninsula. It might have been previously supposed that the climate of Sweden, being much colder than that of Great Britain, and more remote from the annual mean temperature of Spain, would render that country peculiarly unfriendly to the merino race and to the production of fine wool. This prejudice respecting the influence of climate would have been removed by considering that almost all the finest furs are the production of cold climates, and that the growth of fine wool and fur is a provision of nature, to defend animals against the severe cold of the districts nearer the poles. Mr. Alstroemer, who had previously endeavoured to ameliorate the breed of sheep in Sweden, by importations from England and Germany, obtained a flock of merinos, which he introduced into that country (as we have said) in the year 1723. In the year 1739, the Swedish government, for the promotion of this race, instituted a *school of shepherds*, under the direction of Mr. Alstroemer, and public funds were appointed for granting premiums to those who sold rams of the Spanish breed; and, from the same period to 1780, a premium of twenty-five per cent. was also granted on the sale of fine wools of a good quality. These premiums were afterwards reduced, and finally discontinued in 1792, being no longer necessary. From exact accounts, it appears that the fine wool sold from 1751 to the year 1790, amounted to 3,402,961 francs: but

the quantity of fine wool actually produced was much greater than what had been sold to receive the premium, a considerable part having been consumed in domestic manufactures by the growers and others; and the distance of the public magazines, where the wools were sent to receive the premium, prevented the public returns from including the real quantity of fine wool grown. In the year 1764, there were in Sweden 65,369 sheep of the pure merino race, and 23,384 of a mixed breed producing fine wool. The Swedish merinos preserve their primitive form; their fleeces are very close, and the wool has not deteriorated in fineness, length, or elasticity; and the sheep produce as great a weight of fleece as in Spain, wherever they are supplied with a sufficient quantity of food. This race, now naturalized in Sweden, are larger and stronger than the Spanish sheep. These facts prove decidedly that the Spanish sheep do not lose the good qualities of their wool by a removal to cold countries. At the same time it must be observed, that those sheep degenerated which had been neglected, or treated in the same wretched manner as the native flocks, by confining them in damp, infected, and dirty, stables during a part of the year, and omitting the requisite quantity of food; or pasturing them in summer in forests and marshes, or in low moist situations, where they could neither find the proper kind nor due quantity of herbage.

The introduction of the merinos into Saxony took place in 1765, and again in the year 1778. The first flock consisted of one hundred rams and two hundred ewes, chosen for the elector of Saxony from the best flocks in Spain; they were placed under the care of a Spanish majorinus or mayor, at Stolpen, six leagues from Dresden, on the frontiers of Bohemia. After ten years' experience, it was found that they had preserved all the original good qualities of the fleece, and the wool from the mixed breed had also acquired a degree of fineness which did not yield to that from Spain. As soon as it was ascertained by experience that it was easy to naturalize the Spanish sheep in Saxony, and that the crosses from this race with the native flocks were so greatly ameliorated, the attention of the agriculturalist was directed to the general improvement of the flocks; and such has been the success, that their produce is at present one of the greatest sources of profit to the cultivator. During the last fifteen years, a very considerable quantity of fine wool has been imported from Saxony into England, and the price of the best sort is greater than that of the finest Spanish wool; a sufficient proof of the estimation in which it is held by the manufacturers. It is better suited for the finest kerseymeres, and the more delicate articles of the woollen trade, as it can be spun to a greater length than any other kind of carded wool grown in Europe; it is also superior in fineness; but, owing to the scarcity of winter-food, it is generally less found than the best Spanish, and not so well suited for stout cloths.

The merino race has since been introduced into Denmark, the Prussian states, Austria, France, Holland, Italy, the Cape of Good Hope, and the United States of America.

As France is perhaps the most formidable rival which our manufacturers of fine cloths will meet in foreign markets, the progress made in the amelioration of her native flocks becomes an object of interest to the English agriculturalist and clothier. The celebrated minister Colbert first formed the design of improving the breeds of French sheep, by importations from England and Spain. But his intentions were at that time opposed. It was not till the year 1776 that the Spanish breed was introduced into France, by M. M. Trudaine, intendant of finances, under the direction of the celebrated naturalist Daubenton. The experiments which he made on these sheep, and numerous crosses from them, with seven distinct breeds, which he had on his estate in Auxors, demonstrated to the government that it was easy to introduce and preserve a race of sheep in France, producing super-
fine

fine wool; and, in the year 1786, a selection of 376 rams and ewes, from the finest flocks in Spain, was conducted, under the care of a mayor, to the farm of Rambouillet. They consisted of individuals of extraordinary beauty, superior to any previously introduced into France; but, having been chosen from a number of distant flocks, they presented great varieties of shape and size, which have since disappeared by intermixture; and a new race has been formed, differing from any of the primitive flock, but which equals the best of them in form and constitution, and in the fineness, length, softness, elasticity, and quantity, of wool.

It is to be observed, that the wool-dealers and manufacturers in France were at first disposed to depreciate the value of the wool; but, numerous accurate experiments having proved that the cloths manufactured from it were in every respect equal to those made from the best Spanish wool, these prejudices disappeared; and the republican government, as well as that of the emperor Napoleon, interested themselves in the further introduction of Spanish sheep into France. In the year 1802, it was calculated that there were one million sheep in France, either of pure merinos, or of an ameliorated mixed breed. Since that time many large flocks have been imported from Spain, the temporary command which the French obtained of that country having afforded them facilities for their introduction. In the course of a very few years, France will, in all probability, produce a sufficient supply of superfine wool for her extensive woollen manufactories. The following is an account of the annual sale of sheep from the merino flock at the royal establishment at Rambouillet in France, on the 16th and 17th of June, 1818, extracted from a letter of M. Huzard, director of the establishment, to sir Joseph Banks. "Eighty-one ewes sold by auction at 6l. 5s. sterling each. The highest-priced lots were sold at 22l. 12s. 1d. each, charges included. The average price of the ewes sold, 13l. 5s. each. Eighty rams were sold at, from 98l. 15s. each, to 29l. 5s. 10d. Average price of the rams, 52l. 11s. 8d. The flock was in the best possible state of health."

The experiments which have been made by the introduction of the merino sheep into the United States of America, the Cape of Good Hope, and New Holland, prove that fine wool may be grown wherever there are intelligent cultivators, and that it is not the gift of a peculiar soil or climate. We are, however, fully convinced, that very elevated temperatures will require greater care to prevent deterioration. The specimens of wool which we have seen from New Holland, appear to have been affected by an arid sandy soil, and by the great heat of the sun, which has in some degree injured the softness of the fleece. Between the tropics, elevated mountains and shade would be essentially requisite to preserve a race of fine-woolled sheep from degenerating.

The advantages which the merino sheep possesses as wool-bearing animals, over the native breeds of English fine-woolled sheep, consist in three important peculiarities: 1st, the wool is much finer; 2dly, it is more regularly fine over the body; and 3dly, it is grown in a larger quantity from the same surface of skin. That the merino wool is finer than the best English, is proved from this circumstance; the best sorted Spanish wool, or the "R wool" as it is called, from the finest flocks, sells at nearly double the price of the best English sorted wool, or what the wool-staplers call the *prime* and *picked lock*. Those English fleeces which yield a portion of the best sort, generally contain a larger portion of inferior sorts: sometimes eight sorts will be found in one fleece, and the finest will not constitute one-eighth of the whole. On the contrary, the fleeces of the merino sheep are so regularly fine over the whole body, as generally to yield from two-thirds to three-fourths of the superfine or "R wool." The second sort, called the "F wool," is also fine; and, with the "T wool," or third sort, bears a higher price than the best English wool. The quantity of wool on a me-

rine sheep is considerably greater than on an English sheep of the same size; this is not owing to the greater length of the wool, but to the animal being more fully clothed over the body and legs; and the wool is also grown closer than on English sheep; that is, there are more filaments on the same surface. A moderate-sized well-clothed merino sheep will yield a fleece which, when brought to the same state of purity as the English wool, will weigh 3lbs. A Ryeland, Norfolk, or South-Down, sheep, of the same size, will produce a fleece only weighing about 2lbs. The value will be nearly as five to two in favour of the merino fleece. In this state, however, the merino fleece is not clean; as the wools imported from Spain are scoured after they are shorn, and before they are sorted, by which means it is much cleaner than it can be made by washing on the back of the animal.

The shape of these animals by no means corresponds with the symmetry of form which an English grazier considers as the criterion of excellence. The legs are rather long, the neck curved, and from the throat there hangs a pendulous skin, or dewlap, which is very offensive to those who are only accustomed to view the improved breeds of English sheep. This appendage is valued in Spain, as indicating a tendency to produce wool. The colour of the skin beneath the wool, on the back and sides, is of a rose-red colour: this is also considered by the Spaniards as a sign of a robust constitution and an abundant fleece. The only English sheep which have the same coloured skin, with the pendulous dewlap, are the Ryeland, which produces also the finest English wool. These circumstances, with the ancient practice of housing the sheep, continued in Herefordshire, where it is called *cotting*, confirm the opinion before advanced, that the Ryeland sheep were descended from the Tarentine race introduced by the Romans into this country.

The Spanish breed of sheep were first introduced into Great Britain in the year 1787. Some individuals of the black and spotted sheep had indeed been procured, and kept in the parks of noblemen previously, but without any regard to the wool; nor was much interest excited by the flock introduced in 1787. The sheep however lived, though treated in the English manner; and the wool had not deteriorated. These facts having proved that the merino race might be naturalized in England, his majesty George III. obtained from the marquis of Campo Alarico five rams and thirty-five ewes of the Nigrette race. They were imported in the year 1792; and next followed that large importation which has naturalized the merinos among us.

The *cavana*, or flock, of Paular, to which the animals presented to his majesty belonged, consisted of 36,000 sheep; and the selection was so made as to render the gift peculiarly valuable. "The number sent from Spain to the king was 2000, equal to two subdivisions of the original *cavana*: to make the present the more valuable, these were selected by the shepherds from eight subdivisions, in order to choose young, well-shaped, and fine-wooled, animals. The whole number embarked was 2214; of these, 214 were presented by the Spaniards to some of his majesty's ministers, and 427 died on the journey, either at sea, or on their way from Portsmouth to Kew. His majesty was graciously pleased to take upon himself the whole of the loss, which reduced the royal flock to 1573. As the time of giving the ram in Spain is July, the ewes were full of lamb when they embarked; several of them cast their lambs when the weather was bad at sea, and were rendered so weak and infirm by abortion, that several more died soon after their arrival, notwithstanding the great care taken of them by his majesty's shepherds." Letters and Papers of the Bath Agricultural Society, vol. xii. 1820.

Hence it is clear, that we possess the complete and unmixed race of that flock of the Spanish breed which is most esteemed for prime piles. The sheep went on very well in this country; and the quantity and quality of the

wool were greatly admired. But the prejudices of the manufacturers were not so speedily to be surmounted as the difficulties attending the naturalization of the merino sheep. Though the wool was admitted to be equally fine with the best imported wool from Spain, they would not offer a proportionate price, fearing that it might not prove equally good when manufactured. It ought however to be stated, that the condition in which the English merino-wool was offered for sale, either very imperfectly washed, or entirely in the grease, prevented the manufacturer from forming a just comparison with the wools from Spain, which came to this country clean scoured, and regularly sorted; nor could they appreciate the loss it would sustain in scouring, which is not less than from 60 to 70 per cent. We are well persuaded that this uncertainty respecting the loss in scouring has, more than any other circumstance, retarded the sale of the English merino-wool, from the year 1792 to the present time. Nor will our manufacturers ever greatly encourage the growth of this wool, until it be brought to market, either sorted and scoured like the wools from Spain, or in the same state of purity in the fleece as the fine English or Saxon wool. Many manufacturers who have purchased it have been greatly disappointed, not in the quality, which was excellent, but in the small quantity which remained after scouring. In consequence of the manufacturers declining to purchase his majesty's wool, it became necessary to have it manufactured on his majesty's account, to demonstrate its fitness for superfine cloths. This was done till the year 1796, when it was resolved to sell the wool at the price which was offered, that the manufacturers might have a fair trial. The clip was sold that year for 2s. a-pound, and the following year for 2s. 2d. In the years 1797 and 1798 the wool was sorted in the Spanish manner, and scoured, after having been previously washed on the sheep's back.

The prices after that time progressively increased with the price of Spanish wool, and have been nearly equal to that of the best piles from Spain. In the year 1801, lord Somerville took a voyage to the peninsula, for the purpose of selecting such sheep as united in the greatest degree the excellence of the fleece with a good carcase. His efforts were in a considerable degree successful, and, as far as related to the fleece, completely so. Since that time, peace has increased the facility of procuring merino sheep from the various Spanish flocks; and the stock of these sheep in England at present is sufficiently great to change, in a few years, the whole race of fine-woolled sheep in Great Britain, were such a change desirable.

The facility of procuring a thing generally causes it to be slighted. Merinos, therefore, got out of fashion. Mr. Coke of Norfolk gave them up before the year 1816. But the peace had made them less necessary to us, at the same time that they were more easily obtained. We ought to bear in mind the peculiar time and circumstances under which the merinos were first introduced into this country. The French were then masters of the whole peninsula; and it followed, as a natural consequence of the war, that superfine wools should be withheld from this country. Of course they soon rose enormously in value, and the merinos flourished. But no man could foresee events. The valour of our soldiers prevailed; peace followed; and by it more injury was done to the merino cause than by all the events of war! As soon as peace was established, a vast importation followed of any thing and every thing that bore the name of a Spanish sheep; and such was the avidity with which these wretched animals were sought after, that immense sums were forthwith expended; and every cockney who had a patch of grass before his house turned merino-breeder.

It was stated, however, at the Holkham sheep-shear of July 1816, that the merino-breed was gaining ground in the west of England, where they are best known; and that, in the preceding year, the Bath and West of England Agricultural Society had awarded their premium for

the best and most profitable breed of sheep to the merinos. The Society of Arts in the Adelphi, London, bestowed their gold-medal premium, in 1817, on J. G. Hall, esq. of Mexbury, near Buckingham, for communicating his method of winter-protection and shelter to 1160 pure merino-sheep. We have already spoken of the advantage of covered sheep-folds under the article *HUSBANDRY*, vol. x. p. 584. and we therefore refer to that article; and also to the Transf. of the Soc. of Arts, 1817, for the particular management of Mr. Hall, which is well deserving of attention.

We conclude this section with the latest intelligence; namely, an account of the Merino Society's annual show of sheep, wool, and cloth, May 12, 1819. "Like last year's, the present show was thinly attended, and the number of sheep exhibited not many above two score. The size of the wedders was fully sufficient, granting them pure merinos, as they were described, weighing upwards of 11 stone per carcase, and one of them yielding 17lbs. of tallow. One whole flock averaged 8lbs. of wool each. It was remarked that, in form, they strongly resembled the South-Downs, and that one ram approximated to that of the New-Leicesters. The prize-fleece weighed 11lbs. 14oz. The prize-cloth combined extraordinary fineness with substance. It has been said that Anglo-merino superfine cloth possesses too great durability to please the London tailors. The funds of the society were re-established by the munificent liberality of individual members, the example of which was set by Mr. Ghorme, draper, of London, who made an offer of 25l. C. C. Western, esq. on receiving two prizes of 10l. 10s. each, delivered his conviction on experience, that the merinos were an improving and profitable breed of sheep; at the same time, on account of the difficulties under which the society laboured, making a tender of two premiums equal in value to those which he had received, towards the next year's distribution. This example was seconded by the president, lord Dundas, who tendered two premiums; also by C. T. Tower, John Tharp, and John Fane, esqrs. one premium each, making the gratuitous premiums equal in number to those heretofore given by the society." In this great sheep-breeding and manufacturing country, it will be strange to reject a breed, which of all others produces the finest and heaviest fleece, covering also a good carcase of mutton; and more especially as our continental neighbours use the same breed with the utmost success, supplying us with their wool, and boasting their superior knowledge as shepherds. Should not some comparative experiment be immediately instituted, between pure merinos and various other English fine-woolled sheep, and the results published at the annual merino-shows?

So serious is the depression in the price of wool in general, that the farmers who sold that article this time last year for 2s. a-pound, can obtain only 1s. 1d. this year. *Bristol Paper*, May 21, 1820.

d. *O. polycerata*, the many-horned sheep: horns more than two. Of this there are many sub-varieties; but they occur in the northern parts of Europe, rather than elsewhere.

In the *Iceland sheep*, the horns are either three, four, or five, in number; sometimes placed with the greatest regularity, and sometimes differing in proportion and situation. See the head of one, at fig. 5.

A *four-horned* variety is very common in Siberia, and among the Tartarian flocks about the river Jenisei. In the ram of this breed, the two largest horns are straight, and nearly upright on the top of the head; while the smaller pair are seated on each side of the head, and turn downwards. The body is covered with wool, the fore-part of the neck with yellowish hair about fourteen inches long. They are very mischievous and quarrelsome. See the Plate, at fig. 6.

e. *O. Africanus*, the African sheep: short hair, instead of wool.

ζ. *O. Guineensis*, the Guinea sheep: ears pendulous; dewlaps lax, hairy; hind part of the head prominent. This, which is sometimes termed the Cape sheep, and which is erroneously mentioned in Buffon's Natural History as of Indian extraction, is supposed to be most frequent in Guinea, and is distinguished from others by its remarkably meagre appearance, length of neck and limbs, pendent ears, and long arched or curved visage. It is covered with hair rather than wool, and has a pair of pendent hairy wattles beneath the neck, as in goats. The horns are small; and the tail long and lank. This variety is also considered as a distinct species in the twelfth edition of the *Syſtema Naturæ*.

η. *O. laticaudata*, the broad-tailed sheep. This extraordinary and awkward variety occurs in Syria, Barbary, and Ethiopia. It is also found in Tartary, Thibet, &c. Its general appearance, as to other parts of the body, scarcely differs from that of the European sheep; and in Thibet it is remarkable for the exquisite fineness of its wool. The tails of these sheep sometimes grow so large, long, and heavy, as to weigh, according to some reports, from fifteen to fifty pounds; and, in order to enable the animal to graze with convenience, the shepherds are obliged to put a board, furnished with small wheels, under the tail. This part of the sheep is of a substance resembling marrow, and is considered as a great delicacy. Mr. Pennant has remarked, that both the broad and long tailed varieties of this kind of sheep were known to the ancients; being mentioned by Aristotle and Pliny; the former mentioning the first, and the latter the second, sort. One says the tails were a cubit broad, the other a cubit long. There are many intermediate races of these sheep; and some have the tails ending in a point; others rather square, or rounded; but, in every case, their fleeces, in fineness, beauty, and length, are equal even to those of Caramania. The Cachemirians engross this article, and have factories in all parts of Thibet for buying up the wool, which is sent into Cachemir, and worked into shawls, superior in elegance to those woven even from the fleeces of their own country. This manufacture is a considerable source of wealth. Bernier relates, that in his days, shawls made expressly for the great omrahs, of the Thibetian wool, cost a hundred and fifty rupees; whereas those made of the wool of their own country never cost more than fifty. These articles of luxury have, till of late, been supposed to have been made with the hair of a goat, till we were undeceived by Mr. Bogle, a gentleman sent by Mr. Hastings on a commission to the Tayshoo Lama of Thibet.

θ. *O. Bucharica*, the Bucharian fat-rumped sheep: ears large and pendulous; fatty cushions on the hips; tail long and flat.

There is another fat-rumped variety, of which the character is, that the cushions on the hips are larger, and that there is no tail, or, if there be a tail, it is so enveloped with fat as to be scarcely visible. The fat-rumped sheep without tails have arched noses, wattles, pendulous ears, and curled horns, like the common sheep. The wool is coarse, long, and in flocks; the legs slender, and the head black: the ears are of the same colour, with a bed of white in the middle. The wool is generally white, sometimes black or reddish, and often spotted. The buttocks appear like two hemispheres, quite naked and smooth, with the os coccygis between scarcely sensible to the touch. These are composed only of suet; whence Dr. Pallas properly styles this variety *Ovis ſteatopyga*. These sheep grow very large, even to two hundred pounds weight, of which the posteriors weigh forty. Their bleating is short and deep, more like that of a calf than a sheep. They abound in all the deserts of Tartary, from the Volga to the Irtis, and the Altaic chain; but are more or less fat according to the nature of the pasture, and most so where the plants are of a saline nature. These monstrous varieties are supposed to originate from disease, arising from an excess of fat in the hind parts, which in-

volved, and at length destroyed, the tail. By breeding between animals similarly affected, the race was probably continued in those parts where food and climate have concurred to support the same appearances. Those with fat tails, are rather in the way to exhibit such a singular variety, or a mixed breed between the common and tailless kind. All abound so greatly in Tartary, that one hundred and fifty thousand have been sold annually at the Orenburg fairs, and a much greater number at Troinkaja, in the Irkutsk government, bought from the Kirgizian Tartars, and dispersed through Russia. They are very prolific; usually bring two at a time, and often three.

ι. *O. longicaudata*, the long-tailed sheep: tail long and woolly.

κ. *O. Capensis*, the Cape sheep: ears large, pendulous; tail large and broad.

λ. *O. strepsiceros*, the Cretan sheep: horns upright, carinated, spirally contorted. This variety is principally found in the island of Crete, and is kept in several parts of Europe for the singularity of its appearance; the horns being very large, long, and twisted in the manner of a screw. Those of the male are upright, as at fig. 7. and those of the female at right angles to the head, as at fig. 8.

μ. *O. ankon*, the elbow-sheep: fore-legs short, bent like an elbow. A paper in the Phil. Trans. for 1813 gives an account of this new and permanent variety in the sheep, which was produced, without any assignable cause, on a farm a few miles from Boston in North America. It acquired the popular name of the *otter-breed*, from the shortness of its legs and the length of its back; and it received the more appropriate title of *ankon-sheep*, from the Gr. *ανκον*, an elbow. The characteristic was, very short legs, particularly the fore-legs, which were bent somewhat like an elbow. The skeleton brought to this country was compared by Sir Everard Home with the smallest Welch sheep that could be procured. The bone of the fore-leg of an ankon-sheep weighing 45lbs. was thicker, but not so long, as that of a Welch sheep scarcely one-fourth of the weight. The joints of the ankon-sheep were looser knit than usual, and the animal was feebler. Its mutton was as good as usual; its fleece rather worse. In New England the farms are surrounded only with low wooden or stone fences; the ankon-sheep was propagated because it could not easily get over these fences and injure the corn.

DISEASES OF SHEEP.—The sheep is more subject to disorders than any of the domesticated animals; giddiness, consumption, scab, dropsy, and worms, frequently seizing upon it, and destroying it. The diseases may be enumerated in the following order: rot, red-water, flux, pining, tag-sore, scab, foot-rot, leg-evil, staggers, sturdie-evil, hove, and fly. Of each of these we shall give the best description in our power, with the most approved remedies.

The *rot*, which is a very pernicious disease, has very much engaged the attention of scientific farmers. Some valuable and judicious observations have been made upon it, which ought to be circulated, as they may perhaps, in many cases, furnish an antidote for this malignant distemper. Some have supposed the rot owing to the quick growth of grass or herbs that grow in wet places. Without premising that all-bounteous Providence has given to every animal its peculiar taste, by which it distinguishes the food proper for its preservation and support, if not vitiated by fortuitous circumstances, it seems very difficult to discover, on philosophical principles, why the quick growth of grass should render it noxious, or why any herb should at one season produce fatal effects, by the admission of pure water only into its component parts, which at other times is perfectly innocent, although brought to its utmost strength and maturity by the genial influence of the sun. Besides, the constant practice of most farmers in the kingdom, who with the greatest security feed their meadows in the spring, when the grass shoots quick and is full of juices, militates directly against this

this opinion. Mr. Arthur Young, to whom agriculture is so much indebted, ascribes this disease to moisture. In confirmation of this opinion, which has been generally adopted, we are informed, in the Bath Society Papers, that there was a paddock adjoining to a park which had for several years caused the rot in most of the sheep which was put into it. In 1769 it was drained; and from that time the sheep were free from this malady. But there are facts which render it doubtful that moisture is the sole cause. We are told, the dry-limed land in Derbyshire will produce the rot as well as water-meadows and stagnant marshes; and that in some wet grounds sheep sustain no injury for many weeks.

On dissecting sheep that die of this disorder, a great number of insects, called *flukes*, or *slounders*, are found in the liver. That these flukes are the cause of the rot, therefore, is evident; but to explain how they come into the liver is not so easy. It is probable that they are swallowed by the sheep along with their food while in the egg-state. The eggs deposited in the tender germ are conveyed with the food into the stomach and intestines of the animals, whence they are received into the lacteal vessels, carried off in the chyle, and pass into the blood; nor do they meet with any obstruction until they arrive at the capillary vessels of the liver. Here, as the blood filtrates through the extreme branches, answering to those of the vena porta in the human body, the secreting vessels are too minute to admit the impregnated ova, which, adhering to the membrane, produce those animalcules that feed upon the liver and destroy the sheep. They are sometimes as large as a silver twopence, and are found both in the liver and in the pipe (answering to that of the vena cava) which conveys the blood from the liver to the heart. It is a singular fact, "that no ewe ever has the rot while she has a lamb by her side." The reason of this may be, that the impregnated ovum passes into the milk, and never arrives at the liver. The rot is fatal to sheep, hares, and rabbits, and sometimes to calves; but never infects animals of a larger size.

Miller says that parsley is a good remedy for the rot in sheep. Perhaps a strong decoction of this plant, or the oil extracted from its seeds, might be of service. Salt is also a useful remedy. It seems to be an acknowledged fact, that salt marshes never produce the rot. Salt indeed is pernicious to most insects. Common salt and water expel worms from the human body; and sea-weed, if laid in a garden, will drive away insects; but, if the salt be separated, by steeping it in the purest spring water for a few days, it abounds with animalculæ of various species. Lisle, in his Book of Husbandry, informs us of a farmer who cured his whole flock of the rot by giving each sheep a handful of Spanish salt five or six mornings successively. The hint was probably taken from the Spaniards, who frequently give their sheep salt, to keep them healthy. On some farms perhaps the utmost caution cannot always prevent this disorder. In wet and warm seasons, the prudent farmer will remove his sheep from the lands liable to rot. Those who have it not in their power to do this may give each sheep a spoonful of common salt, with the same quantity of flour, in a quarter of a pint of water, once or twice a-week. When the rot is recently taken, the same remedy, given four or five mornings successively, will in all probability effect a cure. The addition of the flour and water (in the opinion of Mr. Price, of Salisbury, to whose excellent paper in the Bath Society's Transactions the public are much indebted) will not only abate the pungency of the salt, but dispose it to mix with the chyle in a more gentle and efficacious manner. A farmer of a considerable lordship in Bohemia, visiting the hot-wells of Carlsbad, related how he preserved his flocks of sheep from the mortal distemper which raged in the wet year 1769, of which so many perished. His preservative was very simple and very cheap: "He fed them every night, when turned under a shed, cover, or stables, with washed fodder-straw; and, by eating it greedily, they all escaped."

That experienced agriculturist, lord Somerville, has used salt on his farm in Somersetshire for about ten years; and attributes the health of his flock of merino-sheep, which he purchased in Spain, chiefly to this circumstance. As these sheep had been accustomed to the use of salt, his lordship considered that, in our damp climate, and in the rich land of Somersetshire, it would be absolutely necessary to supply them with it regularly. He used at the rate of a ton of salt for every thousand sheep annually; and gave it them in the morning, to counteract the ill effect of the dew. A handful of salt is put on a flat stone, or slate, ten of which, set a few yards apart, are enough for a hundred sheep. Twice a-week has usually been found sufficient. Of a flock of near a thousand, there were not ten old sheep which did not take kindly to it, and not one lamb that did not consume it greedily. Salt is likewise a preventive of disorders in stock fed with rank green-food, as clover, or turnips, whereby excessive wind is generated in the stomachs of animals.

On the other hand, we must observe that, when the shepherds, who came with his late majesty's last flock of merinos from Spain, were questioned on the subject of giving salt to their sheep, they declared that this is only done in the hottest season of the year, when the sheep are on the mountains; that in September it is left off; and that they dare not give salt to ewes forward with lamb, being of opinion that it causes abortion.

A remedy for the rot in sheep, said to be infallible, has been lately offered to the public under sanction of letters-patent, by Mr. Thomas Fleet, an eminent farmer, near Basingstoke, in Hampshire. He calls it a "medicine for preventing the rot in sheep, and checking the farther progress of the said disease in those already infected with it; and also to render them capable of being fattened on the herbage of the same land which produced or occasioned the disease!" The ingredients of which the medicine is compounded, he declares on oath to be, turpentine, bole-armoniack, turmeric, quicksilver, brimstone, salt, opium, alkanet-root, bark, antimony, and camphor, mixed up in distilled water. What progress has been made in the prevention and cure of the rot in sheep by this medicine, we have not yet been able to learn. A correspondent in the Monthly Magazine gives us the following, which he says he never knew to fail, although the animal should have appeared in the last stage. "A strong decoction of elderberry well sweetened with honey, and given every morning, in about a gill at a time, or, if very bad, night and morning, will speedily bring about amendment; their pasture, if possible, should be changed; however, by the above means, I have reared fine flocks where it was said, in consequence of that complaint, sheep could not have been kept." Monthly Mag. for May 1813.

When land subject to the rot is lightly stocked, as with only half the number of sheep it would keep, they frequently escape the disease, which is a strong proof that they instinctively reject the spots that are unwholesome, and will never eat of them but from scarcity. The egg, or animalcule, must be very abundant, as a flock of sheep has been known to take the infection in a few minutes. A flock of one thousand was driven from the high downs, where sheep never take the rot, once only into a valley to drink, after a heavy shower of rain, and suffered to eat grass there for about fifteen minutes, when two hundred died rotten in the winter following.

It is matter of great surprise, that, when a sheep affected with the rot from strength of constitution survives and fattens, yet the flukes still exist in the liver: when the sheep is killed, these reptiles appear to be dead; but, at the moment the liver is taken out, and cut into, they are as lively as fresh-caught flat-fish, and much resemble them. See a figure of the *Fasciola hepatitis*, on the Plate of FERONIA, at fig. 1. vol. vii. p. 328. but a more correct representation on the HELMINTHOLOGY Plate II. fig. 19. vol. ix.

The *red-water* is another disorder most prevalent on

wet grounds; or otherwise to be caused by taking too much watery food, such as turnips, clover, rape, &c. Its removal has been attempted by the use of common salt, a tea-spoonful of elixir of vitriol, and the frequent driving the animal about; and it is asserted, that the disease may be wholly prevented by having-recourse to the use of dry food in the night-time, while the sheep are feeding upon these juicy kinds of food in the day. "I have heard (says Mr. Arthur Young) that it has sometimes been cured by tapping, as for a dropsy: this operation is done on one side of the belly towards the flank, just below the wool."

The *flux* is also produced by too much damp and moisture. The best remedy is said to be, to house the sheep immediately when the distemper appears; to keep them very warm, and feed them on dry hay, giving them frequent clysters of warm milk and water. The cause of the distemper may be either their feeding on wet lands, or on grafs that is become mossy, by the lands having been fed many years without being ploughed. When the farmer perceives his sheep-walks to become mossy, or to produce bad grafs, he should either plough or manure with hot lime, making kilns either very near or in the sheep-walks, because the hotter the lime is put on, the sweeter the grafs comes up, and that early in the year.

Contrary to this is the disease called *pinning*, which afflicts sucking-lambs. These animals, before they begin to eat grafs, are liable to have a discharge from the bowels, of a glutinous adhesive quality, which is apt to stick to the tail and buttocks, and, when hardened by the sun, sometimes to glue them together in so close and firm a manner as to prevent all possibility of their having any evacuations, and thereby soon to mortify and burit the intestines. The complaint is discovered by the lambs appearing swelled and sick, with the upper and middle parts of their tails closely glued down; and they are as readily cured, by separating their tails from their buttocks, when the retained excrement will be discharged with a disagreeable smell: and the immediate recurrence of it will be prevented by rubbing the parts over with sand, friable clay, mud, or, what is better, a little tallow. But they must be well looked after for eight or ten days, until they begin to eat grafs, when all danger from these obstructions is over. It is said to be most dangerous when the season is dry and backward; and seldom or ever to appear when the mothers are lean, and the weather disposed to be wet.

The *tag-fore* is a disease in sheep, which consists, as stated in a paper in the third volume of the Transactions of the Highland Society, of scabs and fores situated on the under side of the tail; arising, in warm weather, from its being fouled with purging and other discharges. The matter hardens there, irritates the tender vessels, and produces fores, which, if not attended to, run into mortification, and prove fatal. It is shown by the sheep turning frequently round to bite the tail. As this complaint arises principally from purging, and the nastiness caused by it, &c. the first thing to be done is the restraining and cure of this evacuation: after which the tail of the animal is to be clipped, and the fore part laid bare, washed carefully with milk and water, blood-warm, and then with lime-water. The sheep is then to be turned out into a dry pasture, and looked at again in two or three days; and, if not then well, the washing must be repeated, and the parts anointed with grease and tar mixed together in equal proportions.

The *foot-rot* mostly commences between the claws of the fore-foot, with a slight inflammation and swelling. In this way the sheep becomes lame, and some moisture oozes out between the claws, which has a disgusting smell; and, in proportion as the disease becomes more inveterate, it gets under the hoof, producing proud flesh. It has been commonly supposed to be infectious, on account of its spreading with such rapidity when not promptly removed. Most of the long-wooled and merino

breeds of sheep are said to be very subject to this disease; but other sorts of sheep are likewise found to frequently suffer from it. For its removal, the part affected should be pared and well cleaned without touching the quick, and then a caustic solution of the following kind dropped upon it, the foot being kept well wrapped up from the dirt: Two ounces of blue vitriol, the same quantity of roach-alum, and one ounce of verdigris, with a quarter of an ounce of muriated quicksilver, should be dissolved in a quart of good distilled vinegar. But there are many who make use of butter of antimony, applying it to the part by means of an iron skewer, after being pared in the manner stated above. It is always a proper precaution to separate the sheep that are thus affected from the rest of the flock; and it has been stated, that the change of the sheep into a more short dry pasture, is of great use in obviating the complaint.

The *leg-evil* is a disorder which affects sheep chiefly, as its name imports, in the legs. It is said, in a paper in the third volume of the Transactions of the Highland Society, that, for the most part, it begins at the knee, which swells and enlarges to a considerable degree, causing so much lameness as to prevent the sheep so affected from following the rest of the flock. The swelling is of a bluish or livid colour; sometimes, indeed frequently, having small blisters scattered over the leg affected, of a red colour, and filled with a bluish-coloured watery fluid. When the skin bursts, it leaves below it a loose flabby substance of the same colour, or rather darker, which extends even to the bone. It commonly first begins in one of the hind-legs, but, as it advances, affects all the four. It occasionally spreads from the hind-legs to the belly, and in every case the kidneys are affected, being loose and flabby, having some resemblance to the swelling of the legs, and being sometimes of a livid colour. In some cases, the disease proves very quickly fatal, while at other times it will continue in a mild state for weeks. It spreads very rapidly after appearing in a flock; and, if not speedily attended to, will injure them materially. It is, in general, very dangerous, cutting off the greater proportion of those which are affected with it. Indeed, many sheep-farmers kill the diseased sheep whenever they are seen to be affected with it, in order to prevent its spreading. In this disease, too, the eye of the sheep is languid, its tongue dry, it cannot eat, and, in general, is soon cut off by the complaint.

It commonly appears about the latter end of summer, but at times in the beginning of the autumn; arising at first, it is supposed, from such sheep as have unhealthy constitutions being too much exposed to wetness during rainy warm weather. Scratches in the legs, it is said, will produce it in such sheep as have bad constitutions. The sheep most subject to take the disease are, it is thought, those of the South-Down and Leicester breeds. It has seldom appeared to the north of the Tweed, although it has been pretty common on its southern banks, in the shires of Selkirk, Roxburgh, and part of that of Peebles.

As this is a very dangerous disease, the sheep affected with it should be brought home as soon as possible, to prevent it from infecting the flock, and its legs be well washed with soap and water; afterwards bathed with lime-water, or a solution of alum in water, and then anointed with what in the shops is known by the name of *citrine* ointment, which is made with mercury dissolved in aqua-fortis, and mixed with hog's-lard. If this be not at hand when the legs break out and run, a little quick-lime may be dusted on the sloughs, and the leg dressed with a cloth spread with fresh butter and a little tar. These dressings should be changed every second day: care should also be taken that the sheep have good and dry pasture during the time of the cure; and water, in which moss or peat-earth has been soaked or steeped, may sometimes be preferred, in cases where it can be had, on account of its astringent or antiseptic quality, to common water, for their drink, as well as for washing the legs

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with. This disease has sometimes the name of *black-leg* given to it. There is a disease somewhat similar to this affecting the *tails* of sheep.

The *scab* is a cutaneous disease, owing to an impurity of the blood, and is most prevalent in wet lands or in rainy seasons. It is cured by tobacco-water, brimstone, and alum, boiled together, and then rubbed over the sheep. If only partial, tar and grease may be sufficient. But the simplest and most efficacious remedy for this disease was communicated to the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. by sir Joseph Banks. "Take one pound of quicksilver, half a pound of Venice turpentine, half a pint of oil of turpentine, and four pounds of hog's-lard. Let them be rubbed in a mortar till the quicksilver is thoroughly incorporated with the other ingredients; for the proper mode of doing which, it may be proper to take the advice, or even the assistance, of some apothecary, or other person used to make such mixtures. The method of using the ointment is this: Beginning at the head of the sheep, and proceeding from between the ears along the back to the end of the tail, the wool is to be divided in a furrow till the skin can be touched; and, as the furrow is made, the finger, slightly dipped in the ointment, is to be drawn along the bottom of it, where it will leave a blue stain on the skin and adjoining wool: from this furrow similar ones must be drawn down the shoulders and thighs to the legs, as far as they are woolly; and, if the animal is much infected, two more should be drawn along each side parallel to that on the back, and one down each side between the fore and hind legs. Immediately after being dressed, it is usual to turn the sheep among other flock, without any fear of the infection being communicated; and there is scarcely an instance of a sheep suffering any injury from the application. In a few days the blotches dry up, the itching ceases, and the animal is completely cured: it is generally, however, thought proper not to delay the operation beyond Michaelmas. The *Hippobosca ovina*, called in Lincolnshire *sheep-fagg*, an animal well known to all shepherds, as it lives among the wool, and is hurtful to the thriving of sheep, both by the pain its bite occasions, and the blood it sucks, is destroyed by this application; and the wool is not at all injured. Our wool-buyers purchase the fleeces on which the stain of the ointment is visible rather in preference to others, from an opinion that, the use of it having preserved the animal from being vexed either with the scab or fagg, the wool is less liable to the defects of joints or knots; a fault observed to proceed from every sudden stop in the thriving of the animal, either from want of food or from disease. This mode of curing was brought into Lincolnshire by Mr. Stephenson of Mareham; and is so generally received, that the scab, which used to be the terror of the farmers, and which frequently deterred the more careful of them from taking the advantage of pasturing their sheep in the fertile and extensive commons, is no longer regarded with any apprehension: by far the most of them have their flock anointed in autumn, when they return from the common, whether they show any symptoms of scab or not; and, having done so, conclude them safe for some time from either giving or receiving infection."

The *sluggers* is a disease, the name of which explains the nature of it. It shows itself by the reeling, wavering, staggering, and imperfect gait, of the animal; by the heavy, dull, and sluggish, motion and appearance of it; and an inclination to become drowsy, and the resting or reclining of the head upon any convenient place near it. It sometimes, however, puts on a more local inflammatory appearance, in which cases the beasts have commonly a less heavy drowsy disposition, with more of the wild raving or raging tendency and quality in their aspects and dispositions.

The remedy for this disorder was formerly to drive them to a change of grounds often, to keep the grounds from tainting: and it has been noticed by Lisle, that

those lambs which die of the staggers do not die till they begin to eat grass, and of those the finest and lustiest; whence he concludes, that it is not the cold weather alone that brings staggers, but their feeding on cold watery grass in the months of March and April. The disease was much prevented by the early folding of the lambs. It mostly appears in the autumn, and is said to be produced by a variety of causes; such as improper food, the leaves of the oak-tree, on account of their astringent quality, cobwebs besprinkled with dew, and different others: and it probably often proceeds from local affections, and water in the brain. Some have likewise supposed that it arises from the operation of a poisonous grass, the *Lolium temulentum*, which is alone met with in those situations of Scotland where the staggers in sheep prevail. The change of pasture is supposed to be the only effectual remedy in such cases; but the use of calomel and bark may often be found of material advantage, as well as other means which have a tendency to remove water from the brain.

Sheep are infested with worms in their nose, produced from the egg of a large two-winged fly called the *gad fly*. The frontal sinuses above the nose, in sheep and other animals, are the places where these worms live and attain their full growth. These sinuses are always full of a soft white matter, which furnishes the worms with a proper nourishment, and are sufficiently large for their habitation; and, when they have here acquired their destined growth, in which they are fit to undergo their changes for the fly-state, they leave their old habitation, and, falling to the earth, bury themselves there; and, when these are hatched into flies, the female, when she has been impregnated by the male, knows that the nose of a sheep or other animal is the only place for her to deposit her eggs, in order to their coming to maturity. See *OESTRUS OVIS*, vol. xvii. p. 416. and the correspondent Engraving.

The *hove* is a very distressing ailment; the remedy for which has been already given under the article *HUSBANDRY*, vol. x. p. 501, 2. with a representation of the instrument by which the cure is effected.

But the most formidable disorder incident to sheep, and with the mention of which we shall conclude this long article, is the *sturdy-evil* as it is called. We call it formidable, equally on account of its frequent occurrence, and because it constantly terminates fatally, unless when relieved by art. There are two varieties of it, as stated by Dr. Duncan, jun. in his useful paper on it, in the third volume of the Transactions of the Highland Society of Scotland; the appearances in each of which are as follow.

When a sheep is attacked with the first of these varieties of the sturdy, it ceases, it is said, to improve, becomes dull, is apt to loiter behind, and separates from the flock. It does not walk straight forward, but often defects on one side, or dozes round in a circle. The eyes glare steadily in its head, and seem enlarged, from the pupil being round instead of oval, which in healthy sheep is always the case in the day-time. Its vision is impaired, and it does not see any object which approaches it, until it be very near, when it starts away, and runs furiously, without any aim. When caught, it is remarkably stupid on being again liberated. In dry weather, it follows eagerly to that quarter from which the wind blows. It has a great reluctance at passing water, as burns or brooks, and cannot easily get through them, but mostly frequents places where it can hear the sound of water. Some time after these appearances have presented themselves, in the course of perhaps about three weeks, there appears, and is found, on examining the head by pressing on it with the thumbs, a remarkable degree of softness at one part of it, where the skull seems to be wanting. In a few instances, no softness is to be discovered in any period of the disease; but, in either case, if not relieved by a proper operation, the animal loses the power of standing, and dies perfectly emaciated. The second, or latter, of these varieties, is, however,

however, much more rapid in its progress, in which, in addition to some of the above appearances, a great degree of stupor comes on in a few days, which is followed by total blindness, and no softness is ever to be found in any part of the skull or bones of the head.

The appearances on opening the head in the first of the above varieties, are an oval or round bag, which is found lying between the brain and the skull, quite unconnected with any of the surrounding parts, generally situated between or beneath the horns. These bags vary much in size, being sometimes no larger than a plum, while at others they are as big as a goose's egg. They are filled with a clear fluid like water, sometimes intermixed with a thin crust, when it is of a glutinous or slimy nature. Within, or in the skins of these bags, are seen, according to some, many little white bodies, nits, or the ova, of insects. In proportion as the disease advances, the bag increases in size, and by its pressure causes the brain to decrease, while the skull immediately over the bag becomes soft and disappears, so that nothing intervenes between it and the integuments of the head. Sometimes, but only in those cases where no attempt has been made to cure or remove it, there are many small bags, unconnected with each other, distributed through the brain or cerebral parts.

In the second sort or variety of the disease, the water is not contained in a bag, but within the substance of the brain, in certain cavities termed its ventricles, and sometimes in the hinder parts, where it joins with the spinal marrow, in which case it is thought to be quite incurable.

Hard substances or excrescences growing out from the inside of the skull, and blows upon the head, occasionally produce all the appearances of real sturdy; but, in these cases, no water is to be found in the parts. The cause of the appearances in this disease is therefore, unquestionably, pressure on the brain, whether it arise from accidental contusion, from a bony excrescence, as in false sturdy, or from a collection of water, as in the legitimate varieties of it, as seen above. What however gives rise to these collections of water, is not by any means so well ascertained. Inflammation of the brain probably precedes its effusion in the latter variety of the disease; but the generation of the hydatids, or water-bags, in the former sort or variety, is not at all understood. The disease is not contagious; neither is it peculiar to any soil. It generally affects sheep of the hog kind in the beginning months of the spring and summer, and is commonly ascribed to exposure to tempestuous weather, without sufficient shelter.

In regard to the cure of the disease, as the natural termination of it is invariably fatal, unless those rare recoveries which are sometimes the consequence of accidental blows on the head, that probably rupture the bags, be excepted; and more especially as the mutton in this disease is good, the sooner an attempt is made to relieve the animal by the proper operation the better; for want of which relief, although it is extremely simple, and not unfrequently successful, thousands of sheep are suffered to perish through carelessness or ignorance. The cure in these cases may be attempted in three different ways; by tapping, by trepanning, or by wiring.

1. Where the bag is seated any-where in the crown of the head, some suppose that the most ready and the gentlest method is to tap it in the place where the skull is soft, and to let the water run out. This is most commonly performed by means of an awl, or large corking-pin, though an instrument with a small tube in it, termed a trocar in surgery, might be easily contrived and formed, which would drain it off in a more complete manner. By this operation, if the instrument be not pushed too far, the animal is nothing the worse, it is said, whether it recover or not. But, what is very remarkable, this plan is not, it is said, successful on all farms alike, of which many instances are known. An old shepherd has often been heard to remark, that, in the course of thirty years' experience, not one sheep out of twenty which he had tapped

on his own farm had died, while it was very rare that he could cure any on some of the neighbouring ones. He constantly performs it with a corking-pin. Others assert, that, in their neighbourhoods, more sheep have been cured by this operation than by any other, in performing which, the sheep is advised to be laid on its back, and the pin to be inserted in an oblique manner; if water follow, the cure is said to be certain; but, even though it should not follow, provided the bag be pricked into, it is often successful in removing the disease.

2. In the mode of cure by means of *trepanning*, and extracting the bag or cyst, there are several circumstances to be carefully attended to. The animal being properly secured, and the head placed in the most convenient position, the part to be cut being uppermost, the skin is to be divided by an incision an inch and a half in length, crossed by another of the same length at right angles to it. The skull, which is quite soft, is then to be cautiously divided in the same manner, until the bag with the fluid in it appear clear at the bottom of the incision, which it commonly does. The soft skull is now to be turned back, or a bit cut out of it, so as to render the bag completely visible. It should then be taken hold of by a pair of blunt forceps, and gently moved backwards and forwards, to loosen it from its connections, which are generally very slender. This may also be done by means of a crow-quill, or any blunt-pointed instrument, carried frequently round it. The nose of the animal is now to be held, so as to restrain its breath, which may force the bag from its situation. The operator is to continue moving and pulling it, stopping the breathing of the sheep at intervals, until it is quite extracted. The skin after this is to be laid neatly down again, and a cloth spread with tar placed and tied over the wound above the dry lint, which is folded and laid on it, to prevent either cold in the spring, or flies in the summer, from injuring it. This is to be allowed to remain for two days, when the dressings may be changed, and a bit of cloth spread with hog's-lard, fresh butter, tar, or some other ointment, applied on the wound. The dressings should be changed every second day for ten days or a fortnight; after which time, in ordinary cases, it will require no more attention, being generally healed up. The skull grows over it in about a month, and it then becomes of the usual hardness; and the animal is equally healthy as if no disease had previously existed. It is said that the senses return after the operation in a few hours, and that the next day the sheep seems to be quite relieved.

3. In respect to the operation of *wiring*, it is described in this manner by Mr. J. Hog. In case the skull should feel soft in the forehead, then the operation must be performed by thrusting a thick sharpened wire up each nostril, until it stop against the upper part of the skull. If this mode of cure were not well authenticated by experience and observation, it might, it is said, appear a very severe and dangerous operation or practice, as the wire goes quite through the brain in two different places; yet a far greater number of sheep are cured in this way than by any other.

OUISCON'SIN. See OUISCONSIN, vol. xvii. to which account it is proper to add, that this river has a communication with Fox-river, which, passing through Winnebago-lake, enters Puan-bay in Lake Michigan. On this river and its branches reside the Indians of its name, furnishing 300 warriors.

OUITA'NOU, a town and fort of North America, on the river Wabash: six miles south-west of Kathrippacanuck.

OUJULDIN'GA, a town of Bengal: twenty-five miles north-east of Kishenagur.

OUJULIN'KE, a town of Thibet, near Lake Jamdro: forty-two miles east-south-east of Kiang-fee.

OUKAKE'E, a lake of Canada. Lat. 50. 20. N. lon. 86. 30. W.

OU'KE-SI'MA, an island in the Chinese Sea, near the coast

coast of Tonquin, about thirty miles in circumference. Lat. 18. 44. N. lon. 105. 42. E.

OU'KE-TANAC'SA, a town of Thibet: ninety miles south-east of Lassa.

OU'KERCK, a town of Holland: seven miles south of Naarden.

OULA'IS, a town of Sweden, in the government of Ulea: twenty-five miles south-south-east of Brahestadt.

OULAN HO'TUN, a town of Chinese Tartary, in the country of the Monguls: 120 miles north of Pekin.

OULAN TABALAN', a town of Thibet: fifty-eight miles south of Cha-tcheou.

OULARD, a town of Ireland, in the county of Wexford: five miles north of Wexford.

OULBARA'YA, a town of Bengal: forty-eight miles south-south-east of Burdwan.

OU'CHY LE CHATEAU, a town of France, in the department of the Aisne: ten miles south of Soissons, and three north of Château Thierry.

OUL'LER, or TAL, a lake of Hindoostan, which lies near Sirinagur, and receives the river Behut. This lake is said to be of great extent, no less than fifty-three British miles in circuit, and perhaps sixteen or seventeen acres; according to which statement, it may reach to the frontiers of Little Thibet. The course of the Behut is to the north-west from Sirinagur to the lake; but the length of its course in this direction is not ascertained, any more than the length and direction of its course from the lake to its entry between the mountains at Barchmooleh.

OU'LENEY. See OLNEY, vol. xvii. p. 638.

OULOUSTOU', a lake of Chinese Tartary, in the country of the Monguls. Lat. 43. 23. N. lon. 114. 42. E.

OULSTEEN, an island near the coast of Norway, of a triangular form, twenty-four miles in circumference: 120 miles north of Bergen.

OULTON, a village in the West Riding of Yorkshire, with 1223 inhabitants: six miles south-east of Leeds.

OULTON, a village in Suffolk, two miles west of Lowestoft, is a large parish. The church is an old building dedicated to St. Michael: the steeple contains five bells, and is situated between the chancel and the church, which has two transepts, one in ruins. The house of industry for the hundred of Lothinland and Mutford stands in this parish.

OULU'A, a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: twenty miles south-south-east of Bettiah.

OULX, a town of Italy, in Piedmont, situated in a valley to which it gives name: five miles north of Sezanne, and nine south-west of Sufa.

OU'LY. See WOOLLY.

OU'MA, a river of Congo, which runs into the Bokian fifteen miles south of Pango.

OUMARY, a town of Hindoostan, in Goondwana: sixteen miles south of Nagpour.

OUNCE, *f.* [*once*, Fr. *uncia*, Lat.] A name of weight of different value in different denominations of weight. In troy-weight, an ounce is twenty penny-weight; a penny-weight, twenty-four grains.—A sponge dry weigheth one ounce twenty-six grains; the same sponge, being wet, weigheth fourteen ounces six drams and three quarters. *Bacon*.

The blood he hath lost,
Which I dare vouch is more than that he hath
By many an ounce, he dropt it for his country. *Shakespeare*.

OUNCE, *f.* [*once*, Fr. *onza*, Sax.] A beast of prey. See FELIS uncia:

The ounce,
The libbard, and the tiger, as the mole
Rising, the crumbled earth above them threw. *Milton*.

OUNDED, or OUNDING, *adj.* [*ondé*, Fr. from *unda*, Lat.] Waving; imitating waves. *Not in use*; except, perhaps, in the heraldic term *oundy* for *wavy*.—Endenting,

or barring, *ounding*, paling, winding. *Chaucer's Parson's Tale*.

Her *owndid* hair, that sunnifish was of hew,
She rent. *Chaucer's Tr. and Cress.*

OU'NDLE, a market-town and parish in the county of Northampton, situated on the north bank of the river Nen, which, making a horse-shoe bend in its course here, almost environs the town. Camden, and the author of *Magna Britannia*, assert that its proper name is *Avondale*, as standing in the Vale of *Avon*, the original appellation of the Nen. But this opinion seems extremely doubtful, as we find this place mentioned in the *Domesday-book* under the designation of *Undele*. The market-day is Saturday; and there are fairs annually on the 25th of February, Whit-Monday, and August 21. Here is an excellent free grammar-school, founded by sir William Laxton, a native of the town, and who was lord-mayor of London in 1544. The same beneficent person likewise erected and endowed the alms-house, and placed both it and the school under the patronage of the Grocers' Company of London, of which he was a member. The charity-school, established in 1620, owed its origin to the munificence of Nicholas Latham, who was for more than fifty years rector of Barnwell St. Andrew's, a village near Oundle. This person also founded a guild, or hospital, here for the reception of sixteen aged women, who have a weekly allowance for their support.

The church is a spacious edifice, consisting of a nave, north and south aisles, transept and chancel, with a square tower, surmounted by a hexagonal crocketed spire. The tower displays a series of five stories, and is terminated at each angle by a small octagonal turret. Over the river here are two large bridges; one on the road towards Thrapston, and the other on that leading to Yaxley in Huntingdonshire. The former, called North-bridge, is generally much admired, not only on account of the number and forms of its arches, but also for its causeway, which is formed on an arcade, and secures a passage to and from the place during the time of floods. Peter Hausted, author of the *Rival Friends*, *Senile Odium*, &c. and Dr. John Newton, a celebrated divine and mathematician, were natives of this town.

In 1811, the parish of Oundle contained 362 houses, and 1833 persons, i. e. 821 males and 1012 females; 62 families were employed in agriculture, and 302 in trade, manufacture, and handicraft.

About three miles to the south-east of Oundle, the Roman road called the *Via-Devana* crosses the country in an oblique direction from south-east to the north-west. Adjoining to this road is the parish and village of Aldwinckle All-Saints, distinguished as the birth-place of the poet Dryden. Aldwinckle St. Peter's, to the west of this parish, is likewise noted as the birth-place of Dr. Thomas Fuller, author of *A History of the Worthies of England*, and various other works. See FULLER.

At Barnwell St. Andrew's stand the ruins of a castle, erected by Reginald le Moine in 1132, and described by Leland under the title of "*Berengarius Moynes Castel*." It was long the baronial residence of the Montacute and Montague families, but has been for many years uninhabitable. It still forms, however, a very noble and curious specimen of ancient architecture, much of the original structure having survived the attacks of time and of alteration. The present remains consist of four round masonry bastion-towers, one standing at each angle of a quadrangular court, which is inclosed by a wall three feet in thickness. Three of these connecting curtains are nearly entire, but that on the western side is considerably dilapidated. The grand gateway, at the south-east front, still remains, and is flanked by similar circular bastion-towers of smaller dimensions. This village contains a charity-school.

In the *Gentleman's Magazine* for April 1737, we have
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an account, that "There was lately discovered on Mr. Campion's estate, at Coddlestock, near Oundle in Northamptonshire, a beautiful Roman pavement twenty foot square, and very little defaced by time; near it were found bones, ashes, and pieces of urns; an indication that the body of some noted heathen had been buried there. Among the rubbish thrown off the pavement five or six Roman medals of brass were discovered, two of which were fair, and seemed to bear the same image on one side, with this inscription; D. N. VALENTINIANUS P. F. AVG. i. e. *Dominus noster Valentinianus Pius Felix Augustus*. On the other sides were different images and mottos. One had the image of *Victory*, stepping from the right to the left; a coronet of laurel in her right hand, and a palm-branch in her left. On the reverse of another was the figure of an emperor in an erect posture, leaning with his right hand on the head of a captive, kneeling on one knee, with his hands tied behind him. His left hand was supported by a staff with a crucifix on the top of it, denoting him to be a *Christian*, as Valentinian was; one of the medals was struck at Constantinople, and the other at Siscia, as appeared by the letters at the bottom of them." *Gent. Mag.* vii. 254. *Beauties of England and Wales.* *Wilkes's British Directory.*

OUNIEH, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the government of Sivas, on the Black Sea: eighty miles north of Sivas.

OUNSBERRY-TOPPING, a steep, high, verdant, mountain, in Yorkshire, not far from Gisborough, which has a most delightful prospect, and is regarded by the sailors as a sea-mark. From a rock near the top of it there issues a spring, recommended for sore eyes.

OVO, a small island in the Mediterranean. Lat. 35. 39. N. lon. 25. 27. E.

OVOCA, a river of Ireland, in the county of Wicklow, which runs into the sea a little below Arklow.

OVOLO, *f.* in architecture, a kind of moulding so called, because, when carved, it resembles a string of eggs.

OUPHE, *f.* [*alf*, Teut.] A fairy; a goblin:

Nan Page and my little son we'll dress
Like urchins, *ouphes*, and fairies, green and white. *Shakespeare.*

OU'PHEN, *adj.* [from *ouph*.] Elfish:

Fairies, black, gray, green, and white,
Ye moonshine revellers, and shades of night,
You *ouphen* heirs of fixed destiny,
Attend your office. *Shakespeare.*

OU'PLE, a town of Hindoostan, in Dowlatabad: ten miles east of Perinda.

OU'QUES, a town of France, in the department of the Loire and Cher: twelve miles north-west of Mer, and fifteen north of Blois.

OUR, *pron. poss.* [Sax. *pe*, us; quasi *weer, ure, vor*, *oppe*, our. *Lye.*] Pertaining to us; belonging to us.—*Our* soul is the very same being it was yesterday, last year, twenty years ago. *Beattie.*

Our wit is given Almighty God to know;
Our will is given to love him, being known. *Davies.*

When the substantive goes before, it is written *ours*.—Reading furnishes the mind only with materials of knowledge; it is thinking makes what we read *ours*: it is not enough to cram ourselves with a great load of collections; unless we chew them over again, they will not give us strength. *Locke.*

Edmund; whose virtue in this instance
So much commands itself, you shall be *ours*. *Shakespeare.*
Thou hast fashion'd twice this soul of *ours*,
So that she is by double title thine. *Davies.*

OU'RA, a town of Portugal, in the province of Tras os Montes: nine miles south of Chaves.

OU'KAN, or U'KAN SOAN'GUS, the name of an imaginary sect of magicians in the island of Gromboccanore, in the East Indies. The word implies *men-devils*: these

people were ridiculously supposed to have the art of rendering themselves invisible, and passing where they pleased; and, by these means, doing infinite mischief; for which reason the people hate and fear them exceedingly.

OURANOG'RAPHIST, *f.* [from *ouranography*.] An astronomer; one who describes the heavens.

OURANOGRAPHY, *f.* [from the Gr. *ouranos*, heaven, and *γραφω*, to describe.] A description of the heavens.—The ingenious Mr. Hooke, in his animadversions on Hevelius's *ouranography*, had omitted the chief objection Hevelius makes against these kind of sights. *Hist. R. Soc.*

OURDA, a town of Bengal: seventy-two miles north of Dacca.

OURCIE'RES, a town of France, in the department of the Higher Alps: ten miles north of Gap.

OU'REM, a town of Portugal, in Estremadura, situated on a mountain, containing 1800 inhabitants: twelve miles south-east of Leyria, and twelve west of Thomar.

OU'REOS, a small island in the Gulf of Engia: fourteen miles north-west of Engia.

OURFA, ROHA, or ROUAH, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the province of Diarbekir, anciently called *Edeffa*. It is watered by a canal from the Euphrates. Many learned men, and the Jews universally, are of opinion, that it is the Ur of the Chaldees. The latter say that this place is called in scripture *Ourcaslin*, that is, the Fire of Chaldaea, out of which, they say, God brought Abraham; and, on this account, the Talmudists affirm that Abraham was here cast into the fire, and was miraculously delivered. This place seems to have retained its ancient name, as others have done; *Edeffa* being the name given it by the Greeks. However, the name seems to have been changed in honour of one of the kings of Syria of the name of Antiochus, and to have been called *Antiochia*. The famous fountain Callirrhoe being here, distinguished this city from others by the name of *Antiochia ad Callirrhoen*. Ourfa is built on part of two hills, and in the valley between them, at the south-west corner of a fine plain, which appears more beautiful, because all the other parts about it are rocky, or mountainous. The town is about three miles in circumference, encompassed with ancient walls, defended by square towers. On the north side there is a very deep foss, which seems to be the bed of a winter-torrent coming from the west; on the east this foss is not so deep, there being much morassy ground on that side. The hill on which the castle stands is to the south. Some parts of the town are tolerably well built, though it is not well laid out. The great beauty of it consists in some fine springs that rise very plentifully between two hills, and at the very walls of the city. The castle is situated on the south side of the city, at the beginning of a chain of hills which run southward. The ascent is very steep, and there is a deep foss cut into the rock on three sides of it. The castle is about half a mile in circumference; but there is nothing remarkable in it, except two very lofty Corinthian pillars with their bases, the capitals of which are fine; the columns consist of twenty-six stones, each about one foot six inches thick: they are probably the remains of a portico belonging to some large temple. There is a tradition, that the throne of Nimrod stood on these pillars; it is certain, however, that Timur Bec erected some trophies on them. Some ecclesiastical historians mention, that Abgarus king of *Edeffa* sent a letter to Our Saviour; but the truth of this has been much questioned. Ourfa is the residence of a pacha of two tails, who not only commands the greatest part if not all Mesopotamia, but also a considerable tract of country to the west of it, as far as Antab. There is a great trade in this place, as it is the only town in all these parts for a considerable distance, and as it is the great thoroughfare into Persia. They prepare Turkey leather here, especially the yellow sort, for which they were formerly famous. There is a considerable number of Armenian Christians in the city, who have two churches; one large one in the city, the other at some distance from it: in the latter

latter they show the tomb of a great saint, whom they call Ibrahim. As Ephraim Syrus was a deacon of Edeffa, it may be concluded that it is the tomb of that father of the church. This town was first taken by the Saracens in the year 1087. The Christians retook it in the year 1097; and in the year 1142 it was seized by the Turks, in whose power it has continued ever since. It contains about 20,000 inhabitants, and is eighty miles north-east of Aleppo. Lat. 36. 50. N. lon. 38. 25. E.

OURGOOR, a town of Hindoostan, in Golconda: thirty miles north-north-west of Rachore.

OURIGUI, a town of Hindoostan, in Dowlatabad: fifteen miles south-south-east of Kondur.

OURIQUE, a town of Portugal, in Alentejo, containing about 2000 inhabitants. In the year of Rome 606, the Romans were defeated near this town by Viriatus, and their general Claudius Unanimus killed. Near this town, Don Alphonso Henriques obtained a signal victory over the Moors, in the year 1149. It is twenty-four miles south-south-west of Beja, and seventy-five south-south-east of Lisbon. Lat. 37. 39. N. lon. 8. 9. W.

OURISTA, *f.* [from *ερος*, a mountain, in allusion to the natural situation of the plant.] In botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order angiospermia, natural order perfonatæ, *Lin.* (pedicularæ, *Juss.* scrophularinæ, *Brown.*) Generic characters—Calyx: perianthium inferior, in five deep, somewhat unequal, segments; permanent. Corolla: of one petal; tube funnel-shaped, ascending, longer than the calyx; limb in five obtuse nearly-equal lobes. Stamina: filaments four, inserted into the bottom of the tube, curved closely along its upper side, two of them rather the longest; antheræ incumbent, within the tube; some describe the rudiment of a fifth stamen. Pistillum: germen superior, two-lobed; style the length and position of the stamens; stigma of two obtuse lobes. Pericarpium: capsule two-lobed, of two cells, and two valves, the partitions from the centre of the valves. Seeds: numerous, with a lax tunic-like skin.—*Essential Character.* Calyx deeply five-cleft, rather unequal; corolla funnel-shaped; limb five-cleft, nearly-equal, obtuse; stigma two-lobed; capsule of two cells, and two valves; the partitions from the centre of each valve; seeds with a lax tunic-like skin. There are two species.

1. Ourisia ruelloides: leaves roundish-ovate, unequally crenate; flower-stalks axillary, opposite. Native of Terra del Fuego, in the clefts of rocks. Root perennial, creeping, with woolly fibres. Stems procumbent, short, smooth. Leaves on long erect stalks, roundish-ovate, about two inches long, nearly smooth, with one central rib, and two pair of lateral ones, their margin unequally and rather bluntly crenate; the under side palest. Flowering branches decumbent, hardly a span long, smooth, bearing two or three pair of rounded notched leafy bractes; flowers purple, on long, smooth, axillary, solitary, opposite, naked, simple, stalks, from the two uppermost pair of bractes. See CHELONE, vol. iv.

2. Ourisia integrifolia: leaves nearly ovate, entire; flower-stalk terminal, mostly solitary. Gathered by Mr. Brown in Van Diemen's Land. A smooth creeping plant, with a calyx more equally and deeply divided than the first species, as well as a shorter corolla, and a different aspect; so that its discoverer was partly inclined to think it generically distinct.

OU'RO, a river of Africa, which runs into the Atlantic in lat. 23. 30. N.

OU'RO, a river of Africa, which runs into the Indian Sea in lat. 24. 25. S.

OURO'E, a small island of Denmark, near the coast of Zealand, in the Isefiord Gulf: four miles north-east of Holbeck. Lat. 55. 46. N. lon. 11. 50. E.

OUROLOGY, or UROS'COPY, *f.* [from *ερος*, Gr. urine.] The doctrine of diseases, as judged of by the appearances of the urine.

The changes in the sensible qualities of the urine, under different circumstances of disease, are considerable; and

the ancients deduced many pathological inferences from these changes, and wrote ample treatises in explanation of their doctrines. Much of their supposed knowledge on the subject was, however, purely hypothetical, and altogether unworthy of serious attention. Although, doubtless, some indications are to be obtained from the appearances of the urine, both in acute and chronic complaints, yet these are much more limited than was formerly believed; and those who pretend to ascertain the nature of diseases, by *only* inspecting the urine of the patient, are, therefore, impostors of the lowest class; and it is truly discreditable to the general information of the age, that water-doctors still live upon the credulity of a British people.

The medical indications, as well as the chemical properties, of this excretion, will be treated of under the proper head. In the mean time we may observe, that Dr. Blackall, a physician of Exeter, has recently given an importance to uroscopy which it never before possessed, by showing that, in many cases of dropsy, and other chronic diseases, the urine contains much of the coagulable part of the blood; and thence deducing some important practical indications.

OUROUGER'D, a town of Persia, in the province of Irac: 104 miles south-east of Hamadan.

OUROUX, a town of France, in the department of the Nievre: seven miles north of Château Chinon.

OURED, a high hill of the county of Galway, Ireland, in the western district, at the bottom of which is a lake of the same name.

OUR'RY'S ISLAND, or NEW AL'DERNEY, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, discovered by captain Carteret in the year 1767. This is one of those called *Queen Charlotte's Islands*; about ten miles long, and five broad. Lat. 11. 10. S. lon. 165. 19. E.

OUR'SE, a river of France, which runs into the Seine at Bar sur Seine.

OURSELF, *reciprocal pronoun*; [plural of myself.] We; not others; it is added to *we*, by way of emphasis or opposition.—*We ourselves* might distinctly number in words a great deal farther than we usually do, would we but find out some fit denominations to signify them by. *Locke*.—Us; not others; in the oblique cases.—Our confession is not intended to instruct God, who knows our sins much better than ourselves do, but it is to humble *ourselves*; and therefore we must not think to have confessed aright till that be done. *Whole Duty of Man*.

Safe in *ourselves*, while on *ourselves* we stand,
The sea is ours, and that defends the land. *Dryden*.

OURSELF is used in the regal style.—Not so much as a treaty can be obtained, unless we would denude *ourselves* of all force to defend us. *Clarendon*.

To make society
The sweeter welcome, we will keep *ourselves*
Till supper-time alone. *Shakespeare's Macbeth*.

We *ourselves* will follow
In the main battle. *Shakespeare*.

OURTE, or OURTHE, a river of the Netherlands, which rises from two springs; one near St. Hubert, the other near the village of Ourte; both which unite near La Roche; the united stream passes by Durbuy, &c. and runs into the Meuse at Liege.

OURTE, or OURTHE, late one of the departments of France, formed of the greatest part of the country of Liege and of part of Limburg and Luxemburg; taking its name from the above river. Its capital, Liege, is now the capital of the (Southern) Province of Liege, in the kingdom of the Netherlands, to which the whole of this department was made over by the treaty of Vienna, June 1815.

OURTHE, a town of the kingdom of the Netherlands: four miles north of Luxemburg.

OUR'TON-POU'LAC, a town of Thibet: fifteen miles south-west of Yolotou-Hotun.

OURUC'ZE,

OURUC'ZE, a town of Poland, in Volhynia: sixty-eight miles north-north-east of Zytomiers.

OU'RVILLE, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine: nine miles west of Fécamp, and six south-west of Cany.

OUSBY, a town of Sweden, in the province of Schonen: twenty-three miles north of Christianstätt.

OUSCOT'TA, a town and fort of Hindoostan, in Mysore, taken by earl Cornwallis in April 1791: fifteen miles north-east of Bangalore.

OUSCOT'TA, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Sanore: twenty-five miles north of Sanore.

OUSE, *f.* Tanners' bark; rather *oose*. *Ainsworth.*

OUSE, [Gaelic, *water*.] A river of England, formed by the union of the Eure and the Swale, about four miles from Boroughbridge, in the county of York, which passes by Aldborough, York, Selby, &c. and joins the Trent on the borders of Lincolnshire, where their united streams form the Humber. It is seventeen miles west of Hull.

OUSE, a river of England, in the county of Sussex, which passes by Lewes, and runs into the sea below Newhaven, where it forms a considerable haven.

OUSE (Greater), a river of England, which rises in the county of Northampton, passes through Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire, Cambridgeshire, and Norfolk, and falls into the German Sea a little below Lynn.

OUSE, (Smaller), a river of England, which runs into the Greater Ouse near Downham in Norfolk.

OUSE, or GRAND RIVER, a river of Canada, which runs into Lake Erie in lat. 42. 50. N. lon. 79. 30. W.

OU'SEBEACH. See WISEBEACH.

OUSE'EL (Philip), a learned German reformed professor of divinity and oriental scholar, was the descendant of an ancient and noble family, originally from France, and born at Dantzic in the year 1671. He became minister of the German church at Leyden; and was afterwards appointed professor of divinity at Frankfort on the Oder. This post he filled with reputation till his death, which took place in 1724, when he was about fifty-three years of age. It is related of him, that when he was upon his death-bed, and his colleague was reciting for his consolation passages of scripture, in Latin or German, he corrected the language of the versions made use of by him, according to the original Hebrew or Greek, with the same accuracy and calm self-possession as if he had been seated in his academical chair. The most important of his works are, 1. *Introductio in Accentuationem Hebræorum Metricam*, 1714, 4to. in the preface to which he maintains that the Hebrew accents and points are as ancient as the books of the sacred scriptures themselves. 2. *Introductio in Accentuationem Hebræorum Prosaicam*, 1715, 4to. 3. *De Lepra*, 1709, 4to. 5. *Several Treatises on the Ten Commandments*, 4to.

He had a relation, called JAMES OUSEEL, who wrote some esteemed notes on the Octavius of Minutius Felix, which were inserted entire, together with those of Meursius, in the variorum edition of 1672, 8vo. *Ladocat's Dict. Hist.*

OU'SEL, *f.* [orle, Sax.] A blackbird.—Thrushes and *oufels*, or blackbirds, were commonly sold for threepence a-piece. *Hakewill on Providence.*

The merry lark her matins sings aloft,

The thrush replies, the mavis descant plays,

The *oufel* shrills, the ruddock warbles soft;

So goodly all agree, with sweet consent,

To this day's merriment. *Spenser's Epithal.*

The *oufel*-cock, so black of hue,

With orange-tawny bill.

Shakespeare.

USERAW', a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: twenty-five miles west-north-west of Rotasgur.

OUSOUR'I, a town of Chinese Tartary: sixty-seven miles south-south-west of Tondon.

OU'SSON, a town of France, in the department of the Loiret: eight miles south-east of Gien.

OUSSOO'R, a town of Hindoostan, in Mysore. This was an important place, and the fortifications had been strengthened by Tippoo; but was abandoned on the approach of the British troops, on the 15th of July, 1791. In one of the store-houses of the fort, a kind of journal was found, written by an Englishman, who, with two others, his companions, had been confined and put to death here by order of Tippoo. It is sixty-nine miles east-north-east of Seringapatam, and nineteen south-east of Bangalore. Lat. 12. 41. N. lon. 77. 52. E.

OUST, a town of France, in the department of the Arriege: seven miles south of St. Girons.

OUST, a river of France, which runs into the Villaine near Redon.

OUST. See OAST, vol. xvii. p. 354.

To OUST, *v. a.* [*ouster*, *ôter*, Fr.] To vacate; to take away.—Multiplication of actions upon the case were rare formerly, and thereby wager of law *ousted*, which discouraged many suits. *Hale*.—To deprive; to eject.—Though the deprived bishops and clergy went not upon account of the oaths, yet this made no schism; no, not even when they were actually deprived and *ousted* by act of parliament. *Leflie*.

OU'STAD, a town of Norway, in the province of Christianland: thirty-two miles west of Christianland.

OU'STER, *f.* Dispossession.—*Ouster*, or dispossession, is a wrong or injury that carries with it the amotion of possession. *Blackstone*.

OU'STER LE MA'IN, *f.* [or rather *la main*, Fr. to withdraw the hand.] A livery of land out of the king's hand, on a judgment given for him that sued a *monfrans de droit*; for, when it appeared that the king had no title to the land he seized, judgment was given in the chancery that the king's hands be removed; and thereupon an *amoveas manus* was awarded to the escheator to restore the land. See stat. 28 Ed. I. stat. 3. c. 19. When the male heir arrives at the age of twenty-one, or the heir female to the age of sixteen, they might sue out their livery or *ousterlemain*, that is, the delivery of their lands out of their guardian's hands. *Blackstone*.—It was also taken for the writ granted upon a petition for this purpose.—All wardships, liveries, and *ousterlemain*s, are taken away by stat. 12 Car. II. c. 24. *Jacob*.

OUSTIOU'G, a province of the Russian empire, bounded on the north by Dwina, on the east by the forest of Zirani, on the south by Wologda, and on the west by Cargapol and Waga. It is divided into two parts by the river Suchana, is full of forests, and the rivers yield plenty of fish, which the inhabitants dry in the sun, and which make their principal nourishment.

OUSTIOU'G, a town of the Russian empire, and capital of a province of the same name, with an archbishop's see and a castle; seated on the river Suchan, over-against the mouth of the Jug, in lat. 61. 48. N. lon. 43. 25. E.

OUT, *adv.* [ut, Sax. *nyt*, Teut.] Not within:

The gown with stiff embroid'ry shining

Looks charming with a slighter lining;

The *out* of Indian figures stain,

The inside must be rich and plain.

Prior.

It is generally opposed to *in*.—That blind rascally boy, that abuses eyes because his own are *out*, let him be judge how deep I am in love. *Shakespeare*.—In a state of disclosure.—Fruits and grains are half a year in concocting; whereas leaves are *out* and perfect in a month. *Bacon*.—Not in confinement or concealment:

Nature her custom holds,

Let shame say what it will; when these are gone,

The woman will be *out*.

Shakespeare.

From the place or house.—*Out* with the dog, says one. What cur is that? says another. Whip him *out*, says the third. *Shakespeare*.—From the inner part.—This is the place where the priests shall boil the trespass-offering; that they bear it not *out* into the utter court, to sanctify the people. *Ezek.* xlv. 20.—Not at home; as, When you called,

called I was *out*.—In a state of extinction.—Her candle goeth not *out* by night. *Prov.* xxxi. 18.

This candle burns not clear; 'tis I must snuff it,
Then *out* it goes. *Shakespeare's Hen.* VIII.

Thinkst thou the fiery fever will go *out*
With titles blown from adulation. *Shakespeare's Hen.* V.

In a state of being exhausted.—Large coals are properest for dressing meat; and, when they are *out*, if you happen to miscarry in any dish, lay the fault upon want of coals. *Swift*.—Not in employment; not in office:

So we'll live, and hear poor rogues
Talk of court-news; and we'll talk with them too;
Who loses, and who wins, who's in, who's *out*. *Shakespeare*.

Not in any sport or party.—The knave will stick by thee: he will not *out*, he is true bred. *Shakespeare's Hen.* IV.—I never was *out* at a mad frolic, though this is the maddest I ever undertook. *Dryden*.—To the end.—Hear me *out*. *Dryden*.

You have still your happiness in doubt,
Or else 'tis past, and you have dream'd it *out*. *Dryden*.
Loudly; without restraint:

At all I laugh he laughs, no doubt;
The only difference is, I dare laugh *out*. *Pope*.

Not in the hands of the owner.—If the laying of taxes upon commodities does affect the land that is *out* at rack-rent, it is plain it does equally affect all the other land in England too. *Locke*.—Those lands were *out* upon leases of four years, after the expiration of which, tenants were obliged to renew. *Arbutnot*.—In an error.—According to Hobbes's comparison of reasoning with casting-up accounts, whoever finds a mistake in the sum-total, must allow himself *out*, though, after repeated trials, he may not see in which article he has misreckoned. *Swift*.

As he that hath been often told his fault,
And still persists, is as impertinent
As a musician that will always play,
And yet is always *out* at the same note. *Roscommon*.

At a loss; in a puzzle.—This youth was such a mercurial, as the like hath seldom been known; and could make his own part, if at any time he chanced to be *out*. *Bacon's Hen.* VII.

Like a dull actor now:
I have forgot my part, and I am *out*,
Even to a full disgrace. *Shakespeare*.

With torn clothes. The parts being *out*, that is, not covered:

Evidences swore;
Who hither coming, *out* at heels and knees,
For this had titles. *Dryden*.

Away; so as to consume.—Let all persons avoid niceness in their cloathing or diet, because they dress and comb *out* all their opportunities of morning devotion, and sleep *out* the care for their souls. *Bp. Taylor*.—Deficient; as, *Out* of pocket, noting loss.—Upon the great Bible he was *out* fifty pounds, and reimburs'd himself only by selling two copies. *Fell*.—It is used emphatically before *alas*:

Out, alas! no sea, I find,
Is troubled like a lover's mind. *Suckling*.

It is added emphatically to verbs of discovery.—If ye will not do so, be sure your sin will find you *out*. *Num.* xxxii. 23.

OUT, *interj.* An expression of abhorrence or expulsion.—*Out* on thee, rude man; thou dost shame thy mother. *Shakespeare*.—*Out*, you mad-headed ape! a weazel hath not such a deal of spleen. *Shakespeare's Hen.* IV.

Out, out, hyena; these are thy wonted arts
To break all faith. *Milton's S. A.*

It has sometimes *upon* after it.—*Out upon* this half-fac'd fellowship. *Shakespeare*.

Out upon it! I have lov'd
Three whole days together;
And am like to love three more,
If it prove fair weather. *Suckling*.

OUT OF, *prep.* [*of* seems to be the preposition, and *out* only to modify the sense of *of*.] From: noting produce.—Those bards, coming many hundred years after, could not know what was done in former ages, nor deliver certainty of any thing, but what they feigned *out of* their own unlearned heads. *Spenser on Ireland*.—Alders and ashes have been seen to grow *out of* steeples, but they manifestly grow *out of* clefts. *Bacon*.—Juices of fruits are watery and oily: among the watery are all the fruits *out of* which drink is expressed; as the grape, the apple, the pear, and cherry. *Bacon*.—He is softer than Ovid; he touches the passions more delicately; and performs all this *out of* his own fund, without diving into the sciences for a supply. *Dryden*.

So many Neroes and Caligulas
Out of these crooked shores must daily rise. *Spenser*.

Not in: noting exclusion, dismission, absence, or dereliction.—Guiltiness will speak, though tongues were *out of* use. *Shakespeare*.

My retreat the best companions grace;
Chiefs *out of* war, and statesmen *out of* place. *Pope*.

No longer in:
Enjoy the present smiling hour,
And put it *out of* fortune's power. *Dryden*.

Not in: noting unfitness.—He is witty *out of* season; leaving the imitation of nature, and the cooler dictates of his judgement. *Dryden*.

Thou'lt say my passion's *out of* season,
That Cato's great example and misfortunes
Should both conspire to drive it from my thoughts. *Addison*.

Not within: relating to a house.—Court holy-water in a dry house, is better than the rain-waters *out of* door. *Shakespeare's K. Lear*.—From: noting copy.—St. Paul quotes one of their poets for this saying, notwithstanding T. G.'s censure of them *out of* Horace. *Stillingfleet*.—From: noting rescue.—Christianity recovered the law of nature *out of* all those errors with which it was overgrown in the times of paganism. *Addison's Freeholder*.—Not in: noting exorbitance or irregularity.—Using old thread-bare phrases will often make you go *out of* your way to find and apply them. *Swift*.—From one thing to something different.—He that looks on the eternal things that are not seen, will, through those optics, exactly discern the vanity of all that is visible; will be neither frightened nor flattered *out of* his duty. *Decay of Chr. Piety*.—To a different state from; in a different state.—When the mouth is *out of* taste, it maketh things taste sometimes salt, chiefly bitter, and sometimes loathsome, but never sweet. *Bacon*.

They all at once employ their thronging darts,
But *out of* order thrown, in air they join,
And multitude makes frustrate the design. *Dryden*.

Not according to.—That there be an equality, so that no man acts or speaks *out of* character. *Broom's View of Ep. Poem*.—To a different state from: noting separation.—If ridicule were employed to laugh men *out of* vice and folly, it might be of some use; but it is made use of to laugh men *out of* virtue and good sense, by attacking every thing solemn and serious. *Addison*.—Beyond.—The Supreme Being has made the best arguments for his own existence, in the formation of the heavens and the earth, and which a man of sense cannot forbear attending to, who is *out of* the noise of human affairs. *Addison*.

What, *out of* hearing gone? no sound, no word?
Alack, where are you? *Shakespeare*.

Deviating

Deviating from: noting irregularity:

Heaven defend but still I should stand so,
So long as *out* of limit and true rule
You stand against anointed majesty!

Shakespeare.

Past; without; noting something worn-out or exhausted.
—I published some fables which are *out* of print. *Arbuthnot.*

I am *out* of breath.—

How art thou *out* of breath, when thou hast breath
To say to me that thou art *out* of breath? *Shakespeare.*

By means of.—*Out* of that will I cause those of Cyprus to mutiny. *Shakespeare.*—In consequence of: noting the motive or reason.—She is persuaded I will marry her, *out* of her own love and flattery, not *out* of my promise. *Shakespeare's Othello.*—Cromwell accused the earl of Manchester of having betrayed the parliament *out* of cowardice. *Clarendon.*—Make them conformable to laws, not only for wrath, and *out* of fear of the magistrate's power, which is but a weak principle of obedience; but *out* of confidence, which is a firm and lasting principle. *Tillotson.*—What they do not grant *out* of the generosity of their nature, they may grant *out* of mere impatience. *Smalridge.*—Our successes have been the consequences of a necessary war; in which we engaged, not *out* of ambition, but for the defence of all that was dear to us. *Atterbury.*

Not *out* of cunning, but a train
Of atoms juggling in his brain.

Hudibras.

OUT OF HAND. Immediately; as that is easily used which is ready in the hand.—Now gather we our forces *out* of hand. *Shakespeare.*

He bade to open wide his brazen gate,
Which long time had been shut; and *out* of hand
Proclaimed joy and peace through all his state. *Spenser.*

To OUT, v. a. [utian, Sax.] To deprive by expulsion.—The members of both houses who withdrew, were counted deserters, and *outed* of their places in parliament. *K. Charles.*—The French having been *outed* of their holds. *Heylin.*—So many of their orders as were *outed* from their fat possessions, would endeavour a re-entrance against those whom they account heretics. *Dryden.*

OUT, in composition, generally signifies something beyond or more than another; but sometimes it betokens emission, exclusion, or something external.

To OUT-ACT', v. a. To do beyond:

He has made me heir to treasures
Would make me to *out-act* a widow's whining. *Otway.*

To OUT-BAL'ANCE, v. a. To over-weigh; to preponderate:

Let dull Ajax bear away my right,
When all his days *out-balance* this one night. *Dryden.*

To OUT-BA'R, v. a. To shut out by fortifications:

These to *out-bar* with painful pionings,
From sea to sea he heap'd a mighty mound. *Spenser.*

To OUT-BID', v. a. To over-power by bidding a higher price.—Prevent the greedy, and *out-bid* the bold. *Pope.*

If in thy heart

New love created be by other men,
Which have their stocks entire, and can in tears,
In sighs, in oaths, in letters, *out-bid* me,
This new love may beget new fears. *Donne.*

OUT-BID'DER, f. One that out-bids.

OUT-BLOW'ED, adj. Inflated; swollen with wind:

At their roots grew floating palaces,
Whose *out-blown* bellies cut the yielding seas. *Dryden.*

To OUT-BLUSH', v. a. To exceed in rosy colour:

Each rose did in native scarlet appear,
Yet every rose was *out-blushed* by her.

Shipman's Trag. of Hen. III. of France, 1673.

VOL. XVIII. No. 1228.

The fun which gives your cheeks to glow,
And *out-blush* (mine excepted) every fair. *Young.*

OUT-BOR'N, adj. Foreign; not native.

OUT-BOUND, adj. Destinated to a distant voyage; not coming home:

Triumphant flames upon the water float,
And *out-bound* ships at home their voyage end. *Dryden.*

To OUT-BRA'VE, v. a. To bear down and defeat by more daring, insolent, or splendid, appearance.—We see the danger, and by fits take up some faint resolution to *out-brave* and break through it. *L'Estrange.*

I would *out-stare* the sternest eyes that look,
Out-brave the heart most daring on the earth,
To win thee, lady. *Shakespeare.*

Here Sodom's towers raise their proud tops on high;
The towers, as well as men, *out-brave* the sky. *Cowley.*

To OUT-BRA'ZEN, v. a. To bear down with impudence.

OUT-BREAK, f. That which breaks forth; eruption:

Breathe his faults so quaintly,
That they may seem the taints of liberty,
The flash and *out-break* of a fiery mind. *Shakespeare.*

OUT-BREA'KING, f. That which breaks forth; powerful appearance.—Instead of subjecting her, he is, by the fresh *out-breaking* of her beauty, captivated. *Sir T. Herbert's Travels.*

To OUT-BRE'ATHE, v. a. To weary by having better breath:

Mine eyes saw him
Rendering faint quittance, wearied and *out-breath'd*,
To Henry Monmouth. *Shakespeare.*

To expire.—That sign of last *out-breathed* life did seem. *Spenser.*

To OUT-BUD', v. n. To sprout forth:

That renowned snake,
Whose many heads, *out-budding* ever new,
Did breed him endlesse labor to subdew. *Spenser.*

To OUT-BUIL'D, v. a. To exceed in durability of building; to build more durably:

Virtue alone *out-builds* the pyramids;
Her monuments shall last, when Egypt's fall. *Young.*

OUT-CEP'T, conj. Except; changing the Latin *ex* into the English *out*. *Obsolete.*—*Out-take* was another and better form of *except*, as being all English. *Todd.*

Look not so near, with hope to understand,
Out-cept, sir, you can read with the left hand. *B. Jonson.*

To OUT-CLIMB, v. a. To climb beyond:

They must be sever'd, or like palms will grow,
Which, planted near, *out-climb* their native height. *Davenant.*

To OUT-COM'PASS, v. a. To exceed due bounds.—If such be the capacity and receipt of the mind of man, it is manifest that there is no danger at all in the proportion or quantity of knowledge, how large soever, left it should make it swell, and *out-compass* itself. *Bacon's Adv. of Learning.*

To OUT-COMPLY', v. a. To comply too much; to be over-compliant.—*Out-fawn* as much as *out-comply*. *Hudibras.*

To OUT-CRAFT, v. a. To excel in cunning:

Italy hath *out-crafted* him,
And he's at some hard point. *Shakespeare's Cymbeline.*

To OUT-DA'RE, v. a. To venture beyond:

Myself, my brother, and his son,
That brought you home, and boldly did *out-dare*
The dangers of the time. *Shakespeare.*

To OUT-DA'TE, v. a. To antiquate.—Works and deeds of the law, in those places, signify legal obedience,
F f

or circumcision, and the like judaical *out-dated* ceremonies; faith, the evangelical grace of giving up the whole heart to Christ, without any such judaical observances. *Hammond.*

To OUT-DO', v. a. To excel; to surpass; to perform beyond another.—He hath in this action *out-done* his former deeds doubly. *Shakespeare.*

I grieve to be *out-done* by Gay,
In my own humorous biting way.

Swift.

OUT-DO'ING, f. The act of doing beyond others; that which is done beyond others.—Mrs. Oldfield *out-did* her usual *out-doings*. *Cibber.*

To OUT-DRINK, v. a. To exceed in drinking.—*To out-drink* the sea, to out-swear the gallant. *Donne.*—*Out-drink* a Dutchman draining of a fen. *Cleaveland.*

To OUT-DWELL', v. a. To stay beyond:

He *out-dwells* his hour;

For lovers ever run before the clock. *Shakespeare.*

To OUT-FA'CE, v. a. To brave; to bear down by show of magnanimity; to bear down with impudence.—They bewrayed some knowledge of their persons, but were *out-faced*. *Wotton.*

We shall have old swearing
That they did give the rings away to men;
But we'll *out-face* them and out-swear them too. *Shakespeare.*

Dost thou come hither

To out-face me with leaping in her grave?
Be buried quick with her, and so will I. *Shakespeare.*

To stare down.—We behold the sun and enjoy his light, as long as we look towards it circumspectly: we warm ourselves safely, while we stand near the fire; but, if we seek to *out-face* the one, to enter into the other, we forthwith become blind, or burnt. *Raleigh.*

OUT-FALL, f. A canal or ditch to carry off water. *Scott.*

To OUT-FAWN, v. a. To excel in fawning:

In affairs of less import,
That neither do us good nor hurt,
And they receive as little by,
Out-fawn as much and out-comply;
And seem as scrupulously just
To bait the hooks for greater trust.

Hudibras.

To OUT-FE'AST, v. a. To exceed in feasting.—He hath *out-feasted* Anthony or Cleopatra's luxury. *Bp. Taylor.*

OUT-FIELD LAND. A term applied to a sort of land in Scotland, which is similar to the uninclosed common-field lands in this country. Lord Dundonald remarks, that that part of the farm called the out-field land never receives any manure. After taking from it two or three crops of grain, it is left in the state it was in at reaping the last crop, without sowing grass-seeds for the production of any sort of herbage. During the first two or three years, a sufficiency of grass to maintain a couple of rabbits per acre is scarcely produced. In the course of some years, it acquires a sward; and, after having been depastured for some years more, it is again submitted to the same barbarous system of husbandry.

It was a sort of distinction that existed prior to the date of inclosures, and was likewise general throughout England. It is wearing-out fast in Scotland, from the same causes which have operated in England.

To OUT-FLANK, v. a. To out-reach the flank, or wing, of an army.

To OUT-FLY', v. a. To leave behind in flight:

Horoscope's great soul;
Rais'd on the pinions of the bounding wind,
Out-flew the rack, and left the hours behind.

Garth.

To OUT-FOOL', v. a. To exceed in folly:

In life's decline, when men relapse
Into the sports of youth,
The second child *out-fools* the first,
And tempts the last of truth.

Young.

OUT-FORM, f. External appearance:

Cupid, who took vain delight
In meer *out-forms*, until he lost his sight,
Hath chang'd his soul, and made his object you. *B. Jonson.*

To OUT-FROWN, v. a. To frown down; to overbear by frowns:

For thee, oppressed king, am I cast down,
Myself could else *out-frown* false fortune's frown. *Shakespeare.*

OUT-GATE, f. Outlet; passage outwards.—Those places are so fit for trade, having most convenient *out-gates* by divers ways to the sea, and in-gates to the richest parts of the land, that they would soon be enriched. *Spenser.*

To OUT-GENERAL, v. a. To exceed in military skill or manœuvre.—I believe a Russian colonel would *out-general* him. *Ld. Chesterfield.*

To OUT-GIVE, v. a. To surpass in giving.—The bounteous play'r *out-gave* the pinching lord. *Dryden.*

To OUT-GO', v. a. pret. *out-went*; part. *outgone*.—*To surpass*; to excel.—While you practised the rudiments of war, you *out-went* all other captains; and have since found none but yourself alone to surpass. *Dryden.*—Where they apply themselves, none of their neighbours *out-go* them. *Locke on Education.*—*To go beyond*; to leave behind in going.—Many ran afoot thither out of all cities, and *out-went* them, and came unto him. *Mark vi. 33.*—*To circumvent*; to over-reach.—Molleffon thought us to have *out-gone* with a quaint invention. *Denham.*

OUT-GO'ING, f. The act of going out; the state of going forth.—Thou makest the *out-goings* of the morning and evening to rejoice. *Pj. lxxv. 8.*

To OUT-GROW, v. a. To surpass in growth; to grow too great or too old for any thing.—This essay wears a dress that possibly is not so suitable to the graver geniuses, who have *out-grown* all gaieties of style and youthful reliques. *Glanville's Sceptis.*—The lawyer, the tradesman, the mechanic, have found so many arts to deceive, that they far *out-grow* the common prudence of mankind. *Swift.*

When some virtue much *out-grows* the rest,
It shoots too fast and high.

Dryden.

OUT-GUARD, f. One posted at a distance from the main body, as a defence.—As soon as any foreign object presses upon the sense, those spirits which are posted upon the *out-guards* immediately scowre off to the brain. *South.*

These *out-guards* of the mind are sent abroad,
And, still patrolling, beat the neighb'ring road;
Or to the parts remote obedient fly,
Keep posts advanc'd, and on the frontier lie. *Blackmore.*

OUT-HOUSE, f. A barn, stable, coach-house, cow-house, or any other convenience, attached, or belonging to, a dwelling-house.

To OUT-JEST', v. a. To overpower by jesting:

The fool labours to *out-jest*

His heart-struck injuries.

Shakespeare's K. Lear.

To OUT-JUG'GLE, v. a. To surpass in juggling.—He might verily think that I could out-lie the legends, and *out-juggle* a jesuit. *Bp. Hall's Hon. of the Marr. Clergy.*

To OUT-KNAVE, v. a. To surpass in knavery.—The world calls it *out-witting* a man, when he's only *out-knaved*. *L'Estrange.*

To OUT-LANCE, v. a. To push out:

Therein two deadly weapons fixt he bore,
Strongly *out-lanced* towards either side.

Spenser.

To OUT-LAST, v. a. To surpass in duration.—Good housewives, to make their candles burn the longer, lay them in bran, which makes them harder; inasmuch as they will *out-last* other candles of the same stuff, almost half in half. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

This with the fabric of the world begun,
Elder than light, and shall *out-last* the sun.

Waller.

To

To OUT-LE'AP, v. a. To pass by leaping; to start beyond.

OU'T-LEAP, f. Sally; flight; escape.—Since youth must have some liberty, some *out-leaps*, they might be under the eye of a father, and then no very great harm can come of it. *Loche on Education.*

To OUT-LEARN, v. a. To learn faster; to learn more than another.

OU'T-LICKER, f. A naval word: a small piece of timber fastened to the top of the poop.

To OUT-LIE, v. a. To surpass in lying.—He might verily think that I could *out-lie* the legends. *Bp. Hall's Hon. of the Marr. Clergy.*

With royal favourites in flattery vie,
And Oldmixon and Burnet both *out-lie*.

Pope.

OU'T-LIER, f. One who lies not, or is not resident, in the place with which his office or duty connects him.—The party sent messengers for all their *out-liers* within twenty miles of Cambridge to come at their election. *Bentley's Letters.*

To OUT-LIVE, v. a. To live beyond; to survive.—His courage was so signal that day, that too much could not be expected from it, if he had *out-lived* it. *Clarendon.*—The soldier grows less apprehensive, by computing upon the disproportion of those that *out-live* a battle, to those that fall in it. *L'Estrange.*

He that *out-lives* this day, and comes safe home,
Will stand a-tiptoe when this day is nam'd. *Shakespeare.*

Thou must *out-live*

Thy youth, thy strength, thy beauty, which will change
To wither'd, weak, and gray. *Milton's P. L.*

Time, which made them their fame *out-live*,
To Cowley scarce did ripeness give.

Denham.

OUT-LIVER, f. A survivor.

To OUT-LOOK, v. a. To face down; to brow-beat.—Fictions and mormoes too weak to *out-look* a brave glittering temptation. *Hammond.*

I cull'd these fiery spirits from the world,
To *out-look* conquest, and to win renown,
Ev'n in the jaws of danger and of death. *Shakespeare.*

To look out; to select:

Away to the brook,
All your tackle *out-look*;
Here's a day that is worth a year's wishing:
See that all things be right,
For it would be a sight,
To want tools when a man goes a-fishing.

Cotton.

OU'T-LOOK, f. Vigilance; foresight:

From nobler recompense above applause,
Which owes to man's short *out-look* all its charms. *Young.*

OU'T-LOPE, f. [from *out*, and *loopen*, Dut. to run.] An excursion. *Not in use.*

Out-lobes sometimes he doth assay,
But very short. *Florio's Tr. of Montaigne, 1613.*

To OUT-LUSTRE, v. a. To excel in brightness.—She went before others I have seen, as that diamond of yours *out-lustres* many I have beheld. *Shakespeare's Cymbeline.*

OUT-LY'ING, part. adj. Not in the common course of order. Removed from the general scheme.—The last survey I propos'd of the four *out-lying* empires, was that of the Arabians. *Temple.*

To OUT-MARCH, v. a. To leave behind in the march.—The horse *out-marched* the foot, which, by reason of the heat, was not able to use great expedition. *Clarendon.*

To OUT-MEASURE, v. a. To exceed in measure.—The present age hath attempted perpetual motions and engines, and those revolutions might *out-last* the exemplary mobility, and *out-measure* time itself. *Brown.*

To OUT-NUMBER, v. a. To exceed in number.—The

ladies came in so great a body to the opera, that they *out-numbered* the enemy. *Addison.*

To OUT-PACE, v. a. To out-go; to leave behind.—Orion's speed could not *out-pace* thee. *Chapman's Iliad.*

To OUT-PAR'AMOUR, v. a. To exceed in keeping mistresses.—Wine loved I deeply; dice dearly; and in woman *out-paramour'd* the Turk. *Shakespeare's K. Lear.*

OU'T-PARISH, f. Parish not lying within the walls.—In the greater *out-parishes*, many of the poorer parishioners, through neglect, do perish, for want of some heedful eye to overlook them. *Graunt.*

OU'T-PART, f. Part remote from the centre or main body.—He is appointed to supply the bishop's jurisdiction, and other judicial offices in the *out-parts* of his diocese. *Ayliffe.*

OU'T-PARTERS, f. A kind of free-booters in Scotland. *Phillips.*

To OUT-PA'SS, v. a. To go beyond; to excel.

To OUT-PEE'R, v. a. To surpass in nobleness:

Great men,

That had a court no bigger than this cave,
Could not *out-peer* these twain. *Shakespeare.*

To OUT-POISE, v. a. To out-weigh.—If your parts of virtue, and your infirmities, were cast into a balance, I know the first would much *out-poise* the other. *Howell.*

OU'T-PORCH, f. An entrance.—Coming to the bishop with supplication into the salutatory, some *out-porch* of the church. *Milton.*

OU'T-PORT, f. A port at some distance from the city of London.

OU'T-POST, f. A military station without the limits of the camp, or at a distance from the main body of the army.—Men placed at such a station.

To OUT-POU'R, v. a. To emit; to send forth in a stream: He looked, and saw what number numberless
The city-gates *out-pour'd*; light armed troops
In coats of mail and military pride. *Milton.*

To OUT-PRA'Y, v. a. To exceed in earnestness of prayer:

Meantime he sadly suffers in their grief;
Out-weeps a hermit, and *out-prays* a saint. *Dryden.*

To OUT-PRE'ACH, v. a. To exceed in the power of preaching.—You would be very eloquent; able to *out-preach* all the orators you ever heard from the pulpit, to write more pathetic descriptions of the madness of a carnal life, than from any more innocent speculator could be hoped for. *Hammond.*

To OUT-PRI'ZE, v. a. To exceed in the value set upon it:

Either your unparagon'd mistress is dead, or
She's *out-prized* by a trifle. *Shakespeare.*

To OUT-RA'ZE, v. a. To root out entirely:

Yet shall the axe of justice hew him down,
And level with the root his lofty crown:
No eye shall his *out-raz'd* impression view,
Nor mortal know where such a glory grew. *Sandys.*

To OUT-RE'ACH, v. a. To go beyond.—This usage is derived from so many descents of ages, that the cause and author *out-reach* remembrance. *Carew.*—Our forefathers could never dream so high a crime as parricide, whereas this *out-reaches* that fact, and exceeds the regular distinctions of murder. *Brown.*

To OUT-RE'ASON, v. a. To excel in reasoning; to reason beyond.—They step forth men of another spirit, great linguists, powerful disputants, able to cope with the Jewish sanhedrim, to baffle their profoundest rabbies, and to *out-reason* the very Athenians. *South.*

To OUT-REC'KON, v. a. To exceed in assumed computation.—The Egyptian priests pretended an exact chronology for some myriads of years, and the Chaldeans and Assyrians far *out-reckon* them. *Pearson on the Creed.*

To

To OUT-REIGN, v. a. To reign through the whole of:
In wretched prison long he did remaine,
Till they *out-reigned* had their utmost date. *Spenser.*

To OUT-RIDE, v. a. To pass by riding.—It boots
not to persuade your majesty to betake yourself to your
chariot, to *out-ride* the shower. *Bp. Hall's Way of Peace.*

If you will send me to the farthest sea

To fetch you pearls, the sun shall not *out-ride*
My restless course; nor any jewels be

Treasure'd so deep in the profoundest main,
But I will dig them thence, and come again. *Beaumont.*

To OUT-RIDE, v. n. To travel about on horseback,
or in a vehicle.—By distance of place being rendered inca-
pable of paying our respects to him, I am become a suitor
to you to constitute an *out-riding* lion, or (if you please)
a jackall or two, to receive and remit our homage in a
more particular manner than is hitherto provided. *Addi-
son's Guardian*, N^o 118.

OUT-RIDER, f. A summoner, whose office is to cite
men before the sheriff.—One who travels about on horse-
back, or in a vehicle.—There is needful to be an *out-rider*,
or riding-surveyor, whose business should be to visit the
ports and fleets. *Maydman's Naval Speculat.* 1691.

OUT-RIG'GER, f. A naval word, signifying both a
strong beam of timber fixed on the side of a ship to secure
the mast in the act of careening, and a small boom occa-
sionally used on the tops.

To OUT-RISE, v. a. To rise earlier than another. *Scott.*

To OUT-RIVAL, v. a. To surpass in excellence.—
There have been finer things spoken of Augustus than
of any other man; all the wits of his age having tried to
out-rival one another upon that subject. *Addison's Guar-
dian*, N^o 138.

OUT-ROAD, f. Excursion.—He set horsemen and
footmen, to the end that, issuing out, they might make
out-roads upon the ways of Judea. *1 Mac. xv. 41.*

To OUT-RO'AR, v. a. To exceed in roaring:

O that I were
Upon the hill of Bafan, to *out-roar*
The horned herd! *Shakespeare's Ant. and Cleop.*

To OUT-ROO'T, v. a. To extirpate; to eradicate:

Pernicious discord seems
Out-rooted from our more than iron age;
Since none, not ev'n our kings, approach their temples
With any mark of war's destructive rage,
But sacrifice unarmed. *Rowe's Amb. Stepmother.*

To OUT-RUN, v. a. To leave behind in running.—
When things are come to the execution, there is no se-
crecy comparable to celerity; like the motion of a bul-
let in the air, which lieth so swift as it *out-runs* the eye.
Bacon.

The expedition of my violent love
Out-runs the pauper reason. *Shakespeare's Macbeth.*

We may *out-run*,
By violent swiftness, that which we run at. *Shakespeare.*
To exceed.—We *out-run* the present income, as not
doubting to reimburse ourselves out of the profits of some
future project. *Addison.*

To OUT-SAIL, v. a. To leave behind in sailing.—She
may *out-sail* me; I am a carvel to her. *Beaumont and
Fletcher's Wit without Money.*

OUT-SCAPE, f. Power of escaping:

It pass'd our powres to lift a log so vast
As barr'd all *out-scape*. *Chapman.*

To OUT-SCOR'N, v. a. To bear down or confront by
contempt; to despise; not to mind:

Strives in his little world of man t' *out-scorn*
The to-and-fro conflicting wind and rain. *Shakespeare.*

To OUT-SELL, v. a. To exceed in the price for which a
thing is sold; to sell at a higher rate than another.—It
would soon improve to such a height as to *out-sell* our
neighbours, and thereby advance the proportion of our
exported commodities. *Temple.*—To gain a higher price:
Her pretty action did *out-sell* her gift,
And yet enrich'd it too. *Shakespeare's Cymbeline.*

To OUT-SHINE, v. a. To emit lustre:

Witness my son, now in the shade of death;
Whose bright *out-shining* beams thy cloudy wrath
Hath in eternal darkness folded up. *Shakespeare's Rich. III.*
To excel in lustre.—Homer does not only *out-shine* all
other poets in the variety, but also in the novelty, of his
characters. *Addison.*

By Shakespeare's, Jonson's, Fletcher's, lines,
Our stage's lustre Rome's *out-shines*. *Denham.*

To OUT-SHOOT, v. a. To exceed in shooting:

The forward youth
Will learn to *out-shoot* you in your proper bow. *Dryden.*
To shoot beyond.—Men are resolved never to *out-shoot*
their forefathers' mark, but write one after another; and
so the dance goes round in a circle. *Norris.*

To OUT-SHUT, v. a. To exclude.—He *out-shuts* my
prayer. *Dante.*

To OUT-SIT, v. a. To sit beyond the time of any thing.
—He that prolongs his meals, and sacrifices his time, as
well as his other conveniences, to his luxury, how quickly
does he *out-sit* his pleasure! *Smith.*

OUT SKER'RIES, a cluster of rocky islets among the
Shetland islands. Lat. 60.43. N. lon. 0.45. W.

To OUT-SKIP, v. a. To avoid by flight:

Thou lost thyself, child Drusus, when thou thought'st
Thou could'st *out-skip* my vengeance, or out-stand
The power I had to crush thee into air. *B. Jonson.*

To OUT-SLEEP, v. a. To sleep beyond:

Lovers, to bed; 'tis almost fairy-time:
I fear we shall *out-sleep* the coming morn. *Shakespeare.*

To OUT-SO'AR, v. a. To soar beyond.—Let them clog
their wings with the remembrance of those who have
out-soared them, not in vain opinion, but true worth.
Gov. of the Tongue.

To OUT-SOUND, v. a. To exceed in sound.—The
hammers and melody of the instruments might *out-found*
the din within him. *Hammond.*

To OUT-SPEAK, v. a. To speak something beyond;
to exceed:

Rich stuffs and ornaments of household
I find at such proud rate, that it *out-speaks*
Possession of a subject. *Shakespeare's Hen. VIII.*

To OUT-SPORT, v. a. To sport beyond:

Let's teach ourselves that honourable stop,
Not to *out-sport* discretion. *Shakespeare's Othello.*

To OUT-SPREAD, v. a. To extend; to diffuse.—With
sails *out-spread* we fly. *Pope.*

To OUT-STAND, v. a. To support; to resist.—Each
could demolish the other's work with ease enough, but
not a man of them tolerably defend his own; which was
sure never to *out-stand* the first attack that was made.
Woodward.—To stand beyond the proper time:

I have *out-stood* my time, which is material
To th' tender of our present. *Shakespeare's Cymbeline.*

To OUT-STAN'D, v. n. To protuberate from the main
body.

To OUT-STARE, v. a. To face down; to brow-beat;
to out-face with effrontery:

I would *out-stare* the sternest eyes that look,
To win thee, lady. *Shakespeare's Merch. of Ven.*

OUT-

OUT-STREET, *f.* Street in the extremities of a town.

To OUT-STRETCH, *v. a.* To extend; to spread out.
—*Out-stretch'd* he lay on the cold ground. *Milton.*

Make him stand upon the mole-hill,
That caught at mountains with *out-stretched* arms.

Shakespeare.

To OUT-STRIDE, *v. a.* To surpass in striding.—*Out-riding* the colossus of the sun. *B. Jonson.*

To OUT-STRIP, *v. a.* [This word Skinner derives from *out* and *spritzten*, to *sprout*, Germ. I know not whether it might not have been originally *out-trip*, the *f* being afterward inserted. *Dr. Johnson.*—It can hardly have been *out-trip*; and I should think the derivation of Skinner, plausible as it is, might give place to *out*, and the Sax. *springan*, to *shoot out*, to *sprout*; and thence to spring forward, or beyond, might easily be adopted. *Todd.*] To out-go; to leave behind in a race.—A fox may be outwitted, and a hare *out-stript*. *L'Estrange.*—He got the start of them in point of obedience, and thereby *out-stript* them at length in point of knowledge. *South.*

With such array Harpalice bestrode
Her Thracian courser, and *out-strip'd* the rapid flood.

Dryden.

To OUT-SWEAR, *v. a.* To over-power by swearing:

We shall have old swearing,
But we'll out-face them, and *out-swear* them too. *Shakefp.*

To OUT-SWEE'TEN, *v. a.* To excel in sweetness:

The leaf of eglantine, which, not to slander,
Out-sweeten'd not thy breath. *Shakespeare's Cymbeline.*

To OUT-SWELL, *v. a.* To overflow.—A sad text in a sadder time; in which the rivers of Babylon swelled not so high with inundation of water in the letter, as the waters in the metaphor, *out-swelling* and breaking-down their banks, have overflowed both our church and state. *Hewyt's Sermons*, 1658.

OUT-TAKE, *prep.* Except. *Obsolete*:

Of every witte fomewhat he can,
Out-take that hym lacketh rule
His own estate to guyde.

Gower.

All that was golde men myght se,
Out-take the fethers and the tre.

Chancer.

To OUT-TALK, *v. a.* To overpower by talk.—This gentleman will *out-talk* us all. *Shakespeare.*

OUT-TERM, *f.* [from *out*, and *terminus*, Lat.] Outward figure:

Not to bear cold forms, nor men's *out-terms*,
Without the inward fires and lives of men. *B. Jonson.*

To OUT-TONGUE, *v. a.* To bear down by noise:

Let him do his spite:
My services which I have done the signiory
Shall *out-tongue* his complaints. *Shakespeare.*

To OUT-TOP, *v. a.* To over-top; to make of less importance; to obscure.—The treasurer began then to *out-top* me; and appeared to my thoughts likely enough, by his daring and boldness, in time to do as much to your grace. *Ld. Keeper Williams's Lett.* 1624.

To OUT-VALUE, *v. a.* To transcend in price.—He gives us in this life an earnest of expected joys, that *out-values* and transcends all those momentary pleasures it requires us to forsake. *Boyle.*

To OUT-VENOM, *v. a.* To exceed in poison:

'Tis slander;
Whose edge is sharper than the sword, whose tongue
Out-venoms all the worms of Nile. *Shakespeare's Cymb.*

To OUT-VIE, *v. a.* To exceed; to surpass; to out-strip.—One of these petty sovereigns will be still endeavouring to equal the pomp of greater princes, as well as to *out-vie* those of his own rank. *Addison.*

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For folded flocks on fruitful plains
Fair Britain all the world *out-vies*.

Dryden.

Bp. Hurd has the following observation upon Addison's use of this word: "To *vye* is to contend with; to *out-vye*, to *out-do* any one in *vying* with him. But the word seems to be of an ill composition, and should not, I think, be used thus *absolutely*. If employed at all, it should be in some such way as this: 'in the affectation of pomp and pageantry he *out-vied* others, i. e. in *this respect*, he strove or contended beyond them.' I know not if Addison had any authority for the use of it: he had, perhaps, done better to use the common word *out-strip*." Note on Addison's Remarks on Italy.

To OUT-VILLAIN, *v. a.* To exceed in villainy.—He hath *out-villain'd* villainy so far, that the rarity redeems him. *Shakespeare's All's Well.*

To OUT-VOICE, *v. a.* To out-roar; to exceed in clamour:

The English beach
Pales in the flood with men, with wives and boys,
Whose shouts and claps *out-voice* the deep-mouth'd sea.
Shakespeare.

To OUT-VO'TE, *v. a.* To conquer by plurality of suffrages.—They were *out-voted* by other sects of philosophers, neither for fame nor number less than themselves. *South.*

OUT-WAILE, *f.* A very sorrowful thing; an out-cast; the refuse. *Chaucer.*

To OUT-WALK, *v. a.* To leave one in walking.—To exceed the walking of a spectre:

Have I out-watch'd,
Yea, and *out-walked*, any ghost alive
In solitary circle, worn my boots,
Knees, arms, and elbows, out?

B. Jonson.

OUT-WALL, *f.* Outward part of a building.—Superficial appearance:

For confirmation that I am much more
Than my *out-wall*, open this purse, and take
What it contains. *Shakespeare's K. Lear.*

To OUT-WATCH, *v. a.* To surpass in watchfulness.—Have I not *out-watch'd* and outwalked any ghost alive? *B. Jonson's Fortunate Isles.*

Or let my lamp, at midnight hour,
Be seen in some high lonely tower,
Where I may oft *out-watch* the Bear
With thrice-great Hermes. *Milton's Il Pens.*

To OUT-WEAR, *v. a.* To wear-out.—To live, and to encrease his race, himself *out-wears*. *Donne's Progr. of the Soul.*—To pass tediously:

By the stream if I the night *out-wear*,
Thus spent already, how shall nature bear
The dews descending and nocturnal air? *Pope.*

To last longer than something else.

To OUT-WEE'D, *v. a.* To extirpate as a weed:

Wrath is a fire, and jealousy a weed;
The sparks soon quench, the springing weed *out-weed*.
Spenser.

To OUT-WEEP, *v. a.* To exceed in weeping.—His cries *out-wept* his widest wound. *Davenant's Gondibert.*

Meanwhile he sadly suffers in their grief;
Out-weeps a hermit, and out-prays a faint. *Dryden.*

To OUT-WEIGH, *v. a.* To exceed in gravity.—These instruments require so much strength for the supporting of the weight to be moved, as may be equal unto it, besides that other super-added power whereby it is *out-weighted* and moved. *Wilkins's Math. Magick.*—To preponderate; to excel in value or influence.—The marriage of the clergy is attended with the poverty of some of them, which is balanced and *out-weighted* by many single advantages. *Atterbury.*

If any think brave death *out-weighs* bad life,
Let him exprefs his difpofition. *Shakeſpeare's Coriol.*

To OUT-WELL', *v. a.* To pour out. *Not in uſe:*

As when old father Nilus 'gins to ſwell
With timely pride about the Ægyptian vale,
His fattie waves do fertile ſhine *out-well*,
And overflow each plain and lowly dale. *Spencer.*

To OUT-WIN', *v. a.* To get out of:

It is a darkſome delve far under ground,
With thorns and barren breaks environ'd round,
That none the ſame may eaſily *out-win*;
Yet many waies to enter may be found,
But none to iſſue forth, when one is in. *Spencer.*

To OUT-WIND, *v. a.* To extricate; to unloofe.—
When ſhalt thou once *out-wind* thyſelf from this ſad yoke?
More's Life of the Soul.

To OUT-WING', *v. a.* To out-ſtrip; to out-go.—My
ſong the midnight raven has *out-wing'd*. *Young's Night Thoughts.*

His courſer ſprings
O'er hills and lawns, and even a wiſh *out-wings*. *Garth's Ode.*

To OUT-WIT', *v. a.* To cheat; to overcome by ſtratagem.—The truer-hearted any man is, the more liable he is to be impoſed on; and then the world calls it *out-witting* a man, when he is only out-knaved. *L'Eſtrange*.—Juſtice forbids defrauding, or going beyond, our brother in any manner, when we can over-reach and *out-wit* him in the ſame. *Kettlewell*.—Nothing is more equal in juſtice, and indeed more natural in the direct conſequences of effects and cauſes, than for men wickedly wiſe to *out-wit* themſelves; and for ſuch as wreſtle with Providence, to trip up their own heels. *South.*

OUT-WORK, *f.* Parts of a fortification next the enemy; any work raiſed outwardly to fortify or defend.—Take care of our *out-work*, the navy-royal, which are the walls of the kingdom; and every great ſhip is an impregnable fort; and our many ſafe and commodious ports as the redoubts to ſecure them. *Bacon*.—When the ſoul is beaten from its firſt ſtation, and the mounds and *out-works* of virtue are once broken down, it becomes quite another thing from what it was before. *South.*

Death hath taken in the *out-works*,
And now affails the fort; I feel, I feel him,
Gnawing my heart-ſtrings. *Denham.*

OUT-WORN, *part.* Conſumed or deſtroyed by uſe:

Better at home lie bed-rid, idle,
Inglorious, unemploy'd, with age *out-worn*. *Milton.*

To OUT-WORTH, *v. a.* To excel in value.—A beggar's book *out-worths* a noble's blood. *Shakeſp. Hen. VIII.*

To OUT-WREST, *v. a.* To extort by violence:

The growing anguiſh
Rankled ſo ſore and feſter'd inwardly,
Till that the truth thereof I did *out-wreſt*. *Spencer.*

OUT-WROU'GHT, *part.* Out-done; exceeded in efficacy:

In your violent acts,
The fall of torrents and the noiſe of tempeſts,
The boyling of Carybdis, the ſea's wildneſs,
The eating force of flames, and wings of winds,
Be all *out-wrought* by your tranſcendent furies. *B. Jonſon.*

To OUT-ZA'NY, *v. a.* To exceed in buffoonery:

O, run not proud of this: yet, take thy due:
Thou doſt *out-zany* Cokely. *B. Jonſon's Epigr. 130.*

OUTAITANI, a town of Upper Siam: eighty miles north-weſt of Louvo.

OUTANULLA, a town of Bengal, on the Ganges: five miles ſouth of Rajemal.

OUTAPALLAM', a town of Hindooſtan: ten miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Coimbatore.

OUTTARD BA'Y, a bay of Canada, on the north ſide of the river St. Lawrence. Lat. 42. 2. N. lon. 68. 15. W.

OUTCA'ST, *part.* [It may be obſerved, that both the participle and the noun are indifferently accented on either ſyllable. It ſeems moſt analogous to accent the participle on the laſt, and noun on the firſt.] Thrown into the air as reſuſe, as unworthy of notice:

Abandon ſoon, I read, the captive ſpoil
Of that ſame *outcaſt* carcass. *Spencer.*
Banished; expelled:

Behold, inſtead
Of us *outcaſt*, exil'd, his new delight
Mankind created. *Milton's P. L.*

OUTCAST, *f.* Exile; one rejeſted; one expelled.—
He dies ſad *outcaſt* of each church and ſtate. *Pope.*

O blood-beſpotted Neapolitan,
Outcaſt of Naples, England's bloody ſcourge! *Shakeſpeare.*

For me, *outcaſt* of human race,
Love's anger only waits, and dire diſgrace. *Prior.*

OUTCH, a province of Hindooſtan, between the rivers Chunaub and Indus, near their union.

OUTCHACTAL, a town of Thibet: ſixty-ſeven miles eaſt of Harachar-Hotun.

OUTCHOU', a river of Thibet, which runs into the Sampoo.

OUTCHU-MOU'TCHIN, a Tartarian ſtandard, in Chineſe Tartary. Lat. 45. 8. N. lon. 117. 14. E.

OUTCRY, *f.* Cry of vehemence; cry of diſtreſs; clamour.—Theſe *outeries* the magiſtrates there ſhun, ſince they are readily hearkened unto here. *Spencer on Ireland.*

So ſtrange thy *outcry*, and thy words ſo ſtrange
Thou interpoſeſt, that my ſudden hand,
Prevented, ſpares. *Milton's P. L.*

Clamour of deſteſtation.—There is not any one vice incident to the mind of man, againſt which the world has raiſed ſuch a loud and univerſal *outcry*, as againſt ingratitude. *South*.—A public ſale; an auction.—The populace by *outcry* to be ſold. *Southerne.*

That my lords, the ſenators,
Are ſold for ſlaves, their wives for bondwomen,
Their houſes and fine gardens given away,
And all their goods under the ſpear at *outcry*.
B. Jonſon's Catiline.

OUTE'A, *f.* in botany. See TAMARINDUS and MACROLOBIUM.

OUTEIRO, a town and fortrefs of Portugal, in the province of Tra los Montes, on a mountain: nine miles eaſt-fourth-eaſt of Bragança, and twenty-one north-weſt of Miranda de Duero.

OUTER, *adj.* That which is without: oppoſed to *inner*.—The kidney is a conglomerated gland only in the *outer* part; for the inner part, whereof the papillæ are compoſed, is muſcular. *Grew's Coſmol.*

OUTER ISLAND, an iſland on the coaſt of Labrador, in the cluſter called St. Auguſtine's Square: ſouth-weſt of Sandy-iſland.

OUTERLY, *adv.* Towards the outſide.—In the lower jaw, two tuſks like thoſe of a boar, ſtanding *outerly*, an inch behind the cutters. *Grew.*

OUTERMOST, *adj.* Remoteſt from the miſt.—Try, if three bells were made one within another, and air betwixt each, and the *outermoſt* bell were chimed with a hammer, how the ſound would differ from a ſingle bell. *Bacon*.—Many handſome contrivances of drawbridges I had ſeen, ſometimes many upon one bridge, and not only one after, or behind, another, but alſo ſometimes two or three on a breaſt, the *outermoſt* ones ſerving for the retreat of the foot, and the middle for the horſe and carriages. *Brown's Travels.*

OUTFIT, *f.* A naval term, ſignifying the equipment of a ſhip for her voyage.

OUTTIMACKS,

OUTIMACKS. Indians between Lake Michigan and Lake St. Clair.

OUTLAND, *adj.* [utlænde, Sax. a stranger.] Foreign:

The little lamb nurs'd in our bosoms
The outland pagans have depriv'd us of.

Strutt's Q. Hoo Hall.

OUTLANDER, *f.* A foreigner; one of another country.—William Twisse, written and called, by some outlanders and others, Twissius and Tuissius. *A. Wood's Ath. Ox.* ii. 40.

OUTLANDISH, *adj.* Not native; foreign.—Even him [Solomon] did *outlandish* women cause to sin. *Neh.* xiii. 26.—Upon the approach of the king's troops under general Wills, who was used to the *outlandish* way of making war, we put in practice passive obedience. *Addison.*

Yourself transplant

A while from hence: purchase *outlandish* ground
Bears no more wit than ours; but yet more scant
Are those diversions there, which here abound. *Donne.*
Tedious waste of time to sit and hear
So many hollow compliments and lies,
Outlandish flatteries.

Milton's P. R.

OUTLAW, *f.* [utlaga, Sax.] One excluded from the benefit of the law. A robber; a bandit.—Gathering unto him all the scatterlings and *outlaws* out of the woods and mountains, he marched forth into the English pale. *Spenser.*—As long as they were out of the protection of the law, so as every Englishman might kill them, how should they be other than *outlaws* and enemies to the crown of England? *Davies on Ireland.*—A drunkard is *outlawed* from all worthy and creditable converse: men abhor, loath, and despise, him. *South.*

You may as well spread-out the unsunn'd heaps
Of misers' treasure by an outlaw's den,
And tell me it is safe.

Milton's Comus.

To OUTLAW, *v. a.* To deprive of the benefits and protection of the law.—Like as there are particular persons *outlawed* and proscribed by civil laws, so are there nations that are *outlawed* and proscribed by the law of nature and nations. *Bacon.*—The administration of justice (in India) is so loaded with expence, that the great body of the people are actually *outlawed*. *Monthly Rev.* lxxix.

He that is drunken,
Is outlaw'd by himself: all kind of ill
Did with his liquor slide into his veins.

Herbert.

OUTLAWRY, *f.* A decree by which any man is cut off from the community, and deprived of the protection of the law.—Divers were returned knights and burgeses for the parliament; many of which had been by Richard III. attained by *outlawries*. *Bacon's Hen.* VII.

By proscription and bills of *outlawry*,
Octavius, Antony, and Lepidus,
Have put to death an hundred senators.

Shakspeare.

OUTLAWRY is a punishment inflicted for a contempt, in refusing to be amenable to the justice of that court which hath authority to call a defendant before them; and, as this is a crime of the highest nature, being an act of rebellion against that state or community of which he is a member, so it subjects the party to forfeitures and disabilities; for he loseth his *liberam legem*, is out of the king's protection, &c. *Co. Litt.* 128. *Doct. & Stud.* 2. c. 3. *1 Roll. Abr.* 802.

As to forfeitures for refusing to appear, the law distinguishes between outlawries in capital cases, and those of an inferior nature; for, as to outlawries in treason and felony, the law interprets the party's absence a sufficient evidence of his guilt, and, without requiring further proof, accounts him guilty of the fact, on which ensues corruption of blood, and forfeiture of his estate, real and

personal. *Co. Litt.* 128. *3 Inst.* 161. But outlawry in personal actions does not occasion the party to be looked on as guilty of the fact, nor does it occasion an entire forfeiture of his real estate, yet it is very fatal and penal in its consequences; for hereby he is restrained of his liberty, if he can be found; forfeits his goods and chattels, and the profits of his lands, while the outlawry remains in force. *Plow.* 541. *Show. Parl. Ca.* 73.

Outlawry, in civil actions, is putting a man out of the protection of the law, so that he is not only incapable of suing for the redress of injuries, but may be imprisoned, and forfeits all his goods and chattels, and the profits of his lands; his *personal chattels* immediately upon the outlawry, and the *chattels real*, and the profits of his land, when found by inquisition.

If the defendant be a woman, the proceeding is called a *waiver*; for, as women were not sworn to the law, by taking the oath of allegiance in the leet, (as men anciently were when of the age of twelve years or upwards,) they could not properly be *outlawed*, or put out of the law, but were said to be *waived*; that is, left out, or not regarded. *Co. Litt.* 122 b. And, for the same reason, an *infant* cannot be outlawed under the age of fourteen years. *2 Roll. Abr.* 805. Lord Coke says, within the age of twelve years. *1 Inst.* 128 a.

Outlawry is either upon *mesne process* before, or upon *final process* after, judgment. Upon *mesne process*, the plaintiff cannot proceed to outlawry, unless the action be commenced by original writ. *1 Sid.* 159. Nor can the defendant be outlawed after judgment, unless the action were so commenced. After judgment, the plaintiff may have an *exigi facias*, and proceed to outlawry, upon a *capias ad satisfaciendum* without an *alias* or *pluries*. And no writ of proclamation is required upon an exigent after judgment, but only upon *mesne process*. *Cro. Jac.* 277.

It is clear, that the courts at Westminster may issue process of outlawry, and that the court of King's Bench, either upon an indictment originally taken there, or removed thither by certiorari, may issue process of *capias* and exigent into any county of England, upon a *non est inventus* returned by the sheriff of the county where he is indicted, and a *testatum* that he is in some other county. *2 Hale's Hist. P. C.* 198. Also justices of oyer and terminer may issue a *capias* or exigent, and so proceed to the outlawry of any person indicted before them, directed to the sheriff of the same county where they held their sessions at common law; and, by the statute 5 Ed. III. c. 11. they may issue process of *capias* and exigent to all the counties of England, against persons indicted or outlawed of felony before them. But justices of gaol-delivery regularly cannot issue a *capias* or *exigent*. *2 Hale's Hist. P. C.* 199.

If a peer of the realm be *indicted*, and cannot be found, process of outlawry shall be awarded against him, and he shall be outlawed *per judicium coronatorum*. *3 Inst.* 31. *Stawulf.* 130. *2 Hawk. P. C.* c. 44. § 16. But in *civil actions*, between party and party, regularly a *capias* or exigent lies not against a peer; yet, in case of an indictment for treason or felony, or for trespass *vi & armis*, as an assault or riot, process of outlawry shall issue against a peer; therefore, if a rescue be returned against a peer; or if a peer be convicted of a disseisin with force, or denies his deed, and it be found against him, a *capias pro fine* and exigent shall issue, for the king is to have a fine; and the same reason holds upon an indictment of trespass or riot, much more in the case of felony. *2 Hale's Hist. P. C.* 199, 200.

The effect of the writ of *exigi facias*, or exigent as it is commonly called, is, that the defendant be cited at five county-court days, a month between each other; and, if he appear not in that time, *pro exlege tenebitur, eum principi non obediat, nec legi; & extime exlegabitur*; i. e. "he shall be pronounced to be out of the king's protection, and deprived of the benefit of the law." And then, according to Bracton, he may perish without law, &c. But now, to avoid such inhumanity, it is holden that no man is entitled to kill him wantonly or wilfully; but, in so doing,

doing, he is guilty of murder, unless it happens in the endeavour to apprehend him; for any person may arrest an outlaw, either of his own head, or by writ or warrant of *capias utlagatum*, in order to bring him to execution.

But outlawries are frequently reversed by writ of error, the proceeding therein being very nice and circumstantial; and, if any single minute point be omitted or misconducted, the whole outlawry is illegal, and may be reversed. Upon which reversal, however, the party accused shall be put to plead to the indictment, for that still remains good, and he may be tried at the King's Bench bar; or the record may be remitted into the country, if it were removed into the King's Bench by *certiorari*, with a command to the justices below to proceed by the statute of 6 Hen. VI. c. 1. So, if a man be outlawed by process in an information, and comes in and reverses the outlawry, he must plead *instantier* to the information. The law is the same in civil cases; and therefore, if an outlawry in a personal action be reversed, the original remains.

March 9. 3 Lev. 245.

If, after outlawry in civil cases, the defendant appears publicly, he may be arrested by a writ of *capias utlagatum*, and committed till the outlawry be reversed; which reversal may be had by the defendant's appearing personally in court, (and in the King's Bench without any personal appearance, so that he appears by attorney, according to stat. 4 & 5 W. & M. c. 18.) and any plausible cause, however slight, will in general be sufficient to reverse it; it being considered only as a process to compel appearance. But then the defendant must pay full costs, and put the plaintiff in the same condition as if he had appeared before the writ of *exigi facias* was awarded.

In Scotland, outlawry anciently took place in the case of refusal to fulfil a civil obligation, as well as in criminal cases. At present, however, it only takes place in the two cases of flying from a criminal prosecution, and of appearing in court attended by too great a number of followers. But the defender, upon appearing at any distance of time, and offering to stand trial, is entitled *de jure* to have the outlawry reversed, and to be admitted to trial accordingly, and even to bail, if the offence be bailable.

OUTLET, *f.* Passage outwards; discharge outwards; egress; passage of egress.—Colonies, and foreign plantations, are very necessary, as *outlets* to a populous nation. Bacon.

So 'scapes the insulting fire his narrow jail,
And makes small outlets into open air.

Dryden.

OUTLINE, *f.* Contour; line by which any figure is defined; extremity.—Painters, by their outlines, colours, lights, and shadows, represent the same in their pictures. Dryden.

OUTMOST, *adj.* Remotest from the middle.—The generality of men are readier to fetch a reason from the immense distance of the starry heavens, and the outmost walls of the world. Bentley.

Chaos retir'd

As from her outmost works a broken foe.

Milton.

OUTNESS, *f.* That relation of things by which one appears out of, or at a distance from, another. Dr. Berkeley, in his Essay on Vision, makes use of the word; and observes, that we form no notion of outness from the sense of seeing merely, but only from motion.—Supposing all mankind to have an irresistible conviction of the outness and distance of extension and figure, it is very easy to explain, from the association of ideas, and from our early habits of inattention to the phenomena of consciousness, how the sensations of colour should appear to the imagination to be transported out of the mind. Dugald Stewart's *Disf. Ency. Brit. Suppl.* vol. i.

OUTRAGE, *f.* [French. At first *outrage*, both in old French and English; *ultragiūm*, low Lat. from *ultra*, beyond. This word also had formerly the accent on either syllable: it is now constantly on the first.] Open vio-

lence; tumultuous mischief.—He took quarrell of his outrage. Gower.—He wrought great outrages, wasting all the country where he went. Spenser on Ireland.

He doth himself in secret shrowd,

To fly the vengeance for his outrage due. Spenser.

This word seems to be used by Philips for mere commotion, without any ill import, contrary to the universal use of writers:

See with what outrage from the frosty north,
The early valiant Swede draws forth his wings
In battailous array.

Philips.

To OUTRAGE, *v. a.* To injure violently or contumeliously; to insult roughly and tumultuously.—Bafe and insolent minds outrage men, when they have hope of doing it without a return. Atterbury.

Ah heavens! that do this hideous act behold,

And heavenly virgin thus outraged see;

How can the vengeance just so long withhold! Spenser.

To OUTRAGE, *v. n.* To commit exorbitancies. Not in use.—Three or four great ones in court will outrage in apparel, huge hose, monstrous hats, and garish colours. Afscham.

OUTRAGIOUS, or OUTRAGEOUS, *adj.* Violent; furious; raging; exorbitant; tumultuous; turbulent.—Tyranny is feynorye vyolent and outrageous. Caxton's Boke of Good Manners, 1486.—Under him they committed divers the most outrageous villanies that a bafe multitude can imagine. Sidney.

As she went, her tongue did walk

In foul reproach and terms of vile despight,

Provoking him by her outrageous talk,

To heap more vengeance on that wretched wight. Spenser.

They view'd the vast immeasurable abyfs,

Outrageous as a sea, dark, wasteful, wild.

Milton.

Excessive; passing reason or decency.—The outrageous decking of temples and churches with gold and silver.

Homily against Idolatry.—My characters of Antony and Cleopatra, though they are favourable to them, have nothing of outrageous panegyric. Dryden's Dufresnoy.—Enormous; atrocious:

Think not, although in writing I prefer'd

The manner of thy vile outrageous crimes,

That therefore I have forg'd. Shakespeare's Hen. VI.

OUTRAGIOUSLY, *adv.* Violently; tumultuously;

furiouſly.—In labour of her grief outrageouſly diſtract.

Drayton's Polyolb.—Let luſt burn never ſo outrageouſly

for the preſent, yet age will in time chill thoſe heats.

South.—In am not one of thoſe who think that the people

are never in the wrong: they have been ſo, frequently

and outrageouſly, both in other countries and in this.

Burke on the Cauſe of Diſcontents.—Exceſſively.—Diſpende

not too outrageouſly, nor be not too ſcarce, ſo that thou

be not bounde to thy treſour. Have therein attemptance

and meſure, whiche in all thynges is prouffitable. Lord

Rivers's Dictes and Sayings.

OUTRAGIOUSNESS, *f.* Fury; violence.—Outrage-

ouſneſs is not enduryng. Ld. Rivers.—Virgil, more diſcreet

than Homer, has contented himſelf with the partiality of

his deities, without bringing them to the outrageouſneſs of

blows. Dryden.

OUTRAM (William), a learned Engliſh divine, was

a native of Derbyſhire, and born in the year 1625. He

was entered of Trinity-college, Cambridge, where he

took his degree of B. A. and of which he obtained a fel-

lowſhip: he afterwards removed to Chriſt's-college, where

he likewiſe obtained a fellowſhip. In 1649 he took his

degree of M. A. and in 1660 that of D. D. He was pre-

ſented to the rectory of St. Mary Woolnoth in London;

afterwards, in 1669, he was collated to the archdeaconry

of Leiſceſter; and in the following year he was inſtalled

prebendary of St. Peter's church in Weſtmiſter, and

rector.

rector of St. Margaret's. He died in 1679. He had acquired celebrity by his skill in rabbinical learning, as well as by his acquaintance with the fathers and the sacred scriptures. He was a constant and much-admired preacher. As a writer, he is entitled to the praise of nervousness, precision, and accuracy. He was author of a learned work on sacrifices, entitled "De Sacrificiis Libri duo; quorum altero explicantur omnia Judæorum, nonnulla Gentium profanarum Sacrificia; altero Sacrificium Christi. Utroque Ecclesiæ Catholicæ his de rebus Sententia contra Faustum Socinum, et ejus Sectatores defenditur;" 1677. After his death, a volume of his Sermons was published, which are good specimens of pulpit compositions.

OUTRAN'CE, *f.* [French.] Destruction; extremity. *An old word.*

OUTRÉ, *adj.* [French.] Extravagant; over-strained. A most affected and needless introduction of modern times. *Todd.*—Although this panegyric be somewhat outré, I am willing to subscribe to it. *Dr. Geddes's Lett. to the Bp. of London, 1787.*

OUTRE-CUIDANCE, *f.* [French.] Presumption.—God doth often punish such pride and *outré-cuidance* with scorn and infamy. *B. Jonson.*

OUTREDROO'G, a fortress of Hindoostan, in Mysore, taken by the British forces in December 1792: twelve miles west of Saverndroog.

OUTRIGHT, *adv.* Immediately; without delay.—When these wretches had the ropes about their necks, the first was to be pardoned, the last hanged outright. *Arbutnot.*—Completely:

By degrees accomplish'd in the beast,
He neigh'd outright, and all the steed exprest. *Addison.*

OUTTSET, *f.* Opening; beginning.—These masters, at least in the *outset* of their strains, were careful to preserve air. *Mason on Ch. Music.*—A balance; an acquittance for something previously received; as, I sent him those goods by way of *outset* for the money I owed him. In this sense it is accented rather on the last syllable.

OUTSHI-FER'MAN, a town of Little Bukharia: 130 miles east of Kashgar, and 120 north-east of Yarcan.

OUTSHOU', a town of Little Bukharia: thirty miles south of Kashgar.

OUTSIDE, *f.* Superficies; surface; external part.—What pity that so exquisite an *outside* of a head should not have one grain of sense in it. *L'Estrange.*

The leathern *outside*, boisterous as it was,
Gave way and bent. *Dryden.*

Extreme part; part remote from the middle.—Hold an arrow in a flame for the space of ten pulses; and, when it cometh forth, those parts which were on the *outsides* of the flame are blacked and turned into a coal. *Bacon.*—Superficial appearance.—Created beings see nothing but our *outside*, and can therefore only frame a judgment of us from our exterior actions. *Addison's Spectator.*

You shall find his vanities forespent
Were but the *outside* of the Roman Brutus,
Covering discretion with a coat of folly. *Shakespeare.*

The utmost. *A barbarous use.*—Two hundred load upon an acre, they reckon the *outside* of what is to be laid. *Mortimer's Husbandry.*—Person; external man.—Your *outside* promiseth as much as can be expected from a gentleman. *Bacon.*

What admir'st thou, what transports thee so?
An *outside*? fair, no doubt, and worthy well
Thy cherishing and thy love. *Milton's P. L.*

Outer side; part not inclosed.—I threw open the door of my chamber, and found the family standing on the *outside*. *Spectator.*

OUTSIDE, *adj.* Belonging to the superficies; consisting in show.

OUTSKIRT, *f.* Suburb; out-part.—It [the plague] appeared to be only in the *outskirts* of the town, and in the most obscure alleys. *Ld. Clarendon.*

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OU'TVILLE, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine: ten miles south-east of Cany, and eight-north-north-west of Rouen.

OUTWARD, *adj.* [utpearb, Sax.] Materially external.—External; opposed to *inward*: visible.—His calls and invitations of us to that repentance, not only *outward*, in the ministry of the word, but also inward, by the motions of the spirit. *Whole Duty of Man.*

Oh what may man within him hide,
Though angel on the *outward* side! *Shakespeare.*

Extrinsic; adventitious:

Princes have their titles for their glories,
An *outward* honour, for an inward toil. *Shakespeare.*

Foreign, not intestine.—It was intended to raise an *outward* war to join with some sedition within-doors. *Hayward.*—Tending to the out-parts:

The fire will force its *outward* way,
Or, in the prison pent, consume the prey. *Dryden.*

[In theology.] Carnal; corporeal; not spiritual.—We may also pray against temporal punishments, that is, any *outward* affliction, but this with submission to God's will, according to the example of Christ. *Whole Duty of Man.*

OU'TWARD, *j.* External form:

I do not think
So fair an *outward*, and such stuff within,
Endows a man but him. *Shakespeare's Cymbeline.*

OU'TWARD, *adv.* To foreign parts; as, a ship *outward* bound.—To the outer parts.

OU'TWARDLY, *adv.* Externally: opposed to *inwardly*.—That which inwardly each man should be, the church *outwardly* ought to testify. *Hooker.*

Griev'd with disgrace, remaining in their fears:
However seeming *outwardly* content,
Yet th' inward touch their wounded honour bears. *Daniel.*

In appearance not sincerely.—Many wicked men are often touched with some inward reverence for that goodness which they cannot be persuaded to practise; nay, which they *outwardly* seem to despise. *Sprat.*

OU'TWARDS, *adv.* Towards the out-parts.—Do not black bodies conceive heat more easily from light than those of other colours do, by reason that the light falling on them is not reflected *outwards*, but enters the bodies, and is often reflected and refracted within them until it be stifled and lost? *Newton's Optics.*

OUVERTURE (Toussaint'), a black who deserves to live in the remembrance of posterity, was born in a state of slavery in or about the year 1745, on the plantation of the count de Noé. His early life was marked by a sedateness and patience of temper which nothing could ruffle or disturb, and by a peculiar benevolence towards children and the brute creation. At the age of twenty-five he attached himself to one negro woman, by whom he had several children, and whom he treated with the most affectionate tenderness and regard. By the kindness of the bailiff of the plantation, M. Bayou de Libertas, as some say, but by his own unassisted efforts according to others, he learned to read and write, and made some progress in arithmetic. These acquirements being noticed by M. Bayou, he took him from the field, and made him his postilion. Toussaint was not ungrateful for his kindness. When the insurrection of the negroes broke out in 1791, he refused, for some time, to join in the revolt: the plantation, however was about to be ravaged by the infuriated blacks; and Toussaint immediately set about the means of rescuing his master from the impending destruction. He procured a passage for him to North America, embarking at the same time a considerable quantity of fugar to support him in his exile. He then joined his countrymen in arms; and, by possessing some little knowledge of simples, was constituted physician to the forces of the king under Jean François. After this he became aide-de-camp, then colonel, next brigadier-general, to

H h which

which rank he was elevated by the governor Laveaux, for his services in reducing the blacks to order, and recovering from the Spaniards the northern parts of the island; and for his successful opposition to the British army. In an insurrection under Villate, a mulatto, Laveaux had been seized and thrown into prison at the Cape. Toussaint, on hearing this, immediately appeared at the head of ten thousand blacks, and released him from his perilous situation; for this Laveaux appointed him his lieutenant-governor, and declared that for the future he would be guided solely by his advice: "It is this black," said he, "this Spartacus, predicted by Raynal, who is destined to avenge the outrages committed against his whole race." From this moment, the condition and the conduct of the blacks were sensibly changed for the better, and the most perfect order and discipline established among them; and it is even admitted by Lacroix, who is not particularly friendly to the blacks, "that, if St. Domingo still carried the colours of France, it must be allowed it was solely owing to an old negro, who seemed to bear a commission from heaven to reunite its dilacerated members."

The French continued to send out commissioners; but Toussaint directed all their movements; and, on the return of general Laveaux to France, the commissioner Santhonax was prevailed on to nominate him commander-in-chief. General Rochambeau, who had been sent out in this capacity, finding himself a mere cipher, began to complain; upon which Toussaint ordered him on-board a corvette in the roads, and sent him home; and nearly at the same time he got rid of Santhonax, by making him the bearer of dispatches to the directory. Aware, however, that the reports of these persons could not fail to make an unfavourable impression on the French government, he sent two of his sons to be educated in France, to prove (as he said) his confidence in the directory, by placing his children in their power, at a moment when the complaints made against him, however groundless, might render his sincerity doubtful.

It was impossible however for the directory to behold without jealousy the rapid career of this extraordinary man; and general Hedouville was sent out to observe his conduct and restrain his ambition. Toussaint, at the first interview, affected to complain of the burden of his command; on which the captain of the ship, meaning to pay him a compliment, observed, how much it would flatter him, after having brought out general Hedouville, to carry back general Toussaint l'Ouverture." "Your ship, sir," replied Toussaint hastily, "is not large enough for a man like me." One of Hedouville's staff having hinted to him that he ought to retire to France, and end the rest of his days in repose: "That (said he) is what I intend, as soon as this (pointing to a small shrub) shall be large enough to construct a vessel to take me there." In short, this general, like Rochambeau, soon found that Toussaint was every thing in the colony, and himself nothing; he therefore determined at once to quit it. There still remained two men of whom it was necessary to get rid, in order to insure the general tranquillity; these were the mulatto generals Rigaud and Petion. Jealous of Toussaint and of the increasing power of the blacks, they headed an insurrection of the people of colour against his authority, and carried on for some time a civil war; but when Bonaparte, now become first consul, had sent out the confirmation of Toussaint as commander-in-chief, the adherents of the mulatto chiefs deserted their cause, and the two leaders embarked for France. The most dangerous and troublesome of his opponents, however, were the English, whose departure he hastened by his consummate skill in diplomacy. General Maitland, on finding the reduction of the island to be utterly hopeless, and that one reinforcement after another, wasted away by fatigue, sickness, and desultory skirmishes with the blacks, availed himself of the "bridge of gold," which Toussaint made for his little army, and signed a

treaty for the evacuation of all the posts which he held. The negro chief then paid him a visit, and was received with military honours. After partaking of a grand entertainment, he was presented by general Maitland, in the name of his majesty, with a splendid service of plate, and put in possession of the government-house, which had been built and furnished by the English. General Maitland, previous to the disembarkation of the troops, returned the visit to Toussaint's camp; and, such was his confidence in the integrity of his character, that he proceeded through a considerable extent of country full of armed negroes with only three attendants. Roume, the French commissioner, wrote a letter to Toussaint on this occasion, advising him to seize his guest as an act of duty to the republic: on the route, general Maitland was secretly informed of Roume's treachery; but, in full reliance on the honour of Toussaint, he determined to proceed. On arriving at head-quarters, he was desired to wait. It was some time before Toussaint made his appearance; at length, however, he entered the room with two open letters in his hand. "There, general," said he, "before we talk together, read these; one is a letter from the French commissary—the other is my answer. I could not see you till I had written my reply, that you might be satisfied how safe you were with me, and how incapable I am of baseness."

General Lacroix bears testimony to the order and regularity established in the island among all ranks by the influence and example of this singular man; the duties of morality and religion were strictly enforced, and the decencies of civilized life sedulously studied. His public levees were conducted with the utmost decorum, and his private parties might vie with the best-regulated societies of Paris. Surrounded by the officers of his guards, all magnificently dressed, and living in the utmost profusion, he preserved the strictest sobriety: a few cakes, bananas, or batatas, with a glass of water, were his ordinary food. He was particularly attentive to the means of reforming the loose and licentious manners of the females; and would suffer none of the white ladies to come to his court with the neck uncovered. His maxim was, that women should always appear in public as if they were going to church.

Never, says Lacroix, was an European army subjected to a more severe discipline than that which was observed by the troops of Toussaint. Every officer of rank in it commanded with a pistol in his hand, and had the power of life and death over his subalterns. He set about restoring the public finances with wonderful address. The ancient proprietors of estates had almost wholly disappeared, and frequently all trace was lost of the direct or collateral successor to them. In such cases he established a sort of co-proprietorship, by which the cultivators received a certain portion of the produce, and the rest was appropriated to the public revenue. By this device, the negroes were induced to return cheerfully to the labours of the field, and to submit to regulations under the black officers, more severe (says Lacroix) than those of their ancient masters. Under the new system, the colony advanced as if by enchantment towards its ancient splendour; cultivation was extended with such rapidity, that every day made its progress perceptible. All appeared to be happy, and regarded Toussaint as their guardian angel. In making a tour of the island, he was hailed by the negroes with universal joy: nor was he less a favourite of the whites, whose confidence he studied to gain, and who were always invited to his private parties. The general enthusiasm which he had excited was sufficient to inspire vanity into the strongest mind; and he had some excuse for saying that he was the Bonaparte of Saint Domingo, and that the colony could not exist without him. It is said that no one left his presence dissatisfied, though his request was not granted. Sometimes a negro, or a man of colour, would ask to be appointed a magistrate or a judge: "You shall," he would say,

say, "because I presume you understand Latin?"—"No, general."—"How! wish to be a magistrate without knowing Latin!" and then he would pour forth such a torrent of Latin words which he had got by heart out of his Pfalter, that the black candidate retired with the satisfaction of believing that he might have obtained his object had he understood the language, and the conviction that the general was a portentous scholar.

Such was the man to whom the island was indebted for its prosperity; which however was, unfortunately, not of long continuance. No sooner was the peace of Amiens definitively settled, than Bonaparte, urged on the one hand by the expelled planters, and on the other by mercantile speculators, and probably more strongly than either by his own ambition, which could not suffer a rival, though the Atlantic rolled between them, determined on the recovery of the colony, the reinstatement of the former proprietors, and the subjugation of the emancipated slaves. On the arrival in the bay of Samana of the French fleet, having on-board twenty-five thousand men, the flower of the French army, under the command of general Leclerc, the brother-in-law of Bonaparte, Toussaint hastened to the spot to reconnoitre its movements. Having never before seen so numerous a fleet, "We shall all perish," said he to his officers; "all France is come to St. Domingo." The division under Rochambeau having effected a landing at Fort Dauphin, the negroes, who had assembled in crowds to behold the strange sight, were charged with the bayonet, and numbers of them killed on the spot; but the main body of the fleet and army, on preparing to land at Cape François, received a message from general Christophe, prohibitory of any disembarkation of troops without the orders of his commander-in-chief. Leclerc, on this, sent a letter to Christophe, with mingled expressions of conciliation and menace, to which Christophe replied, with great firmness and moderation, that he was responsible for his conduct only to the governor and commander-in-chief, Toussaint l'Ouverture; that, if he attempted to carry his threats into execution, he should know how to resist as became a general officer; and that he accounted those troops which he threatened to land as so many pieces of card, which the slightest breath of wind would dissipate. Leclerc had sent on-shore printed copies of a proclamation drawn up by Bonaparte, in which the same insidious mixture of cajoling and threatening was used to seduce or intimidate the blacks. "Inhabitants of St. Domingo," it commenced, "whatever be your origin or your colour, you are all French; you are all free, and all equal, before God, and before the republic:" and it concluded, "Rally round the captain-general; he brings you peace and plenty. Whoever shall dare to separate himself from him, will be a traitor to his country, and the indignation of the republic will devour him as the fire devours your dried canes."

This menace, backed by such an overwhelming force, shook the allegiance of the white inhabitants to Toussaint. Christophe perceived the disaffection, and, knowing the town not to be defensible, set fire to it in several places, retreating in good order, and carrying off with him above two thousand of the whites as hostages, not one of whom was injured in the confusion and massacres which followed. This spirited measure, and the active preparations making by Toussaint in the interior, induced Leclerc to make trial of a scheme, which, if resorted to previous to the commencement of hostilities, might have been successful. He had brought out with him the two sons of Toussaint, whom the father was to be permitted to see, in the hope that, through them, he might be prevailed upon to acquiesce in the wishes of the first consul. From the smoking ruins of Cape François, Coisnon, their tutor, was dispatched with his pupils to Toussaint's country residence. The interview was affecting; and the artful pedagogue employed all his eloquence to prevail on Toussaint to relinquish the chief command, and be-

come the lieutenant-general of Leclerc: but it was too late. Toussaint had made his arrangements to oppose the French army; and, after an interview of two hours, left his two sons, to decide between their father and their adopted country.

When Leclerc found that Toussaint was inexorable, he issued a proclamation, declaring the generals Toussaint and Christophe to be put out of the protection of the law, and ordering every citizen to pursue and treat them as rebels to the French republic. The war now raged with great violence; and every artifice was practised by Leclerc to procure the defection of the black troops, in which he was but too successful. The black generals La Plume and Maurepas went over with their forces to the French: and what was their recompense? "Maurepas, a man of mild and gentle manners, and highly esteemed for his integrity, was suddenly carried off to Port de Paix, and put on-board the admiral's vessel, then at anchor in the roads, where, after binding him to the main-mast, they, in derision, with nails such as are used in ship-building, fixed two old epaulettes on his shoulders, and an old general's hat on his head. In that frightful condition, these cannibals, after having glutted their savage mirth, precipitated him, with his wife and children, into the sea. Such was the fate of this virtuous and unfortunate soldier!"

Toussaint, however, had under his immediate command a well-disciplined army; and Dessalines, one of the most courageous, enterprising, and skilful, of all the negro generals, held the strong fortrefs of Crête-pierrot, which had been built by the English. The French army laid siege to this place, which, after a brave defence, was evacuated by Dessalines, who carried off every thing that was valuable, leaving a small detachment to follow him in the morning. Intoxicated with the successful issue of the siege, the French committed all manner of cruelties on the unfortunate negroes who fell into their hands; and Leclerc, with equal baseness and folly, publicly restored to the proprietors of estates all their ancient authority. The consequence was such as might have been foreseen; all the blacks who had adhered to the French now deserted them, and again took up arms. Leclerc perceived his error, and had once more recourse to the delusion of proclaiming "liberty and equality to all the inhabitants of St. Domingo, without regard to colour;" with the reservation, however, of the approval of the French government. The negroes, tired of the war, again deserted their leaders; and at length Christophe negotiated in behalf of himself, his colleague Dessalines, and Toussaint the general-in-chief, a full amnesty for all their troops, and the preservation of the respective ranks of all the black officers. Leclerc was too happy to grant these conditions; and a peace was accordingly concluded, by which the sovereignty of France over the island of St. Domingo was acknowledged by all the constituted authorities.

Toussaint had liberty to retire to any of his estates which he might please to make choice of. He selected that called by his own name, l'Ouverture, situated at Gonaïves; there, in the bosom of his family, he entered upon the enjoyment of that repose of which he had so long been deprived. The *secret instructions*, however, of Bonaparte, were now to be obeyed; and Leclerc lost no time in putting into execution an act, which has entailed everlasting disgrace on his memory. In the dead of night, a ship of the line and a frigate anchored near Gonaïves, and landed a body of troops; they surrounded the house of Toussaint, when Brunet, a brigadier-general, entered the chamber where he slept, with a file of grenadiers, ordered him to surrender without resistance, and hurried him and his whole family on-board the *Hero*, of 74 guns, which proceeded immediately with them to France. Two negro chiefs of the neighbourhood, who attempted to rescue him, were taken, and Leclerc ordered them to be shot. He then caused about one hundred of the confidential

tial friends of Toussaint to be arrested, and sent to the different ships of the squadron: none of them were ever heard of afterwards; and it is supposed that they were thrown overboard. Toussaint, on the passage, was kept a close prisoner, and separated from his wife and family; and, on the arrival of the ship at Brest, he was merely allowed to see them once, and take leave of them for ever. He was conducted to the castle of Joux in Normandy, with a single negro to attend on him; his wife and children were conveyed to Bayonne, and nothing more was ever heard of either. On the approach of winter, Toussaint was subsequently removed to Besançon, and there immured in a cold, damp, gloomy dungeon, which became, as doubtless was intended, his sepulchre, the floor being actually covered with water. Thus did this great and good man perish, by the foul machinations of that remorseless tyrant, who, instead of expiating his numberless cruelties in a living sepulchre, like that to which he consigned the negro chief, is now merely kept from doing more mischief, by a mild banishment to the salubrious and romantic heights of St. Helena.

We shall now avail ourselves of some late publications, to complete the history of St. Domingo, or Hispaniola, or Hayti, up to the present day. It has been seen, under the article HISPANIOLA, vol. x. p. 204. that Dessalines, who succeeded Toussaint in the command of the army, had the good fortune totally to expel the French from the island, and to become himself "Emperor of Hayti," in 1804. We have also noticed the death of this transatlantic Robespierre; and that the government of the island was disputed by two chiefs, Christophe a negro, and Petion a mulatto. The blacks, always jealous of the men of colour, attacked Petion, who, with his people, narrowly escaped into the southern and western districts, where a new constitution was prepared; and, on the 27th of December, 1806, Petion was proclaimed president of the republic of Hayti. A civil war now sprang up between the partisans of the two chiefs; till at length, by a sort of tacit agreement, the mulatto president fixed himself in the south and west, while Christophe established himself in the north, where, on the 2d of June, 1811, the royal crown was placed on his head, and he was proclaimed Henry I. king of Hayti.

The kingdom is separated from the republic by an uninhabited line of ten leagues in depth. The rich plains of the Boucassin, and the coverts through which the line passes, are at present thick forests, which, by the force of vegetation, grow every day more and more impenetrable.

Petion, the president of the republic of Hayti, a native mulatto of St. Domingo, was educated at the military academy of Paris, where he distinguished himself as a man of very considerable talents, but of shy and reserved manners. His disposition, however, was gentle and conciliatory; and such was the confidence of his own caste in his ability and integrity, that, almost without exertion, he had not only the merit of keeping together, and thus saving, the remains of the people of colour, but of establishing, with about ten or twelve thousand of that caste, a complete controul over a population of 250,000 blacks; more, it is said, by the seasonable application of the two fascinating words, liberty and equality, than by the introduction of them into real practice. The death of Petion, which took place in 1818, was universally lamented; and his funeral was attended by almost the whole population of Port-au-Prince, all exclaiming that they had lost a father and a friend; and when his successor, general Boyer, pronounced his funeral oration, the whole multitude burst into tears. An English merchant, residing at Port-au-Prince, says, "I have been on intimate terms with Petion for years, and a more virtuous and amiable man I never knew. He is the idol of the people, and their confidence in him is unbounded." It was supposed that he was a Frenchman in his heart, and would betray that part of the island over which he ruled to the emissaries of Louis; but his conduct, on that occasion,

shewed his sincerity. The moment he heard of the mission, he caused every preparation to be made for setting fire to all the houses on the coast, and torches to be placed in all the arsenals ready to be lighted. "If," says the English merchant above alluded to, "a suggestion is whispered at the government-house as to the policy of the measure, the answer is, Look at Moscow." It would appear, if Lacroix be correct, that he just died in time to save his reputation; that, disgusted with the things of this world, he had fallen into an absolute apathy, and no longer possessed that activity of mind so necessary for the founder and the director of a political system; that, finding he could not advance the fabric he had reared according to his philanthropic views, annoyed at the idea of being fixed to a spot of the earth where the surrounding mass was so barbarous as not to comprehend those views, he launched forth into the imaginary world of Plato; and, in the aberration of his faculties, had nevertheless preserved a sufficient degree of firmness to suffer himself to die of hunger.

Christophe, now Henry I. king of Hayti, was born a slave in that island of the West Indies from which he takes his name, and was still a slave in St. Domingo in the year 1791. The early friend and the faithful adherent of Toussaint, he bore a considerable resemblance to him in character. His military talents were very respectable, and his courage unshaken; his disposition humane and benevolent. In the exercise of all the social virtues he has been eminently distinguished; he is a good husband, a good father, a steady friend, and strict in the observance of all the duties of religion and morality. Contrary to the common custom among his black countrymen, he attached himself in early life to one woman, whom he never forsook; and that woman is now queen of Hayti, beloved by all ranks and conditions. Henry is said to possess a propriety and dignity of manner seldom attained by an uneducated man. Gifted with strong natural talents, he soon acquired the habit both of speaking and writing well. His proclamations, said to be generally dictated by himself, are compositions of which the most civilized cabinets of Europe might not be ashamed. Of his good faith and moderation, the British merchants resident under his protection have had frequent and ample proofs. His colour and features are completely negro; but his countenance is represented as very intelligent, agreeable, and expressive. In person and appearance, he is said to bear a strong resemblance to our late venerable sovereign; and the respect felt for him by the British merchants is not, on that account, diminished: his common dress, which is that of the Windward uniform, but without lace or star, adds to the likeness. When commander-in-chief of Cape François, he used to give public dinners, to which the officers of the British navy were frequently invited; and on these occasions his conversation was in the English language, in which he expresses himself with great ease. At the head of all his public institutions he is ambitious to place Englishmen, professing his cordial detestation of every thing French. Dr. Stuart has the care of his military hospital, which is constantly visited by the king, who goes round daily and talks with the patients, most of whom he knows by name and character; to some he gives good advice, others he scolds, and with others he laughs and jests, and they all appear happy to see him. His good-humoured disposition is manifested by the number of orphans, children of deceased officers, whom he keeps in his palace, and whom he suffers to run about him and feel his pocket for *bons-bons*, which he carries with him for the gratification of the little urchins.

The two governments, under the superintendence of the negro king and the mulatto president, have proceeded in very different ways, and without any common principle, in the progress of civilization, the cultivation of their respective territories, and the general improvement of the people. Petion, the late president, endeavoured to adhere to the revolutionary government of France, under

under which he received a part of his education. While every thing was apparently carried on by tribunals or departments, the president, in fact, was invested with absolute power; he was the Bonaparte of Hayti, surrounded by inefficient and useless machinery. The lands in the republic are partitioned among the officers and public functionaries, according to a fixed scale; and the negroes may work on hire, or live in idleness, as they feel disposed. Henry, on the contrary, lays claim to all the vacant lands, and partitions them out among his generals and other officers, as he thinks fit; and a kind of feudal system is established, each having on his estate a set of retainers, who receive one-fourth of the produce for their labour, and are generally soldiers by profession. The administration of affairs in the republic is conducted by a president, three secretaries of state, thirty representatives of the commons, and twenty-four senators. These affect to ridicule the acts of Henry, by saying, that "his hands are less fit to wield the sceptre than the frying-pan at the inn of the Cape," where he was formerly a slave; while Henry contents himself with publishing every year the whole organization of the two governments in the "Royal Almanac of Hayti," and tempts the republicans, by showing the vacancies he has to dispose of in the civil and military functions of the monarchy. All honours flow from the crown, which is hereditary in the family of Christophe, who affects to trace his pedigree to the house of Dahomey in Africa. His hereditary nobles consist of two princes, exclusive of the blood royal, eight dukes, eighteen earls, thirty-two barons, and eight knights. Six grand-marshal of Hayti, eight lieutenant-generals, fifteen field-marshal, six major-generals, and one hundred field-officers, compose the staff of the army. There is besides a Royal and Military Order of St. Henry, which confers personal nobility on those who are decorated with it: in 1818 it consisted of six grand-crosses, sixteen knights-commanders, and 165 knights-companions. The staff of the army of the republic is less numerous, consisting only of six generals of divisions, and nine brigadier-generals; there are, of course, no honours or distinctions but what are conferred by offices. Lacroix seems to think that the republic is more firmly established, because property is more divided, and because there are more points of contact between authority and obedience, and consequently a greater number interested in maintaining the present government. Both, however, depend solely for internal tranquillity, and repelling external attack, on force of arms. If you will preserve yourselves free, said Toussaint, be careful to preserve your arms. Petion inculcates the same sentiment; and the baron de Vastey re-echoes it, lamenting the fate of the ancient inhabitants of the island, who were exterminated because ignorant of their use.

The regular army of king Henry consists of about 25,000 men, of which 4600 form the royal guard; they are of all arms, exceedingly well, indeed splendidly, dressed and equipped in all respects, and in an excellent state of discipline. According to the testimony of several British officers, no European troops are better trained than the black regiments of Hayti. Among them are about 4000 blacks from the coast of Africa, formed into separate companies, which bear the name of Royal Dahomeys. They are placed under officers of tried attachment to the king, and are in fact the national guards, to whom the general police of the country is entrusted; and such, according to Lacroix, is the strictness of this police, that the cultivators are not permitted to leave their houses without a written permission from the commanding-officer of the Dahomeys. The army of the republic is also about 25,000 men, of which 3600 men compose the president's guard. They are not so well dressed nor disciplined as the king's army, and the greater part are placed in cantonments among the planters. The police of the towns is not so strict in the republic as in the monarchy; the people of colour, who are chiefly in power, are more difficult to bring under subordination than the blacks. They are

more loose in their morals, particularly the women, who transact almost all the business of the towns. The bonds of marriage can scarcely be said to exist in the republic. Henry, on the contrary, compels his soldiers to marry; and woe be to him that violates the nuptial tie! Aware that much depends on appearances, Henry suffers no one to appear before him who is not decently clothed; and the consequence is, that, instead of naked blacks of both sexes strolling about the streets as heretofore, every one now puts on a becoming habit. The republicans are less attentive in this respect; but here too the natural vanity of the blacks has induced them, to clothe themselves better than heretofore. Petion himself affected an indifference to dress, but his great officers made as brilliant an appearance as those of Henry. "By a singular fate," says Lacroix, "dresses of velvet magnificently embroidered, which not long ago arrayed the senators of the most powerful empire of the world, have found their way to Hayti, and now clothe the senators of this little republic. This circumstance, (he adds,) insignificant in itself, is a new example of the nothingness and the decay of human grandeur in the age of revolutions in which we live."

The population of the two governments, according to Lacroix, consists of 480,000 blacks, 20,000 persons of colour, and 1000 whites, chiefly Germans, making all together 501,000 souls; of whom 261,000 are republicans, and 240,000 royalists. Each may be considered to consist of three classes. The first embraces all the civil and military officers, who possess a great part of the property of the island. The second class is composed of those who exercise the various mechanical arts, the trades-people of the towns, and the soldiers. The third is composed of the actual labourers of the estates, or the husbandmen, who are mostly blacks. These people are in fact but a little removed from their former condition of slavery, being completely at the mercy and caprice of the civil and military authorities of the two governments.

The finances of each are stated to be so flourishing, that, after paying all expenses, there is a surplus of at least fifteen millions of livres, entirely disposable by the king and the president. The system of policy is the same. The king and the president have both declared, that, on the first appearance of an enemy on the coast, every town shall disappear, and the whole nation take up arms. "The last of the Haytians," says king Henry in his manifesto, "will breathe out his last sigh sooner than renounce his independence. Free by right, and independent in fact, we will never renounce these blessings; nor witness the subversion of the edifice which we have raised and cemented with our blood. Faithful to our oath, we will rather bury ourselves beneath the ruins of our country, than suffer the smallest infringement of our political rights." And, in order to avoid giving any umbrage to other powers, king Henry has lately (1819) issued a proclamation, declaring that no asylum shall be granted in Hayti to any disaffected or runaway negroes from any of the West-India islands, and especially from those belonging to his Britannic majesty.

The most recent advices (Jan. 1820.) state, that at length the long rivalry of Christophe and Boyer had subsided into so friendly an understanding, that the intercourse with neutral vessels, between their respective courts, could be carried on without molestation. And the same accounts add, that king Henry Christophe has taken the prudent course of securing the attachment of his troops, by conceding to them grants of land, and advancing to them the means of cultivating them; while they are still within the reach of a summons to military duty. Conscious of his strength, he rejects all overtures from France that shall not come to him with the recognition of his independence, "as from one brother-king to another."

As the president Boyer partakes in these sentiments, though not so royally, we are assured that both governments are well prepared for any attempts that may be

made against them. A regular system of defence has been established by fortifying the brows of the hills and the defiles of the interior; the means of subsisting the troops have been provided for by carrying on cultivation in the vicinity of their strong-holds and places of arms; and the fort and citadel of Henry at Sans Souci are said to yield to none of the fortresses of Europe in strength. In this fortress are from three to four hundred brass cannon regularly mounted; and it is seen from the sea towering like another Windsor Castle. France, it is to be hoped, will recollect the fate of Leclerc's army before the embarks in another expedition hostile to St. Domingo. "Of the 35,131 men," says Lacroix, "carried out, more than 25,000 had fallen before Leclerc into the grave. At his death, 2200 only were fit to bear arms; about 7500 sick crowded the hospitals. These wrecks, (he continues,) and 20,000 other victims landed on St. Domingo in the last thirteen months of our agonizing dominion, as well as the unfortunate creole population, perished after the death of Leclerc, in proportions still more deplorable than those which are presented in the following mournful table." This table gives a total of those who were destroyed by a violent death during the command of general Leclerc, amounting to 62,481!

Under every point of view, any fresh attempt of the French government to disturb the island would deserve the reprobation of mankind. The progress made by the inhabitants in agriculture, and all the arts, is quite extraordinary; but more particularly in education and general literature. Parochial schools have been established on the Madras system in every part of Henry's dominions, and primary schools at all the principal towns, under the direction of English instructors; in these the English language is taught, and is now read and written by the children of all the functionaries of the government. A royal college has also been established, and annual prizes given to the most distinguished students. Henry has also endowed an academy for music and painting, and built a regular theatre. All these are erected at Sans Souci, the royal residence, which, we understand, for elegance and chasteness of design, is not inferior to many of the palaces of Europe. Here too he has established various manufactories, and among others that of carriages. Three gaudy ones purchased for him in this country gave him great offence; and he asked if the English considered him as a king of Congo? The Catholic religion is declared to be that of the state: the hierarchy consists of an archbishop, three bishops, and a rector in each parish. At Sans Souci there is a royal and parochial church. It was erected by Henry, and is mentioned in the Royal Almanac as "a monument of his royal munificence and piety." The archbishop, whom the pope has hitherto refused to consecrate, has a chapter, a seminary, and a college, attached to the metropolitan see, all well endowed. He has also three archiepiscopal palaces assigned to him; and the bishops have each a chapter and a seminary, endowed with considerable revenues.

Schools are also established in the republic, over which are placed four or five Frenchmen, as professors of languages, mathematics, &c. At Port-au-Prince there is also a college of physicians, and several French medical men are employed to superintend it. The church-establishment, like all the rest in the republic, wears a more humble character, being confined to an apostolical prefect, with curates under him; but, as we before observed, the duties of religion and morality sit looser on the republicans than the royalists.

Such is the present state of the northern part of Hayti. It presents, in truth, an imposing and an awful spectacle; and very firm must be the nerves of that politician who can contemplate it *sicis oculis*, whether for good or for evil. We do not wish to despond; and it is yet, we fear, too early to triumph; but we cannot conceal from ourselves how much depends upon the personal character of the future rulers of this emancipated race. A third, wor-

thy of Toussaint l'Ouverture and Henry I. the Numa and the Ancus of Hayti, may not arise in immediate succession; and we have yet to learn, whether habits of obedience, and a love of order and discipline, will succeed to the influence of individual character, and perpetuate the action of that admirable system of polity which these two wonderful men have constructed and set in motion. Spain yet retains the larger, and we believe the more fertile, part of this noble island; but she retains it as an unproductive desert. We know not with what composure she contemplates the state of things beyond the immense *llanos* that separate her from a free and active population; but it becomes ourselves not to forget that the Blue Mountains of Jamaica are visible from St. Domingo. We would not, and indeed cannot, anticipate what is yet in the womb of time; but in the lap of peace and security it may not perhaps be unwise to meditate on an event which sooner or later must surely come to pass—we speak of the general emancipation of the negro race. With timely precautions, such a circumstance would not, in our humble opinion, be very deeply to be deprecated; and one of the most effectual of those precautions would be the extension of the present humane and judicious plan of giving the slaves some kind of education, and imbuing their minds with the principles of our holy religion. They would then be in a favourable state of preparation for the adoption of that system by the planters which has so happily succeeded in the two governments of Hayti, and might cultivate the soil as free labourers, receiving from the proprietor one-fourth of the produce. However this may be, we cannot but rejoice in the good which has already been wrought, and express our ardent hopes that no attempts will be made to rivet afresh the chains of this meritorious people, and that the independence which they have acquired, at the expense of so many sufferings, will defend unimpaired to their posterity.

The publications we alluded to in the former part of this article are—1. History of the Island of St. Domingo, from its first Discovery by Columbus to the present period; London, 1818. 2. Réflexions sur les Noirs et les Blancs, la Civilisation de l'Afrique, le Royaume d'Hayti, &c. par le Baron de Vastey, Secrétaire du Roi au Cap Henry. 3. Almanach Royal d'Hayti, 1818. 4. Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire de la Révolution de Saint Domingue; par le Lieutenant-général Baron Pamphile de Lacroix; 2 tom. Paris, 1819. Quarterly Review, N° xlii. Apr. 1819. Monthly Mag. Nov. 1819. Gent. Mag. Jan. 1820. And, should any thing worthy of notice occur hereafter in this infant state, as most probably it will, we shall resume the subject under the article SAINT DOMINGO.

O'VUM, *f.* [Latin.] An egg; any thing resembling an egg.

OUVRA'RD (René), a celebrated canon of Tours, was a native of Chinon, in the Touraine, and flourished after the middle of the seventeenth century. He was intimately conversant in the belles-lettres, poetry, the mathematics, divinity, controversy, the art of music, and ecclesiastical antiquities. For ten years he filled the post of master of music at the holy chapel at Paris, before his promotion to the canonry of Tours. He died at that city in 1694, respected for his piety, and beloved on account of the excellence and amiableness of his moral and social character. On his tomb the following verses are inscribed, composed by himself:

Dum vixi, divina mihi Laus unica Cura :
Post obitum sit Laus divina mihi unica Merces !

He was the author of a variety of works, among which are the following: 1. A new and secret Method of composing in Music, 1660. 2. Studiosis sanctarum Scripturarum Biblia Sacra in Lectiones ad Singulos Dies, per Legem, Prophetas, et Evangelium, distributa, et 529 Carminibus mnemonicis comprehensa, 1668; the same in French, 1669. 3. Motives for a Re-union with the Catholic Church, addressed to the pretended Reformed in France,

France, &c. 1668. 4. The Reasons which produced the Conversion of the Count de Lorges Montgommery, 1670. 5. A Defence of the ancient Tradition in the French Churches relative to the Mission of the first Preachers of the Gospel among the Gauls, in the Time of the Apostles and their immediate Disciples, with Considerations on the Use and the Abuse of the Writings of Sulpicius Severus and St. Gregory of Tours, on this and similar Topics, 1678. 6. The Art and Science of Numbers, in French and Latin, with a Preface on the Excellence of Arithmetic, 1677. 7. Harmonic Architecture; or, the Application of the Doctrine of Proportions in Music to Architecture, 1679, 4to. 8. Calendarium novum, perpetuum, et irrevocabile, 1682; which M. Arnauld, who entertained a great regard for the author, and proved that many of the notions in it were untenable, prevailed upon M. Ouvrard to suppress. 9. Breviarium Turonense, renovatum, et in melius restitutum anno 1685. And he left behind him manuscripts on scientific, controversial, and other subjects. *Moreri*.

OVUTSI, or OUVUSTI, a town of Japan, in the island of Xicoco. Lat. 34. 8. N. lon. 135. 20. E.

OU'Y, a town of China, of the third rank, in Pe-tche-li: thirty-eight miles east-south-east of Chun-te.

OU'Y, a town of China, of the third rank, in Pe-tche-li: eighteen miles south of Ching.

OU'Y, a town of China, of the third rank, in Tcheking: twenty-eight miles south of Tchu-tcheou.

OUZOU'ER sur CRESCE, a town of France, in the department of the Loiret: twenty-one miles south of Montargis, and six south-east of Gien.

OUZOU'ER LE DOYEN, a town of France, in the department of the Loire and Cher: fifteen miles north of Mer.

OUZOU'ER sur LOIRE, a town of France, in the department of the Loiret, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Gien: six miles south-east of Gien. The place contains 686 inhabitants.

OUZOU'ER LE MARCHE, a town of France, in the department of the Loire and Cher: twelve miles north of Mer, and twenty-one north of Blois.

OUZOU'M CUPRI. See TRAJANOPOLI.

OW, or AWE (Loch), a lake in Argyleshire, Scotland, slightly mentioned in vol. xii. It extends almost thirty miles in length; and is in some places two miles broad, but its usual width does not exceed one mile. It is an uncommonly-fine expanse of water, and little inferior to Loch Lomond in the beauty of its scenery. A great part of its banks exhibits lofty mountains covered with wood; and within its bosom are many little islands ornamented with trees and picturesque ruins. On Inish-Chonnel are the remains of an ancient castle belonging to the Argyle family; and on Troach-Elan are vestiges of another fortress, which was granted, with some contiguous lands, to the chief of the clan of Mac-Naughton, by king Alexander III. on condition that he should entertain the Scottish monarch whenever he passed that way. At a more remote period this latter island was the Hesperides of Scotland; and the fatal attempt of Troach, to gather its delicious fruit for his beloved Mego, is handed down from age to age in a beautiful Celtic tale, after the manner of Ossian. "The fair Mego longed for the delicious fruit of the isle guarded by a dreadful serpent. Troach, who had long loved the maid, goes to gather the fruit. By the rustling of the leaves the serpent was awaked from his sleep. It attacked the hero, who perished in the conflict. The monster was also destroyed. Mego did not long survive the death of her lover."

The surface of Loch-Awe is 108 feet above the level of the ocean. Numerous rivulets discharge themselves into it on both sides; and, what is unusual, it receives a large stream at each extremity, emptying itself laterally by the river Awe into Loch Etive, an arm of the sea to the north, at a place called Bunaw. This lake abounds with salmon, trout, char, and eels. On a rocky point, projecting into

the lake, near its eastern end, are seated the venerable ruins of Castle-Kilchurn, which was built in 1440 by the lady of sir Colin Campbell, knight of Rhodes, and ancestor of the Breadalbane family, while her husband was engaged in the holy wars. Since that period, however, many additions have been made to its original extent, by successive possessors. In 1745 it was fitted-up for the reception of a royal garrison to secure the peace and tranquillity of the country; but its massive walls are now rapidly falling to ruin, and offer to the contemplative mind a melancholy monument of the mutability of earthly grandeur, and of the unavoidable decay of the most durable works of human art. *Beauties of Scotland*, vol. v.

OWA'RI, a town of Japan, in the island of Nippon, situated in a bay to which it gives name. Lat. 35. 30. N. lon. 137. 50. E.

OWANTY, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna; sixteen miles east of Wilkomierz.

OWASCO, a lake of United America: twenty-five miles south of Lake Ontario.

OWCH, a town of Turkestan, on a river which runs into the Sihon: thirty miles south-south-east of Andagan.

OWCHE. See OUCHE.

OW'CZE, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Podolia: forty miles west of Kaminiec.

To OWE, *v. a.* [*eg aa*, I owe, or I ought, Icel.] To be obliged to pay; to be indebted.—A son *owes* help and honour to his father; and is a subject less indebted to the king? *Holyday*.—It, upon the general balance of trade, English merchants *owe* to foreigners one hundred thousand pounds, if commodities do not, our money must, go out to pay it. *Locke*.

I *owe* you much, and, like a witless youth,
That which I *owe* is lost. *Shakespeare's Merch. of Ven.*

Thou hast deserv'd more love than I can show,
But 'tis thy fate to give, and mine to *owe*. *Dryden*.

To be obliged to ascribe; to be obliged for:

By me upheld, that he may know how frail
His fall'n condition is, and to me *owe*
All his deliverance, and to none but me. *Milton*.

To have from any thing as the consequence of a cause:

O deem thy fall not *ow'd* to man's decree,
Jove hated Greece, and punish'd Greece in thee. *Pope*.

To possess; to be the right owner of. For *owe*, which is in this sense obsolete, we now use *own*.—Thou dost here usurp the name thou *ow'st* not. *Shakespeare*.

Nor poppy nor mandragora,
Not all the drowsy syrups of the world,
Shall ever med'cine thee to that sweet sleep
Which thou *ow'dst* yesterday. *Shakespeare's Othello*.

If any happy eye
This roving wanton shall descry,
Let the finder surely know
Mine is the wag; 'tis I that *owe*
The winged wand'rer. *Cryshaw*.

To OWE, *v. n.* To be bound or obliged.—The ryche man *oweth* of duty to doo his mercy upon the poore creature. *Bp. Fisher*.

OWE'GO, a town of the state of New-York, on the east branch of the Susquehanna; 150 miles north-west of New-York: inhabitants, 1284.

O'WEN, a town of Wurtemberg: eighteen miles south-east of Stutgard, and twenty-eight east of Nagold.

O'WEN (Thomas), a judge of the Common Pleas, son of Richard Owen, esq. of Conover in Shropshire, was educated at Oxford. Having taken a degree in arts, he left the university, and entered himself of Lincoln's Inn, London, where, in process of time, he became an eminent counsellor. In 1583 he was elected Lent-reader to that society. In 1590 he was made serjeant-at-law, and queen's serjeant soon after. He arrived at length at the dignity

dignity of judge of the Common Pleas; which office he is said to have executed, during five years, with great abilities and integrity. He died in 1593; and was buried on the south side of the choir in Westminster-abbey, where a monument was erected to his memory. He had the reputation of a learned man, and a patron of literature. He was the author of "Reports in the Common Pleas; wherein are many choice cases, most of them thoroughly argued by the learned serjeants, and after argued and resolved by the grave judges of those times, with many cases wherein the difference of the year-books are reconciled and explained." Lond. 1656, folio.

O'WEN (John), a distinguished writer of Latin epigrams, was a native of Caermarthenhire, and received his education at Winchester-school under Dr. Bilson. In 1584 he was admitted a fellow of New College, Oxford, where he continued till 1591, when he became master of a school near Monmouth. In 1594 he obtained the mastership of the free-school at Warwick, where he made himself celebrated by his skill in Latin poetry, especially of the epigrammatic kind. He is said to have experienced the poet's fate of perpetual indigence; but he met with a kind patron in bishop and lord-keeper Williams, his countryman and relation; by whom he was chiefly supported in the latter years of his life. He underwent a severe disappointment in being struck out of the will of an uncle, who was offended with his attacks upon popery, to which religion that relative was inclined. One of his epigrams to this purpose may serve as a specimen of that play upon words in which much of his wit consists:

An Petrus fuerit Romæ, sub iudice lis est:
Simonem Romæ nemo fuisse negat.

Owen died in 1622, and was buried at bishop Williams's expense in St. Paul's cathedral. His epigrams have been collected in twelve books, and have been several times published. In some of his pieces he imitates the pointed turn of Martial with success; but the greater number have little to recommend them, except the purity and elegant simplicity of the language. Several have been translated both into French and English.

O'WEN (John), a learned and eminent English non-conformist divine of the independent denomination, was descended from a respectable family in North Wales, and born in the year 1616 at Hadham in Oxfordshire, of which place his father was vicar. As he afforded early indications of extraordinary natural abilities, his friends resolved to give him the advantage of a liberal education; and with that view placed him under the tuition of Mr. Edward Sylvester, a celebrated schoolmaster at Oxford. In this seminary he made such a rapid proficiency in grammar-learning, that he was admitted into Queen's-college, in that university, when he was only about twelve years of age.

The circumstances of his father, who had a large family, not permitting him to afford his son an adequate maintenance, young Owen was liberally supplied with college-expenses by an uncle, who possessed a good estate in Wales, and, having no children of his own, intended to make his nephew his heir. Thus supported, he pursued his studies with incredible diligence, allowing himself for several years, it is said, not more than four hours sleep in a night; and by such incessant application, under the able direction of the learned Dr. Barlow, afterwards bishop of Lincoln, he made a very considerable progress in academical learning. At the same time he did not neglect the care of his health, but occasionally indulged in such recreations as were proper for so robust a constitution as his was; such as leaping, throwing the bar, ringing of bells, and similar exercises. He was admitted to the degree of B.A. in 1632; and commenced M.A. in 1635. Soon afterwards, archbishop Laud, the chancellor of the university, having enjoined the observance of some new regulations with which Mr. Owen was dissatisfied, he refused submission to them. This refusal greatly offended

his uncle; and induced many of his friends to forsake him, as infected with puritanism. The resentment of the Laudean party also by degrees rendered his situation in the college so uneasy, that he found himself obliged to leave it in the year 1637. Soon after this, he was ordained priest by the bishop of the diocese, and became chaplain to sir Robert Dormer, of Ascot in Oxfordshire, as well as tutor to his eldest son. Afterwards he became chaplain to lord Lovelace, of Hurley in Berkshire, in whose family he resided at the commencement of the civil wars, when he openly avowed the cause of the parliament. This conduct was so highly resented by his uncle, who was a zealous royalist, that he immediately discarded him, settled his estate upon another person, and died without bequeathing him any thing. Lord Lovelace, however, though he had joined the king's party, continued to treat his chaplain with great civility; but, that nobleman going at length to the king's army, Mr. Owen left his house, and went to London, where he soon became a perfect convert to the principles of the nonconformists.

In the year 1642 Mr. Owen first made himself known to the public as an author, by publishing his book entitled "A Display of Arminianism;" which met with so favourable a reception, that it laid the foundation of his future advancement. Such was the impression which it made on the committee for dismissing from the church scandalous ministers, that they sent him a presentation to the living of Fordham in Essex; where he settled, and married a lady whose excellent qualities greatly contributed to the happiness of his life. When he had been at Fordham about a year and a half, the sequestered incumbent died; upon which the patron, who was not friendly to Mr. Owen, presented another person to the living. Care was soon taken, however, to repair his loss by another benefice in the same neighbourhood; for the earl of Warwick, who was patron of the church of Coggeshall, a market-town about five miles from Fordham, very readily gave him that living.

Hitherto Mr. Owen had connected himself with the Presbyterians; but he had not been long at Coggeshall, before he declared himself in favour of the principles of the Independents: and he formed a church there according to the discipline of that sect, which continued many years in a flourishing condition. Mr. Owen's fame now became widely spread; and, upon the prevalence of the independent party, he was sent for to preach before the parliament on one of the fast-days in 1646. When Colchester was besieged, in 1648, Fairfax, whose head-quarters were for some days at Coggeshall, became acquainted with him; and, upon the surrender of that town to the parliamentary forces, our divine preached the thanksgiving-sermon there on that occasion. He was again called upon to preach before the house of commons, on the next day after the execution of king Charles I. but he kept his sentiments on that subject in such reserve, that his friends could not justly make exceptions against him, nor his enemies take advantage of his words another day. Mr. Owen's services were so acceptable to the commons, that he was afterwards frequently appointed to preach before them; particularly on the 28th of February 1649, being the day of humiliation and prayer on occasion of the intended expedition to Ireland. At this discourse, Cromwell, who had never heard Mr. Owen preach, was present, and was greatly pleased with his performance. Within a day or two, while Mr. Owen was waiting for admission to pay his respects to Fairfax, before his intended return to Coggeshall, Cromwell came into the room, and directly advancing to him, and laying his hand familiarly on his shoulder, said, "Sir, you are the person that I must be acquainted with." Mr. Owen replied, "That, sir, will be much more to my advantage than yours." "We shall soon see that," said Cromwell; and, taking him by the hand, led him into Fairfax's garden, where he conversed with him about the intended expedition to Ireland, and desired that he would accompany him,

him, for the purpose of regulating and superintending the college of Dublin. Mr. Owen objected that his charge of the church at Coggeshall would not permit him to comply with his request. Cromwell, however, would have no denial; and Mr. Owen, after consulting with several ministers, who agreed in their advice for his going, prepared for his journey, not with the army, but in a more private manner.

Having arrived at Dublin, Mr. Owen took up his residence at the college, preaching there, and arranging the affairs of that seat of learning. After he had staid here half a year, he returned, by Cromwell's leave, to England, and resumed the discharge of his pastoral duties at Coggeshall. Scarcely, however, had he time to breathe there, before he was called upon to preach again at Whitehall. In the year 1650, when Cromwell went commander-in-chief into Scotland, he procured an order of parliament that Mr. Owen should accompany him; who, after he had spent six months at Edinburgh, obtained leave to return once more to his flock in Essex. He was finally called away from them in the following year, in consequence of his being promoted, by an order of parliament, on the 18th of March, to the deanery of Christ-church College in Oxford; and soon afterwards he received a letter from the principal students of that seminary, signifying their great satisfaction in the choice which had been made by the parliament, and their wishes for his presence among them. When he went to reside at Oxford, Cromwell was the chancellor of the university; and, in the year 1652, he nominated our dean his vice-chancellor. In 1653 Mr. Owen was created D.D. by diploma; and, upon the nomination of commissioners, in the following year, for ejecting scandalous, &c. ministers and schoolmasters, he was appointed one of that number for the county of Oxford. In these situations commendations has been bestowed on Dr. Owen for the care which he displayed in maintaining good discipline in the university, and on the moderation which he exercised towards the king's party. As instances of this disposition, it has been observed, that, though often urged to it, he never molested the meetings of the royalists at the house of Dr. Willis the physician, not far from our vice-chancellor's lodging at Christ-church, where divine service was performed according to the Liturgy of the Church of England; and that, in his office of commissioner for ejecting scandalous ministers, he frequently over-ruled his brethren in favour of such royalists as were eminently deserving, and particularly in the case of Dr. Edward Pococke.

Dr. Owen was continued in the office of vice-chancellor for five years, during which, notwithstanding the many hours necessarily devoted to the duties of his public appointments, he found time to prosecute his studies with great assiduity, and to write many learned, and some excellent, books; besides preaching every other Sunday at St. Mary's, and often at Stadham, and some other places in the country.

In the year 1657, upon Richard Cromwell's succeeding his father in the chancellorship of the university, Dr. Owen was removed from the post of vice-chancellor; as he was also from Richard's favour, when he became protector, upon the death of Oliver, in the following year. This change in the disposition of the court towards him, is attributed to the hostility of the presbyterian party; who are also said to have procured his exclusion from the pulpit at St. Mary's. The measure last mentioned he resented so highly, that he set up a lecture in another church, saying, "I have built seats at St. Mary's, but let the doctors find auditors; for I will preach at St. Peter's in the East;" which he accordingly did, and drew after him crowded auditories. In the meantime, he was one of the leading men in the assembly of the Independents which met at the Savoy in October 1658; and he had a principal share in drawing up a Confession of their Faith and Discipline, in opposition to the Presbyterians. While

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steps were pursuing to bring about the reformation, in 1659, he was ejected from his deanery of Christ-church; upon which he retired to Stadham, where he had lately purchased a good estate with a handsome house. Here he lived for some time, preaching in private to many friends who came to hear him from Oxford, and other places; till the interruptions which he met with from the soldiery of the militia, and their menaces, broke up his congregation; and he, after removing from place to place, at length went to London.

In these several situations, while he was debarred from the open exercise of the ministry, he did not spend his time in inactivity, but wrote several books. One of these, entitled "*Animadversions on Fiat Lux*," written in reply to a work under that name by a Franciscan friar, having fallen into the hands of the lord-chancellor Clarendon, he was so well pleased with it, that he sent for the author by sir Bulstrode Whitlocke, and, acknowledging the great service done to the protestant cause by that book, offered to prefer him in the church if he would conform; but the doctor's principles obliged him to decline his lordship's proposal. He now continued to preach whenever an opportunity offered, and met with so much trouble, that he made preparations for removing to New-England, whence he had received an invitation; but he was stopped by an express order of council. He also received an offer of a professorship of divinity in the United Provinces, which he declined.

In the year 1665, the dreadful calamities of the plague and of the fire of London so wholly engaged the public attention, that the laws against nonconformists were for some time suffered to lie dormant; and, not long afterwards his majesty's Declaration of Indulgence came out, and licences were granted to all who desired them, for public assemblies. While this liberty lasted, Dr. Owen was very assiduous in preaching, and was attended by many people of quality and eminent citizens. The jealousy of the church of England, however, taking an alarm, these assemblies were suppressed, by a proclamation issued against unlawful conventicles in 1667; upon which Dr. Owen went to pay a visit to his old friends at Oxford, and to settle some affairs of his estate at Stadham. In this neighbourhood he ventured to preach privately to some of his friends; but, intelligence of it having transpired, endeavours were used to apprehend him, which he narrowly escaped, and returned to London. He now received fresh invitations to remove to New-England, which his attachment to his native country would not permit him to accept. In the year 1671, when the bill to prevent and suppress what were called seditious conventicles was depending before the lords, our author was desired to draw up some reasons against it, which were laid before the lords by several eminent citizens and gentlemen of distinction; but the bill was, notwithstanding, passed into a law. However, the doctor's moderation and learning procured him the respect and esteem of several persons of honour and quality, who took delight in his conversation; particularly the earls of Orrery and Anglesey, lord Willoughby of Parham, lord Berkeley, and sir John Trevor, one of the secretaries of state. What is more, even the king himself, and the duke of York, paid him particular attention. When Dr. Owen was at Tunbridge Wells, the duke of York, being there, sent for him into his tent, and held several conversations with him on the subjects of conventicles and dissent; and, after the doctor's return to London, the king sent for him, and conversed with him for more than two hours together, assuring him of his favour, and telling him that he might have access to him at all times. His majesty also assured Dr. Owen that he was a friend to liberty of conscience, and was sensible that the dissenters had met with injurious treatment. At the same time the king gave him a thousand guineas, to distribute among those who had suffered most by the late severities; which

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royal bounty the doctor received with proper acknowledgments, and faithfully applied it to the objects intended. Dr. Owen had likewise some friends among the bishops, particularly Dr. Wilkins of Chester, and Dr. Barlow of Lincoln, who had been formerly his tutor. In the latter part of his life, Dr. Owen's health became very infirm, and he was often confined to his bed, or chamber; yet, whenever he was able to sit up, he would be continually writing, when not prevented by company. Finding himself grow worse, he went to Kensington for the benefit of the air, and lived there some time. From Kensington he removed to a house of his own at Ealing, where he died, on the 24th of August, 1683, in the sixty-seventh year of his age.

Dr. Owen was tall and graceful in person, of a grave and majestic countenance, and possessed a genteel deportment and manners. His temper was serene and even; his disposition liberal, generous, and friendly; and his conduct in the domestic relations was peculiarly amiable and affectionate. Of his ardent and unaffected piety, and of his firm integrity, his whole history affords sufficient evidence. To his great learning and industry his works bear abundant witness, as well as the testimonies of his biographers. Dr. Calamy says, "he was a man of universal reading, and had digested it. He was especially conversant in those sciences that are assiduous to divinity, and master of them in an unusual degree. He was reckoned the brightest ornament of the university of Oxford." The writer of his life referred to below, observes, that "he was a perfect master of the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, tongues. He was a great philosopher; and also well read in the civil law. A great historian; having a perfect comprehension of church-history in particular. He was thoroughly versed in all the Greek and Latin poets; well skilled in the rabbis, and made great use of them as there was occasion." And Anthony Wood, though he treated his memory with the most opprobrious language, yet acknowledges that "he was a person well skilled in the tongues, rabbinical learning, Jewish rites and customs; that he had a great command of his English pen, and was one of the most genteel and fairest writers who have appeared against the church of England, as handling his adversaries with far more civil, decent, and temperate, language, than many of his fiery brethren, and by confining himself wholly to the cause, without the unbecoming mixture of personal slanders and reflection." He also adds, "he had a very graceful behaviour in the pulpit, an eloquent elocution, a winning and insinuating deportment, and could, by the persuasion of his oratory, in conjunction with some other outward advantages, move and wind the affections of his admiring auditory almost as he pleased." Dr. Owen's works are very voluminous, amounting to seven volumes in folio, twenty in quarto, and about thirty in octavo. In this number are, 3. An Exposition on the Epistle to the Hebrews, 1668, 4 vols. folio. 4. A Discourse of the Holy Spirit, 1674, folio. 5. Θεολογικα; five de Natura, Ortu, Progressu, et Studio, veræ Theologiæ, 1661, 4to. 6. An Enquiry into the Original, Nature, Institution, Power, Order, and Communion, of Evangelical Churches, 1681, 4to. 7. A Vindication of the Nonconformists from the Charge of Schism, in reply to Dr. Stillingfleet, 1686, 4to. 8. An Account of the Nature of the Protestant Religion, 4to. 9. The Divine Original and Authority of the Scriptures, 1659, 8vo. 10. A Complete Collection of Sermons, and several Tracts, with Memoirs of the Author prefixed, published in 1721, folio; from which most of the above particulars are collected. See also Wood's Athen. Oxon. vol. ii. Calamy's Account of Ejected Ministers, vol. ii. and Granger's Biog. Hist. England, vol. ii.

O'WEN (Henry), a learned divine of the church of England, was the son of a gentleman in North Wales, and born at his father's house, near Dolgelly in Merionethshire, in the year 1716. He was instructed in grammar-learning at Ruthin-school in Denbighshire; and at the

age of nineteen he entered of Jesus-college, Oxford. Among the favourite subjects of his pursuit, on his first entrance upon academic studies, was that of the mathematics, which he prosecuted with great ardour and application. Having taken his degrees in arts at the statutable periods, he turned his attention to the study of physics, and was admitted to the degree of bachelor of medicine in the year 1746. For three years he practised as a physician; but being compelled, both by his feelings and his health, to relinquish that profession, his views were entirely directed to the clerical calling. We are not informed when he was admitted into holy orders; but we are told that, early in life, he was made chaplain to sir Matthew Featherstonehaugh, who presented him to the living of Torling in Essex. In the year 1748 he sent into the world his first publication, entitled "*Harmonia Trigonometrica*; or a short Treatise on Trigonometry," 8vo. In 1750, he was presented to the rectory of St. Olave, Hart Street, in the city of London, when he resigned his living of Torling. Soon after this he was appointed chaplain to the bishop of Landaff, afterwards bishop of Durham. In the year 1753, our author proceeded doctor of physics at Oxford. Dr. Owen's next publication appeared in 1755, and consisted of some excellent "Observations on the Scripture Miracles." In 1760, he entered into the matrimonial connexion with a daughter of Dr. Butts, who had been first bishop of Norwich, and afterwards of Ely. Four years after this, he published "Observations upon the Four Gospels," 8vo. which were followed, in 1766, by some valuable "Directions to young Students in Divinity." In 1769, he published his "Enquiry into the State of the Septuagint Version;" a work that afforded satisfactory evidence of the diligence and judgment with which he had prosecuted the study of sacred literature, and of the very respectable abilities which he possessed for engaging in the department of scripture criticism. He was now appointed to preach the lecture founded by the Hon. Robert Boyle; and in 1773 published the discourses which he delivered, under the title of "The Intent and Propriety of the Scripture Miracles considered and explained, in a Series of Sermons preached in the Parish Church of St. Mary-le-Bow," &c. in two volumes, 8vo. During the course of the following year, he published his "*Critica Sacra*; or a short Introduction to Hebrew Criticism," which was afterwards followed by "A Supplement," in answer to some remarks on it by Mr. Raphael Baruh, a learned Jew. In the year 1775, Dr. Owen was presented by bishop Barrington to the vicarage of Edmonton in Middlesex. In 1778, he conferred an obligation upon the learned world by the attention and accuracy which he bestowed in editing the collation of the valuable Cotton MS. of the Book of Genesis with the Vatican copy which was made by the learned Grabe in 1703, but left unpublished at his death. It is entitled "Collatio Codicis Cottoniani Geneseos cum Editione Romana, a viro Clarissimo Joanne Ernesto Grabe jam olim facta; nunc demum summâ curâ edita ab Henrico Owen, M. D. &c." What renders this collation the more important, is the circumstance, that the MS. in question, which perhaps is the most ancient in Europe, was almost entirely destroyed by the fire that happened in the Cotton library in 1731.

In 1785, Dr. Owen rendered a fresh service to the learned reader, by the care and labour which he employed in publishing the octavo edition of Xenophon's Memorabilia, left unfinished by Dr. Edward Edwards, of Jesus-college, Oxford, who had only lived to print the text and version. Some time before the appearance of the work last mentioned, he had published two "Critical Disquisitions;" the first containing some remarks on Masius's edition of the Book of Joshua; and the second, on Origen's celebrated Hexapla; which are acute and sensible, and contributed to increase the reputation of the author among biblical scholars. This piece, and his Enquiry mentioned above, proved introductory to another work

on the subject of the Old Testament scriptures; which was given to the public in 1737, under the title of "A brief Account, Historical and Critical, of the Septuagint Version of the Old Testament; to which is added, a Dissertation on the comparative Excellency of the Hebrew and Samaritan Pentateuch." In this little work, the author has concentrated much valuable information concerning the time when, the persons by whom, and the manner in which, this version was made; the evidence of its accuracy and fidelity, and of the general estimation in which it was held during a long period of years; the causes of the alterations which at different times have been made in it, &c. The last of Dr. Owen's publications, which was another useful and acceptable present to scriptural students, made its appearance in the year 1789, under the title of "The Modes of Quotation used by the Evangelical Writers explained and vindicated," 4to. In this work, the author chiefly examines those quotations which have been introduced by the evangelists, in order to point out the intimate connection between the events of the life of Christ and the prophecies recorded in the Old Testament; and he concludes with proving, that the prophecies in question were justly applied to Christ, or that they are to be considered as referring to him, rather than to subjects more nearly connected with the times and the situations of the prophets. The numerous and respectable list of subscribers by which this work was honoured, fully showed the sense entertained of Dr. Owen's merits by some of the most eminent literary characters of the age.

In the latter part of his life Dr. Owen was afflicted with a lingering illness, which carried him off on the 15th of October, 1795, in the eightieth year of his age. The proofs which he has left behind him of his solid learning, sound critical talents, and zeal for promoting the cause of sacred literature and maintaining the credit of divine revelation, as well as his piety and personal worth, entitle his name to respectful notice, and will transmit it with honour to posterity.

Besides the articles already mentioned, Dr. Owen was the author of, 12. A Collation of the Account of the Dedication of the Temple, in Bowyer's and Nichols's Origin of Printing. 13. Remarks on the Time employed in Cæsar's two Expeditions into Britain, in the second volume of the *Archæologia*. 14. He published the second edition of Rowland's *Mona Antiqua*, corrected in language and matter, and the addition of notes by the ingenious Mr. Lewis Morris. Most of these books were printed by Mr. Bowyer, who, in remembrance of the connexion between him and our author, left the doctor a legacy of a hundred pounds, and such of his Hebrew books and critical books upon the New Testament as he pleased to take. 15. Dr. Owen, likewise, had no small share in preparing for the public eye Mr. Bowyer's Conjectures on the New Testament; for the editor assures us, "that he should not have presumed to venture on a task of such importance as well as difficulty, if he had not been encouraged throughout by the unremitting labour and friendship of Dr. Owen, whose regard for the memory of Mr. Bowyer, and distinguished zeal for the interests of sacred literature, prompted him not only to enrich the volume with a considerable number of new notes, but also kindly and attentively to superintend the correction of the whole." 16. Our author also assisted Mr. Nichols in editing the quarto edition of Mr. Bowyer's Greek Testament, in 1783, as we learn from this expression in the inscription of it to Dr. Owen, "Ipsius auxilio concinnatam." *Gent. Mag.* 1778 and 1795. *New Annual Register* for 1784, 1787, and 1789.

O'WEN'S BAY (St.), a bay on the west coast of the island of Jersey, with a town or village of the same name: six miles west-north-west of St. Helier.

O'WEY, a small island of the Atlantic, near the north-west coast of Ireland. Lat. 55. 3. N. lon. 6. 21. W.

OWHARRE'E, a harbour on the west coast of Hua-

heine, one of the Society Islands, in the South Pacific Ocean. Lat. 16. 54. S. lon. 151. 8. W.

OWHYHE'E, an island in the North Pacific Ocean, discovered by Capt. Cook, Nov. 30, 1778. This is the easternmost, and by far the largest, of the group called Sandwich Islands; it is of a triangular shape, and nearly equilateral. The following particulars relating to this island are extracted from the account of it by Capt. King, who visited it again after the death of Capt. Cook, in March 1779. (See Cook's Third Voyage, vol. iii.) The angular points make the north-east and south extremities, of which the northern is in lat. 20. 17. N. lon. 204. 2. E. the eastern in lat. 19. 34. N. lon. 205. 6. E. and the southern extremity in lat. 18. 54. N. lon. 204. 15. E. and its greatest length, which lies in a direction nearly north and south, is 85 miles, its breadth is 72 miles; and it is about 255 geographical, or 293 English, miles in circumference.

The whole island is divided into six large districts: Amakooa and Aheedoo, which lie on the north-east side; Apooana and Kaoo, on the south-east; Akona and Koarra on the west. The districts of Amakooa and Aheedoo are separated by a mountain called *Mouna Kaah*, or the Mountain Kaah, which rises in three peaks, perpetually covered with snow, and may be clearly seen at forty leagues distance; its height is estimated at no less than 18,400 feet. To the north of this mountain the coast consists of high and abrupt cliffs, down which fall many beautiful cascades of water. The country rises inland with a gentle ascent, is intersected by deep narrow glens, or rather chasms, and appeared to be well cultivated, and sprinkled over with a number of villages. The Snowy Mountain is very steep, and the lower part of it covered with wood. The coast of Aheedoo, which lies to the south of Mouna Kaah, is of a moderate height, and the interior parts appear more even than the country to the north-west, and less broken by ravines. The coast to the north-east of Apooana, which forms the eastern extremity of the island, is low and flat; the acclivity of the inland parts is very gradual, and the whole country covered with cocoa-nut and bread-fruit trees. At the south-west extremity the hills rise abruptly from the sea-side, leaving but a narrow border of low ground towards the beach. We were pretty near the shore at this part of the island, and found the sides of the hills covered with a fine verdure; but the country seemed to be very thinly inhabited.

On doubling the east point of the island, we came in sight of another snowy mountain, called *Mouna Roa*, or the Extensive Mountain, which continued to be a very conspicuous object all the while we were sailing along the south-east side. It is flat at the top, making what is called by mariners table-land: the summit was constantly buried in snow; and we once saw its sides also slightly covered for a considerable way down, but the greatest part of this disappeared again in a few days. According to the tropical line of snow, as determined by Mr. Condamine, from observations taken on the Cordilleras, this mountain must be at least 16,020 feet high, which exceeds the height of the Pico de Teyde, or Peak of Teneriffe, by 724 feet, according to Dr. Heberden's computation; or 368c, according to that of the chevalier de Borda. The peaks of Mouna Kaah appeared to be about half a mile high; and, as they are entirely covered with snow, the altitude of their summits cannot be less than 18,400 feet. But it is probable that both these mountains may be considerably higher; for, in insular situations, the effects of the warm sea-air must necessarily remove the line of snow, in equal latitudes, to a greater height than where the atmosphere is chilled on all sides by an immense tract of perpetual snow.

The coast of Kaoo presents a prospect of the most horrid and dreary kind; the whole country appearing to have undergone a total change from the effects of some dreadful convulsion. The ground is every-where covered with cinders, and intersected in many places with black streaks, which seem to mark the course of a lava that has flowed,

not

not many ages back, from the mountain Roa to the shore. The southern promontory looks like the mere dregs of a volcano. The projecting head-land is composed of broken and craggy rocks, piled irregularly on one another, and terminating in sharp points. Notwithstanding the dismal aspect of this part of the island, there are many villages scattered over it, and it certainly is much more populous than the verdant mountains of Apooa. Nor is this circumstance hard to be accounted for. As these islanders have no cattle, they have consequently no use for pasturage, and therefore naturally prefer such ground as either lies more convenient for fishing, or is best suited to the cultivation of yams and plantains. Now amidst these ruins there are many patches of rich soil, which are carefully laid out in plantations; and the neighbouring sea abounds with a variety of most excellent fish, with which, as well as with other provisions, we were always plentifully supplied. The whole east side of the island, from the northern to the southern extremity, does not afford the smallest harbour or shelter for shipping.

The south-west parts of Akona are in the same state with the adjoining district of Kaoo; but farther to the north the country has been cultivated with great pains, and is extremely populous. In this part of the island is situated Karakakoo Bay. Along the coast nothing is seen but large masses of slag, and the fragments of black scorched rocks; behind which the ground rises gradually for about two miles and a half, and appears to have been formerly covered with loose burnt stones. These the natives have taken the pains of clearing away, frequently to the depth of three feet and upwards; which labour, great as it is, the fertility of the soil amply repays. Here, in a rich ashy mould, they cultivate sweet potatoes, and the cloth-plant. The fields are inclosed with stone fences, and are interperfed with groves of cocoa-nut trees. On the rising ground beyond these the bread-fruit trees are planted, and flourish with the greatest luxuriance. Koara extends from the westernmost point of the northern extremity of the island; the whole coast between them forming an extensive bay, called Toe-yah-yah, which is bounded to the north by two very conspicuous hills. Toward the bottom of this bay, there is foul corally ground, extending upwards of a mile from the shore, without which the soundings are regular, with good anchorage, in twenty fathoms. The country, as far as the eye could reach, seemed fruitful and well inhabited, the soil being in appearance of the same kind with the district of Kaoo; but no fresh water is to be got here.

A party advanced into the land, to the distance of three or four miles from the bay; they found the country as before described; the hills afterwards rose with a more sudden ascent, which brought them to the extensive plantations that terminate the view of the country, as seen from the ships. These plantations consist of the tarrow or eddy-root, and the sweet potatoe, with plants of the cloth-tree, neatly set-out in rows. The walls that separate them are made of the loose burnt stones which are got in clearing the ground; and, being entirely concealed by sugar-canes, planted close on each side, make the most beautiful fences that can be conceived. The party stopped for the night at the second hut they found amongst the plantations, about six or seven miles, as they estimated the distance, from the ships. The prospect from this spot was very delightful; they saw the ships in the bay before them; to the left a continued range of villages, interperfed with groves of cocoa-nut trees, spreading along the sea-shore; a thick wood stretching out of sight behind them; and to the right an extent of ground laid out in regular and well-cultivated plantations, as far as the eye could reach. Near this spot, at a distance from any other dwelling, the natives pointed out to them the residence of an hermit, who, as they said, had formerly been a great chief and warrior, but had long ago quitted the shores of the island, and now never stirred from his cottage. They prostrated themselves as they approached

him, and afterwards presented to him a part of such provisions as they had brought with them. His behaviour was easy and cheerful; he scarcely showed any marks of astonishment at the sight of our people; and, though pressed to accept of some of our curiosities, he declined the offer, and soon withdrew to his cottage. He was described as by far the oldest person any of the party had ever seen, and judged to be, by those who computed his age at the lowest, upwards of 100 years old.

The party still proceeded, and entered a thick wood, through which their progress was slow; and, after they had advanced about ten miles in the wood, they found themselves on a sudden within sight of the sea, and at no great distance from it. They therefore retraced their steps for six or seven miles to an unoccupied hut, where they had left three of the natives and two of their own people, and the small stock that remained of their provisions. Their provisions being exhausted, they found it advisable to return to some of the cultivated parts of the island, and quitted the wood by the same path by which they had entered it. Having obtained a fresh supply, they marched along the skirts of the wood for six or seven miles, and entered it again, pursuing their course for the first three miles through forests of lofty spice-trees. In passing through the woods, they found many canoes half finished, and here and there a hut; but saw none of the inhabitants. In their farther progress, they experienced the want of water, as, in a course of twenty miles, they had met with no springs. At length they determined to return to the ships, after taking a view of the country from the highest trees which the place afforded. From this elevation they saw themselves surrounded on all sides with wood towards the sea; they could not distinguish, in the horizon, the sky from the water; and between them and the Snowy Mountain, which they had once intended to ascend and examine, was a valley about seven or eight miles broad, above which the mountain appeared only as a hill of a moderate size. Finding themselves about nine miles north-east of the ships, they directed their march toward them through the plantations. As they passed along, they did not observe a single spot of ground that was capable of improvement left unplanted; and, indeed, it appeared, from their account, hardly possible for the country to be cultivated to greater advantage for the purposes of the inhabitants, or made to yield them a larger supply of necessaries for their subsistence. They were surprised to meet with several fields of hay; and, on enquiring to what use it was applied, were told it was designed to cover the young tarrow grounds, in order to preserve them from being scorched by the sun. They saw a few scattered huts among the plantations, which served for occasional shelter to the labourers; but no villages at a greater distance than four or five miles from the sea. Near one of them, which was situated about four miles from the bay, they discovered a cave forty fathoms in length, three in breadth, and of the same height. It was open at each end; its sides were fluted as if wrought with a chisel; and the surface was glazed over, perhaps by the action of fire. There are supposed to be on this island about 150,000 inhabitants. So long as the name of Capt. Cook shall be remembered, this island will not be forgotten; for he here fell a victim to a strange concatenation of events. See Cook, vol. v.

We have the following account of the inhabitants of this island in Ellis's Authentic Narrative. "The men are above the middle-size, stout, well-made, and fleshy, but not fat. Corpulency is not altogether so great a mark of distinction in these as in the Society Isles; and tallness, for which the Otaheiteans have great partiality, is also overlooked. Their colour is mostly of a brown-olive. The women are in general masculine, though there are some delicately made; and the voice of them all is soft and feminine. The hair, both of the head and beard, is black; that of the head, the men wear in the form of a helmet, that is, a long frizzled ridge from the forehead to the

the neck, the sides being much shorter. This fashion seems to prevail only among the principal people, that of the inferior sort being of an equal length in every part. Most of them were very desirous of parting with their beards, which, they said, were disagreeable and troublesome; and were fond of being shaved by our people. Some of the priests wore their beards long, and would not on any account part with them. The women wear their hair long before, but very short behind, which is not the most becoming mode; and, like those of the Friendly Isles, they have a way of rendering it of different colours, red, yellow, and brown. 'The features of both sexes are good, and we saw some of the females who might really be called fine women. Their teeth are even, and perfectly white. In general, they seem to be very healthy, and we observed several who appeared to be of great age.'

In the year 1812, we saw at Plymouth a native of Owhyhee, son of a man of rank there, who came over to see this country. He came in the Isaac Todd free ship, from Nootka Sound, with peltry, for London. He much amused the Plymouth audience at the theatre, by the expressive astonishment he evinced while the performance was going on. He has the exact countenance, and bushy hair, described above, and as expressed in the plates of Capt. Cook's last voyage.

"The custom of tattooing prevails greatly among these people, but the men have a much larger share of it than the women; many have one half their body, from head to foot, marked in this manner, which gives them a most striking appearance. It is done with great regularity, and looks remarkably neat: some have only an arm marked in this manner, others a leg; some again have both arm and leg, and others only the hand. The women are, for the most part, marked upon the tip of their tongue; but of these we saw but few. Both sexes have a particular mark, according to the district in which they live; or it is rather the mark of the *arce*, or principal man, under whose jurisdiction they more immediately are.

"Both men and women are very cleanly in their persons; the latter wash their whole body in fresh-water twice, and sometimes three times, a-day. There are no people in the world who indulge themselves more in their sensual appetites; in fact, they carry it to a most scandalous and shameful degree, and in a manner not proper to be mentioned.

"Their clothing consists of cloth of different kinds: that worn by the men, which is called *marro*, is about half a yard wide, and four yards long; that of the women three quarters of a yard wide, and of the same length as the men's: this they call *pah-ouwa*; they both wear it round their middle, but the men pass it between their legs. The principal ornaments of the men are the feather caps and cloaks; some of the latter reach down to their heels, and have a most magnificent appearance. They are made for the most part of red and yellow feathers, which are tied upon fine net-work. The women too have their share in the ornamental way; that which they value most is the *orai*; this is a kind of ruff or necklace, made of red, green, black, and yellow, feathers, curiously put together, and in most elegant patterns. They never think themselves dressed without one or two of these round their necks, and those who can afford it wear many. Others again are composed of small variegated shells, disposed in a very neat manner; and some consist of several rows of twisted hair, with a piece of carved wood or bone, highly polished, the bottom part forming a curve. The higher the quality of the wearer, the greater is the size of the wood or bone, and the quantity of the twisted hair. The next thing is the *poo-remah*, or bracelet; the most valuable are made of boar's tusks fastened together side by side with a piece of string, by means of a hole drilled through the middle; the larger the tusks, the greater the value. Sometimes two shells tied round the wrists, with twisted or braided hair, serve the purpose

of bracelets; but even in this case they show great nicety, being particularly careful to match them as near as possible. They were prodigiously fond of those we gave them, which were only a few beads, secured by thread upon a strip of scarlet cloth, and made to button round the wrist. So much did they at first value them, that a small hatchet and one of these would purchase a hog, which without it could not have been bought for three large hatchets. The women were perpetually teasing the men to accept of their various articles for these bracelets; at least one of them was always to make a part of the price."

While Capt. Vancouver was at Owhyhee, a formal cession of the island was made to the British. This strange story is related at great length in the 3d vol. of his Voyage round the World. On the 25th of February, the king, with the chiefs of many of the districts of the island, assembled "in grand council" on-board the Discovery; all the officers of the two ships being present. "The king, Tamaahmaah, opened the business in a speech, which he delivered with great moderation and equal firmness. He explained the reasons that had induced him to offer the island to the protection of Great Britain; and recounted the numerous advantages that himself, the chiefs, and the people, were likely to derive by the surrender they were about to make." Several other chiefs likewise spoke. In all their speeches, their religion, government, and domestic economy, were noticed; and it was clearly understood that no interference was to take place in any of these respects; that the chiefs and priests were to officiate with the same authority as before, and that no alteration in these particulars was in any degree thought of or intended. The preliminaries being fully discussed, the king repeated his former proposition, which was now unanimously approved; and the whole party declared their assent by saying that they were no longer *Tanato no Owhyhee*, but *Tanato no Brittanee*; "no longer men of Owhyhee, but men of Britain." This being made known to the people in the surrounding canoes, the same expressions were repeated by them. Some officers were then sent on-shore, who "displayed the British colours, and took possession of the island in the name of his majesty." The ships now fired a salute, and the following inscription on copper was deposited at the royal residence: "On the 25th of February, 1794, Tamaahmaah, king of Owhyhee, in council with the principal chiefs of the island assembled on-board his Britannic majesty's sloop Discovery in Karakakooa-bay, and in the presence of George Vancouver, commander of the said sloop; Lieut. Peter Puget, commander of his said majesty's armed tender the Chatham; and the other officers of the Discovery; after due consideration, unanimously ceded the said island of Owhyhee to his Britannic majesty, and acknowledged themselves to be subjects of Great Britain."

How far captain Vancouver was authorized or empowered, by circumstances, to receive these islanders into the protection of the British empire, or what obligations his having so done has imposed on this country, does not appear to us. We have related the business as it happened, and shall leave the reader to make his own comment.

It was not till the present year that we heard any thing of an intention to convert these subjects of his Britannic majesty to the national religion. The following is from the Times newspaper of Jan. 6, 1820. "A missionary-establishment is about to be made on the island of Owhyhee, &c. The natives have already made very considerable advances in civilization. Their king wrote a very legible hand, a specimen of which we have seen. His prime-minister was named Mr. Pitt; his minister of justice was tattooed in one half of his body, the other half was of a bright and shining colour, the natural complexion of the natives. He would sit with great dignity and hear the parties, plaintiff and defendant; and to whichever of the parties he turned the sable side of his countenance judgment was given. The king, in imitation

tion of European monarchs, gave a pompous entertainment on his birth-day. An American ship having been seen off the island, a canoe came alongside, and the captain and hands were all much astonished to hear the natives speak the English language. The canoe contained no less a personage than Mr. Pitt. He came on-board, and informed the captain of the character of his guest; he stated, that he came by the orders of his royal master, in whose name he demanded the donation of a bottle of rum, which was to be drank upon his birth-day."

The above is probably copied from an American paper: the following (*Times*, Apr. 1.) is confessedly from the Boston Centinel: "We have seen letters from Owhyhee, which confirm the death of the celebrated king Tamaah-maah, and that the event had occasioned so much disunion among his successors and officers as to threaten a revolution and civil war. The old king left upwards of 150,000 dollars in specie in his coffers; the division of which was also a bone of contention. We have had reports, that Capt. Downes, in the Macedonian, would visit this island. Would to heaven he would, and take possession as an arbiter of the differences which so unhappily reign here. It ought to be a colony of the United States." We are sorry we cannot complete this article, by informing our readers what measures have been taken by the ministers of George the Fourth, for the defence and preservation of this most valuable colony!

The French navigator, Perouse, describes, in his voyage, a reef of shoal-banks, a few degrees north of Owhyhee, where he suggested that a pearl-fishery might be established to advantage; and he states, that the French frigates sailed over them. Some commercial persons, in consequence, lately (1813) engaged divers, and visited the spot; but were astonished to find not only that no vessel can now sail over these banks, but that, though of large extent, they afford but two or three feet water, and in many places exhibit verdant spots above water. This change has been ascribed solely to the unremitting labours of polype and coral insects; and confirms the hypothesis, that many other of the groupes of islands that stud this vast ocean derive their origin from similar causes.

O'WING, *part.* [from *owe*. A practice has long prevailed among writers; to use *owing*, the active participle of *owe*, in a passive sense, for *owed* or *due*. Of this impropriety some writers were aware; and, having no quick sense of the force of English words, have used *due* in the sense of consequence or imputation, which by other writers is only used of *debt*. We say that money is *due* to us; they say likewise, the effect is *due* to the cause. *Johnson*.] Consequential.—This was *owing* to an indifference to the pleasures of life, and an aversion to the pomps of it. *Atterbury*.—Due as a debt. Here *due* is undoubtedly the proper word.—The debt, *owing* from one country to the other, cannot be paid without real effects sent thither to that value. *Locke*.

You are both too bold;
I'll teach you all what's *owing* to your queen. *Dryden*.
Imputable to, as an agent.—If we estimate things, what in them is *owing* to nature, and what to labour, we shall find in most of them $\frac{22}{100}$ to be on the account of labour. *Locke*.—The custom of particular impeachments was not limited any more than that of struggles between nobles and commons; the ruin of Greece was *owing* to the former, as that of Rome was to the latter. *Swift*.

OWL, *f.* [ule, Sax. *hulote*, Fr. and Scott. *Johnson*.—Icel. *yla* or *ylgia*, an owl, from *yla*, to cry out. *Todd*.] A bird that flies about in the night and catches mice.—Sick was the fun, the *owl* forsook his bower. *Pope's Dunciad*.

Return to her!
No! rather I abjure all roofs, and chuse
To be a comrade with the wolf and *owl*. *Shakespeare*.
Then lady Cynthia, mistress of the shade,
Goes, with the fashionable *owls*, to bed. *Young*.

OWL's HEAD', a cape on the south-east coast of Nova Scotia. Lat. 44. 42. N. lon. 62. 50. W.

OWL-LIGHT, *f.* Glimmering light; twilight.—Church-history making an important part of our theological studies, the antiquarian, who delights to solace himself in the benighted days of monkish *owl-light*, sometimes passes for the divine. *Warburton's Charge to the Clergy*, 1761.

OWL-LIKE, *adj.* Resembling an owl in look or quality.—Now like an *owl-like* watchman he must walk. *Donne's Sat. 2.*

At this deep Sidrophel look'd wife;
And, staring round with *owl-like* eyes,
He put his face into a posture
Of sapience, and began to bluffer. *Hudibras*.

OWL'LAH, a town of Hindoostan, in Rohilcund: twelve miles east of Biffowia.

OWL'LET, *f.* An owl; a little owl:
Adder's fork, and blind-worm's sting,
Lizard's leg, and *owl's* wing. *Shakespeare's Macbeth*.

OW'LER, *f.* One who carries contraband goods: in the legal sense, one that carries out *wool* illicitly. Perhaps from the necessity of carrying on an illicit trade by night: but rather, perhaps, a corruption of *wooller*, by a colloquial neglect of the *v*, such as is often observed in *woman*, and by which *goodwife* is changed to *goody*. *Wooler*, *owler*.—By running goods, these graceless *owlers* gain. *Swift*.

OW'LING, *f.* in law, is the offence of transporting wool or sheep out of the kingdom, to the detriment of its staple manufacture. This was forbidden at common law, and more particularly by stat. 11 Edw. III. c. 1. when the importance of our woollen manufacture was first attended to; and there are now many later statutes relating to this offence, the most useful and principal of which are those enacted in the reign of queen Elizabeth, and since. The stat. 8 Eliz. c. 3. makes the transportation of live sheep, or embarking them on-board any ship, for the first offence forfeiture of goods, and imprisonment for a year, and that at the end of the year the left hand shall be cut off in some public market, and shall be there nailed up in the openest place; and the second offence is felony. The statutes 12 Car. II. c. 32. and 7 & 8 Will. III. c. 28. make the exportation of wool, sheep, or fullers-earth, liable to pecuniary penalties, and the forfeiture of the interest of the ship and cargo by the owners, if privy; and confiscation of goods, and three years imprisonment to the master and all the mariners. And the stat. 4 Geo. I. c. 11. (amended and farther enforced by 12 Geo. II. c. 21. and 19 Geo. II. c. 34.) makes it transportation for seven years, if the penalties be not paid.

OW'LISH, *adj.* Resembling an owl.—Every one, while it lasted, was very gay and busy in the morning, and very *owlish* and very tipsy at night. *Gray to Dr. Warton*, 1749.

OWN, *f.* [aȝen, Sax. *eygen*, Dut. *aigan*, Icel. from *eigia*, to possess.] This is a word of no other use than as it is added to the possessive pronouns, my, thy, his, our, your, their. It seems to be a substantive; as, *my own*, *my peculiar*: but is, in reality, the participle passive of the verb *owe*, in the participle *owe* or *own*: *my own*; the thing *owned* by, or belonging to, me:

Inachus, in his cave alone,
Wept not another's losses, but his *own*. *Dryden*.

It is added generally by way of emphasis or corroboration.—Every nation made gods of their *own*, and put them in high places. 2 *Kings*, xvii. 29.

I yet never was forsworn,
Scarcely have coveted what was *my own*. *Shakespeare*.
Will she thy linen wash, or hosen darn,
And knit thee gloves made of her *own* spun yarn. *Gay*.
Passion and pride were to her soul unknown,
Convinc'd that virtue only is our *own*. *Pope*.
Sometimes

Sometimes it is added to note opposition or contradistinction; domestic, not foreign: mine, his, or your's; not another's.—There's nothing sillier than a crafty knave out-witted, and beaten at his *own* play. *L'Estrange*.

These toils abroad, these tumults with his *own*,
Fell in the revolution of one year. *Daniel*.

King's or *Queen's own*, a term which has been attached to some particular regiments ever since the Revolution in 1688. Thus the Fourth, which landed with William III. is always called the Fourth, or King's Own, and the Second Regiment of Foot, the Queen's Own. We have had instances, during the late war, of militia battalions having adopted the term of King's Own. This occurred when his late majesty visited Portsmouth after the battle of the 1st of June, 1794. The marquis of Buckingham (who was colonel of the militia of that name, and which was doing duty there) solicited permission for his corps to become royal, and to bear the appellation of King's Own. The facings, which before were yellow, were consequently changed to garter-blue. By which circumstance, the county of Buckingham sends out a very fine corps of men, who, being called the King's Own, and thereby approaching the regulars without actually being so, seem to have left their ancient comrades of the militia, without obtaining any footing in the line. The Staffordshire militia regiment (which had often done duty at Windsor, and was humorously called his majesty's yellow guards) also changed its facings to royal blue, with the same mark of distinction. The emblem of these corps (says Mr. James) ought to be Mahomet's coffin, and the motto *Medio tutissimus*. The marines have also had their facings changed from white to blue, but they are not called the King's Own. *James's Mil. Dict.*

To O'WN, *v. a.* To acknowledge; to avow for one's own:

When you come, find me out,
And *own* me for your son. *Dryden's Cleom.*

To possess; to claim: to hold by right.—Tell me, ye Trojans, for that name you *own*. *Dryden*.

Others on earth o'er human race preside;
Of these the chief the care of nations *own*,
And guard with arms divine the British throne. *Pope*.

To avow.—Nor hath it been thus only amongst the most civilized nations; but the barbarous Indians likewise have *owned* that tradition. *Wilkins*.

I'll venture out alone,
Since you, fair princess, my protection *own*. *Dryden*.

To confess; not to deny.—Make this truth so evident, that those who are unwilling to *own* it may yet be ashamed to deny it. *Tillotson*.—It must be *owned*, that, generally speaking, parents are never more fond of their daughters than when they see them too fond of themselves. *Law*.

O'WNER, *f.* One to whom any thing belongs; master; rightful possessor.—A freehold, though but in ice and snow, will make the *owner* pleased in the possession, and stout in the defence of it. *Addison's Freeholder*.—Victory hath not made us insolent, nor have we taken advantage to gain any thing beyond the honour of restoring every one's right to their just *owners*. *Atterbury*.

What is this wit, which must our cares employ?
The *owner's* wife, that other men enjoy. *Pope*.

O'WNERSHIP, *f.* Property; rightful possession.—In a real action, the proximate cause is the property or *ownership* of the thing in controversy. *Ayliffe's Parergon*.

OW'RAM (North), a township of Yorkshire, in the West Riding, with 4887 inhabitants, including 1332 employed in trade and manufactures: three miles south-east of Bradford.

OW'RAM (South), a township of Yorkshire, in the West Riding, with 3148 inhabitants, including 1404 em-

ployed in trade and manufactures: two miles south-east of Halifax.

OW'RE, a village of Dorsetshire, in the Isle of Purbeck, four miles north-east of Corfe. This was formerly the chief, if not the only, quay for exporting stone, now enjoyed by Swanwich. Near it are several stone-quarries. Two islands in the bay of Pool belong to this hamlet; viz. Furfley, and St. Helen's, or Green-Island; the latter of which was formerly joined to it by a bridge, whose ruins are visible. It consists of about twenty acres; and on it formerly was a chapel.

OW'RE, a village in Hampshire, near Calshot-castle, I. W.—A village in Shropshire, north-east of Atherley.

OW'RESBY, a village in Lincolnshire, between Normanby and the river Ankaam.

OWRUC'ZE, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Kiev: 96 miles north-west of Kiev, and 310 west of Warsaw.

OW'RUM (North and South), villages in the parish of Halifax, Yorkshire.

OW'SCRAW, a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: twenty miles west of Rotas.

OWSH, a town of Turkestan, on a river which runs into the Sihon: thirty miles south-south-east of Andegan.

OW'THORN, a village near Hull in Yorkshire. The tower of the church, better known by the name of the Sister Churches, an ancient landmark on the coast of Holderness, being undermined by the sea, fell with a tremendous crash, on the night of Feb. 16, 1816; at which time the river Humber had risen to an height unequalled since Jan. 25, 1788. The body of the church had been taken down and rebuilt at Rimswell in 1801.

OX, *f.* plur. *oxen*, [oxa, Sax. *oxe*, Dan.] The general name for black cattle. See the article BOS.—I saw the river Clitumnus, celebrated by the poets for making cattle white that drink of it. The inhabitants of that country have still the same opinion, and have a great many *oxen* of a whitish colour to confirm them in it. *Addison*.

Sheep run not half so tim'rous from the wolf,
Or horse or *oxen* from the leopard,
As you fly from your oft-subdued slaves. *Shakespeare*.

A castrated bull.—Although there be naturally more males than females, yet artificially, that is, by making geldings, *oxen*, and wethers, there are fewer. *Graunt*.

The field is spacious I design to sow
With *oxen* far unfit to draw the plough. *Dryden*.

OX'-BANE, *f.* A plant. *Ainsworth*.

OX'-BOW, *f.* The yoke in which oxen are confined to labour.

OX-CHEEK, *f.* One half of an ox's head.

OX-EYE, *f.* in sea-language, a name given by seamen to those dreadful storms that are sometimes met with on the coast of Guinea; for at first it appears in the form of an ox's eye, and not much bigger; but it descends with such celerity, that in a very little space of time, and often before they can prepare themselves for it, it seems to them to overspread the whole hemisphere; and, at the same time, forces the air with so much violence, that the ships are sometimes scattered several ways, and sometimes are sunk downright.

OX'-EYE, *f.* A plant. See BUPHTHALMUM.

Bring corn-flax, tulips, and Adonis' flower,
Fair *ox-eye*, goldy-locks, and columbine. *B. Jonson*.

OX-EYE of old Authors. See ANTHEMIS.

OX-EYE DAISY. See CHRYSANTHEMUM.

OX-EYED, *adj.* Having large or full eyes, like those of an ox.—Homer useth that epithet of *ox-eyed*, in describing Juno, because a round black eye is the best. *Burton's Anat. of Mel.*

OX'-FEET, *f.* A term applied to the feet of horses, when the horn of the hind-feet cleaves just in the middle of the fore-part of the hoof, from the coronet to the shoe; they

they are not common, but very troublesome, and often make a horse halt.

OX'-FLY. See *TABANUS bovinus*.

OX'-GALL, f. The gall, or bile, of the ox; a substance much used by painters, and occasionally for other purposes.

It had been long a desideratum to find out a method of preparing ox-gall for the use of painters, so as to avoid the disagreeable smell which it contracts by keeping in a liquid state, and at the same time to preserve its useful properties. Mr. Richard Cathery, of Mead's Row, near the Asylum, has invented a method of doing it with very little expense, which will be to those who use gall a great saving, as it will prevent it from putrifying, or breeding maggots. Mr. C. communicated his process to the Society of Arts in the Adelphi, who, at their session in May 1810, voted him a gratuity of ten guineas.

The following is Mr. Cathery's process for preparing the ox-gall in a concentrated state: Take a gall fresh from the ox, and put it in a basin: let it stand all night to settle; then pour it off from the sediment into a clean earthen mug, and set it in a saucepan of boiling water over the fire, taking care that none of the water gets into the mug. Let it boil till it is quite thick; then take it out, and spread it on a plate or dish, and set it before the fire to evaporate; and, when as dry as you can get it, put it into small pots, and tie papers over their tops to keep the dust from it. One gall, thus prepared, will serve an artist a long time, as it will keep a great number of years. It will be a convenient article for use, as a small cup of it may be placed in the same box which contains other colours, where it will be always ready. The qualities of gall are well known to artists in water-colours, particularly to those who colour prints, as many colours will not, without gall, work free on such paper, on account of the oil that is used in the printing-ink. The artists who make drawings in water-colours also use gall in the water which they mix their colour with, as it clears away that greasiness which arises from moist hands upon paper, and makes the colour to work clear and bright. This preparation is ready for use in a few minutes, all that is necessary being to dissolve about the size of a pea of it in a table-spoonful of water. It is also of great use to house-keepers, sailors, and others, to clean woollen clothes from grease, tar, &c. and will be found advantageous for many other purposes.

Accompanying the communication to the Society, there were certificates from Mr. Bayfield and Mr. Edwards, both botanical colourers; stating, that they have used the ox-gall prepared by Mr. Cathery, and find it to answer better than gall in a liquid state; that this preparation is free from disagreeable smell, and is much cheaper, as one ox-gall thus prepared will last one person for two years, and be as fresh as if just taken from the ox. A certificate was received also from Mr. James Stewart, St. Martin's-street, Leicester-square, stating, that he lately belonged to the *Vestal* frigate, and that he took out with him, in a voyage to Newfoundland, a large pot of the prepared ox-gall for the purpose of washing his greasy clothes for two years; that he found it very serviceable, and to keep its virtue as well as the first day.

OX'-GANG of Land, f. Ordinarily taken for fifteen acres. It is sometimes called *oxgate*; and, in the north, corruptly, *oxfen*.—A carucate of land contains 100 acres; eight *ox-gangs* make a carucate; and every *ox-gang* contains 15 acres. *Kelham's Domesday Book Illustr.*

OX'-GOAD, f. The pointed rod with which oxen are driven in their work.—Shamgar slew of the Philistines six hundred men with an *ox-goad*. *Jud.* iii. 31.

Mr. Maundrell observes, that in the Holy Land they use, in ploughing, goads of an extraordinary size. Upon measuring of several, he found them about eight feet long, and at the bigger end six inches in circumference. They were armed at the smaller end with a sharp prick

for driving the oxen, and at the other end with a small spade, or paddle of iron, strong and massy, for cleansing the plough from the clay that encumbers it in working. "May we not from hence conjecture, (says he,) that it was with such a goad as one of these that Shamgar made that prodigious slaughter related of him in the above quotation. I am confident that whoever should see one of these instruments, would judge it to be a weapon, not less fit, perhaps fitter, than a sword for such an execution. Goads of this sort I saw always used hereabouts, and also in Syria: and the reason is, because the same single person both drives the oxen, and also holds and manages the plough; which makes it necessary to use such a goad as is above described, to avoid the encumbrance of two instruments." *Journey from Aleppo to Jerusalem*, p. 110.

OX'-HARROW, f. A very large harrow, called in some counties a *drag*.

OX'-HEAD, f. The head of an ox:

I'd set an *ox-head* to your lion's hide,
And make a monster of you.

Shakespeare.

OX'-HEAL, f. A plant.

OX'-HIDE, f. The skin of an ox. On the artifice connected with an ox's hide, by which plenty of land was said to have been obtained for the founding or building of Carthage and other places, see the Gentleman's Magazine for 1771. p. 500.

OX'-LIKE, adj. Resembling an ox in look or quality.—With *ox-like* eyes. *Pope's Dunciad*.

I made the mighty elephant,
Who, *ox-like*, feeds on every herb and plant. *Sandys.*

OX'-LIP, f. [*oxan-rhippa*, Sax. this word should therefore be written *ox-slip*.] The same with *cow-slip*. See *PRIMULA*.—The cowslip then they couch, and the *ox-slip*, for her meet. *Drayton's Polyolb.*

A bank whereon the wild-thyme blows,
Where *ox-lip* and the nodding violet grows. *Shakespeare.*

OX MOUNTAIN, a mountain of Ireland, in the county of Sligo: ten miles west-south-west of Sligo.

OX'-STALL, f. A stand for oxen.

OX'-TONGUE, f. A plant. See *PICRIS*.

OX'ALATS, f. in chemistry, are combinations of the oxalic acid with the bases of salts.

OXALIC ACID, a vegetable acid, naturally formed in the *Oxalis acetosella*, or wood-sorrel, from which it takes its name. See the article *CHEMISTRY*, vol. iv. p. 165, 329.

OXALIDI AFFINIS. See *OXALIS*.

OX'ALIS, f. [from *αλς*, Gr. acid.] **WOOD-SORREL**; in botany, a genus of the class decandria, order pentagynia; natural order of grinales, (gerania, *Juss.*) Generic characters.—Calyx: perianthium five-parted, acute, very short, permanent. Corolla: five-parted, often cohering by the claws, erect, obtuse, emarginate: border spreading. Stamina: filaments ten, capillary, (awl-shaped, *Jacquin*.) erect; the outer ones shorter. Antheræ roundish, grooved. Pistillum: germen five-cornered, superior; styles five, filiform, the length of the stamens; stigmas blunt. Pericarpium: capsule five-cornered, five-celled, ten-valved, (five-valved, *Jacquin*.) gaping at the corners longitudinally. Seeds roundish, flying out-covered with a fleshy elastic aril. Capsule in some short, with solitary seeds: in others long, with many seeds: the filaments of most coalesce at the base.—*Essential Character*.—Calyx five parted; petals five; often connected at the base; capsule five-celled, five-cornered, opening at the corners. Seeds arilled.

This curious and pretty genus, of which only thirteen species are found in the first edition of the *Species Plantarum*, is augmented to twice that number in the *Syst. Veg.* ed. 14. The discoveries of recent botanists, at the Cape of Good Hope, have added a much greater number to the original stock. *Jacquin*, in a valuable quarto monograph on the genus, describes 96. Willdenow reduces them

them to 93, and of these 58 are, or have been, cultivated in the Royal Gardens at Kew. The fruit in many of the species is unknown; but in those that are known, the capsule is more or less quinqueangular, seldom five-winged, cylindric or ovate, generally villose, five-celled, and longitudinally five-valved. The seeds in some very few, in others many, in a longitudinal row lying over each other, roundish, somewhat compressed, and transversely wrinkled. Each seed is inclosed in a white coriaceous pellucid and very-shining pellicle, which is a sort of aril. This aril becomes dry in the ripe seed, and then separates with a considerable elastic force into two cohering valves, sets the seed free, and, together with it, is violently cast forth at the opening angles of the capsule. The capsules then dry and contract. The aril retains the wrinkles of the seed impressed upon it. Linnæus first gave the name of *Oxalis* to this genus, in his *Hortus Cliffortianus*; and the name has been adopted by most modern botanists. The *oxalis* of Pliny, however, seems to be a species of *rumex*, *lapathum*, or dock; and probably *Rumex acetosella*, or common sorrel. The older botanists, and Haller, Scopoli, and Allioni, among the moderns, name the genus, with more judgment, *Oxys*, Pliny having described the *Oxys* as having ternate leaves; he probably means our *Oxalis corniculata*, which is a native of Italy. In deference, however, to Linnæus and his followers, the name of *Oxalis* is here adopted.

Of the ninety-six species here set down from Jacquin's fine work on this genus, two only are natives of Europe, one of the East Indies, thirteen of America, and all the rest of the Cape of Good Hope, that inexhaustible treasury of beautiful plants.

I. With many-flowered peduncles. 1. Caulescent.

1. *Oxalis pentantha*, or five-flowered wood-forrel: stem upright; leaflets obovate; styles very short. Root branched. Stem a foot and a half high, round, branched, the thickness of a pigeon's quill; when old, brownish, smooth; when young, pubescent. Branches the same. Leaves alternate, approximating at the ends of the branches, ternate. Petiole not jointed at the base, slender, hirsute, about an inch in length. Leaves obovate or oval, rounded, villose at the edge, dotted on both sides, and rough with very short hairs, petioled; the lateral ones generally emarginate; the middle one larger, on a longer petiole, and for the most part quite entire. Peduncles not jointed at the base, axillary, solitary, filiform, hirsute, the length of the leaves, twice bifid at top, five-flowered; corolla three times as long as the calyx, bell-shaped, spreading very much at top, rounded, yellow. Native of the Caraccas in South America.

2. *Oxalis rhombifolia*, or rhomb-leaved wood-forrel: stem upright; leaflets rhomboid; styles very long. Resembles the preceding, except in the length of the style; and inhabits the same place.

3. *Oxalis Plumieri*: stem upright; leaflets oblong; peduncles umbelliferous. Stem round, a foot high. Jacquin has changed Linnæus's name of *frutescens*, this species having the appearance perhaps of becoming something shrubby at bottom only in common with the two former and the next succeeding species; but it does not seem that any *Oxalis* is really frutescent. This is a native of the Caribbee islands and Guiana; discovered by Plumier; and afterwards found growing plentifully at Vera Cruz by Dr. Houttoun, who sent it to England. Miller says it rises with a shrubby stalk a foot and a half high, sending out several slender branches. Leaves in pairs or threes, on short petioles; peduncles near two inches long; each sustaining four or five yellow flowers, with the petals not much longer than the calyx: each flower, being on a crooked pedicel, hangs down.

4. *Oxalis barrelieri*: stem upright; leaflets oblong; peduncles bifid, racemed; styles equal. Root branched, annual. Stem somewhat villose, round, the thickness of

a reed at the base, dusky at bottom, a foot and half high, putting forth many alternate branches below. It flowers in the stove from May to October. Native of the Caraccas and Guiana. Mr. Miller says it grows naturally in the Brazils; plants having come up in plenty, in a tub of earth which came thence. According to him, it seldom rises more than three or four inches high; the leaflets are large and hairy, on long foot-stalks: the flowers rise immediately from the root, on scapes the same length with the leaves, bifid, and supporting two pretty-large red flowers.

5. *Oxalis rosea*, or rose-flowered wood-forrel: stem upright; leaflets obcordate; peduncles divided, racemed. Native of Chili, in moist places.

6. *Oxalis conorrhiza*, or conic-rooted wood-forrel: stem upright; leaflets obcordate; peduncles subbiflorous. Root perennial, turbinate, putting forth capillary fibrils from the side, near an inch thick at top, ending in a sharp point at bottom, fleshy, dusky-ash coloured. Stem round, somewhat scaly, putting forth from the top several leaves and several branches or stems, erect, round, slender, white, villose, pale-green, about nine inches long. Leaves alternate, ternate. Native of Paraguay, in the vast plain to the northward of the Rio de la Plata. Observed by Feuillée with the preceding and two next species.

7. *Oxalis crenata*, or notch-petalled wood-forrel: stem upright; leaflets obcordate; peduncles umbelliferous; petals crenate. Root annual, fusiform, putting forth many fibrils, half an inch thick at top, pale-green. Stem round, two feet high, branched, half an inch thick at the base, pale-green, full of an acid juice. Leaves alternate, ternate. Native of Peru. It seems to be wholly smooth. About Lima it is generally cultivated in gardens, and is used as sorrel.

8. *Oxalis Dillenii*: stem upright; leaflets obcordate; peduncles subumbelliferous; petals emarginate. Stem round, branched, half a foot high, villose. Leaves scattered, ternate. Native of Carolina. It flowers here in June and July. Cultivated in Sherard's garden at Eltham, before 1732.

9. *Oxalis stricta*, or upright wood-forrel: stem upright; leaflets obcordate; peduncles umbelliferous; petals quite entire. Root perennial, creeping, round, putting out capillary fibres at the knots, branched. Stems from the root, as it creeps along, several, roundish, slender, somewhat villose, purplish, finally branched, half a foot high and more, upright; but, being weak, often lying down; annual. Swartz observes, that it varies with a stiffer and weaker stem, upright or declining; so that it is scarcely any thing more than a variety of *O. corniculata*.

Mr. Salisbury describes his *O. ambigua* (which is the name he gives to this species) as having a creeping stem, ternate leaves, on half-round petioles without stipules, emarginate leaflets, the petals obovate, quite entire; styles the height of the longer filaments, and spreading. Mr. S. remarks, that, though the primary stems in some degree answer to the definition which Linnæus has given of the term *strictus*, yet the branches which break out near the root are constantly creeping; there is, however, an obvious difference to the eye between this and the following. Browne recommends it as a pleasant cooler and diuretic, and says that it was formerly administered in inflammatory cases, but has been little used since the more agreeable acid fruit-trees have been so much cultivated in the West Indies. Native of North America, Jamaica, and Piedmont. Cultivated in the botanic garden at Oxford in 1658. It flowers from June to October. Mr. Miller remarks, that, wherever this plant has been suffered to ripen its seeds, it has become a common weed.

10. *Oxalis corniculata*, or yellow wood-forrel: stem prostrate, rooting; peduncles two-flowered; styles almost equal. Root branched, fibrous, brownish, annual. Stems several, wholly prostrate, rooting, branched, slender, round,

round, villose, often tinged with purple, growing to half a foot in height or more. Leaves alternate, collected in a small number at the rooting-parts of the stems, ternate. Corolla twice as long as the calyx, subcampanulate, yellow; antheræ oblong, incumbent, yellow; germ oblong, very-minutely villose, pale-green.

According to Mr. Miller, the root is long and slender, the trailing-stalks spread out eight or nine inches wide on every side, dividing into small branches; the leaves are on pretty long foot-stalks, and the leaflets are more deeply emarginated than in *O. acetosella*. The capsules are near an inch long: seeds brown, scored transversely, inclosed in a semitransparent aril or seed-coat, which, being pressed, opens with a jerk, and throws out the seed to some distance.

Jacquin is of opinion that the *O. corniculata* of Pollich and other Germans is rather his *O. stricta*, which he affirms to be always upright, except when it is beat down by the wind or any accident; whereas the former is always procumbent, the very extremities of the stems and branches being close to the ground, like the runners of the strawberry; the short flowering-branches only being upright: the stem also creeps, but not the root, which is annual; whereas, in *stricta*, the root is perennial, and it is that which creeps, not the stem. Retzius indeed affirms that *O. corniculata*, protected from frost, is perennial; but that it always continues to be procumbent.

Mr. Salisbury has altered the trivial name to *pufilla*, because it is of much dwarfer growth than the preceding, and the old epithet of *corniculata* is applicable to the whole genus. He describes the stem as creeping, the petioles as roundish, and stipuled at the base, with emarginate leaflets: the segments of the corolla obcuneiform, gnawn a little at the tip, and the styles scarcely the height of the longer filaments, and fastigate; perennial, but liable to be destroyed by severe frost: flowers from May to October. It is a native of Spain, Italy, Sicily, Greece, Austria, Switzerland, England, Japan, China, Cochinchina. Cultivated in 1656 by Mr. John Tradescant, jun. It was not then known to be a native of England, and perhaps it may have established itself since that time in the mild climate of Devonshire; for it increases very abundantly, and with great facility. It is said to have been first discovered here by Mr. J. Turner, in the neighbourhood of Exeter. In 1781 it was found near Dawlish in Devonshire, and since that, in several other places of the same county. Mr. Salisbury remarks, that it is a proof of the mildness of the climate in Devonshire, that this and other southern plants occur in it, as *Pinguicula lusitanica*, *Sibthorpia europæa*, *Lobelia urens*, and *Erica vagans*. This circumstance, together with that of the *Arbutus uredo* and *Andromeda Daboecii*, which last grows also in Teneriffe, being found wild in Ireland, seems to strengthen the conjecture, that some violent concussion of the globe has formerly removed these plants from warmer latitudes. The soil in which the above-mentioned plants severally are found, and the structure of their seeds, render it exceedingly improbable that the sea should have transported them. To future geologists, who may have other data to ascertain so very doubtful a matter, possibly the facts recorded by the humble botanists of the present age may be of no small consequence, and serve, among many others, to rescue their labours from that reproach of inutility which is too often thrown upon them by those who are foolish. *Linn. Transf.* ii. 243.

11. *Oxalis repens*, or creeping wood-forrel: stem prostrate, rooting; peduncles subbiflorous; styles nearly middling. Root fibrous, slender, branched. Stems radical, several, herbaceous, filiform, leafy, villose, purplish, some inches in length; branchlets alternate, like the stem. Leaves alternate, ternate, like most of the species. Native of the Cape of Good Hope, Madagascar, and Ceylon.

2. Stipitated.

12. *Oxalis megalorrhiza*, or great-rooted wood-forrel;

leaves ternate; root many-stumped. Root perennial, round, an inch in diameter, about eight inches long, having several heads, divided below into branching legs, full of clefts, covered with a double bark, the outer very thin, brownish ash-coloured, the inner two lines in thickness, red, watery, acrid; the substance of it is white, watery, acrid, having red fibres in it running from the centre to the circumference. Leaves radical, several. Native of Peru, on mountains. This species is singular for the great size of the root, whence its trivial name. The heads of it resemble so many suffruticose stems.

13. *Oxalis fericia*, or silky wood-forrel: leaves ternate, tomentose; styles of middling length. Bulb deep in the ground. Stipe standing out, villose, having one or two scales, about an inch in length, terminating in an umbel of leaves and scapes. Leaves several. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

14. *Oxalis violacea*, or violet-coloured wood-forrel: leaves ternate, obsoletely villose; styles very short; interior filaments equal; flowers, when closed, drooping; when expanded, upright. Bulb roundish-ovate, covered with a black coat, the size of a hazel-nut or less, very prolific, consisting of whitish fleshy scales, and having one or two red lines running through them. The bulb sometimes produces fleshy roots, the thickness of a finger. The stipes may be considered as nothing but the lower part of the petioles and scapes, and then this species has no stipe. Native of Virginia; introduced in 1772 by Samuel Martin, M.D. It flowers in May and June: Jacquin says, the whole summer.

15. *Oxalis caprina*, or goat's-foot wood-forrel: leaves ternate, smooth, half two-lobed; styles very short; interior filaments unequal; flowers upright. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. The next species is considered as the *caprina* in the generality of the European gardens, and is perhaps the *caprina* of Linnaeus; but this is the *caprina* of Thunberg and Jacquin.

16. *Oxalis cernua*, or nodding wood-forrel: leaves ternate, smooth; styles very short; interior filaments equal; flowers, when closed, drooping; when expanded, upright. Bulb acuminate-ovate, smooth, covered with a brown coat, nine lines in length. Stipe standing out, sometimes only a very little, sometimes an inch or two, often procumbent, round, the thickness of a pigeon's quill, smooth, having a few scales, terminated by an umbel of leaves and flowers; the longer one putting forth also other umbels that are leafy, and at the same time bulbiferous; then without interruption it proceeds from the bulb, penetrates the ground in various directions, and forms either a radical filiform fibre, or a capillary one, some inches long, with fibrils, and generating little bulbs its whole length. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. Thunberg gave it the name of *cernua*, from its drooping flowers.

17. *Oxalis dentata*: leaves ternate; petioles round; styles very long. Bulb oblong, half an inch long, covered with a brown striated coat. Stipe under ground for an inch in length, then rising above ground from one to four inches, round, smoothish, brownish-purple, more slender than a pigeon's quill, having a few scales, commonly leafless, except that it has now and then a single leaf at top, almost upright or declining, terminated by an umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves several, upright, and spreading a little. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. It flowers here in November.

18. *Oxalis livida*, or livid wool-forrel: leaves ternate, smoothish; scapes two-flowered; styles middling. Bulb ovate, half an inch long, covered with a brown striated coat. Stipe partly subterranean, and from one to three inches long; partly standing out, two or three inches, round, nearly the thickness of a pigeon's quill, smooth, leafless, upright, terminating in an umbel of many leaves, and fewer scapes, then elongated beyond this, and ending in another leafy umbel. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. It flowers with us in October and November.

19. *Oxalis compressa*: leaves ternate, hirsute underneath; petioles compressed; styles very long. Stipe subterranean,

terraneous, terminating in an umbel of leaves and scapes. Leaves very many. Corolla four times as long as the calyx, bell-shaped, yellow. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

20. *Oxalis Burmanni*, or digitate-leaved wood-forrel: leaves digitate. Bulb oblong. Stipe subterraneous, terminating in an umbel of leaves and scapes. Corolla five times as long as the calyx, bell-shaped, yellow. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. Linnæus unites it with *cernua*, from which it is very different in the leaves.

21. *Oxalis sensitiva*, or sensitive wood-forrel: leaves pinnate. Root fibrous, brown. Stipe standing out, round, about the thickness of a pigeon's quill, from half an inch to six inches in height, obscurely-jointed below, variegated with red or brown and green, filled with a white pith, terminating in a close umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves numerous, abruptly pinnate, spreading; they contract on the slightest touch; hence the trivial name. Capsule pentagon-ovate, five-celled, five-valved, opening at the angles. It is a very beautiful plant. Native of Malabar, Ceylon, the Molucca-islands, and other parts of the East Indies; in China and Cochin-china.

II. With one-flowered peduncles. 1. Caulescent.

22. *Oxalis macrostylis*, or long-styled wood-forrel: corollas caryophylleous; styles very long. Bulb ovate, covered with a ferruginous shining coat, the size of a hazel-nut. Stem round, hirsute, purple, slender, somewhat branched, from six to nine inches high, almost upright. Leaves subsessile, scattered, approximating, spreading very much, ternate. Antheræ oblong, twin, erect, yellow; germen oblong, villose at top, pale greenish-yellow, callos. Styles remarkable for their length; whence the trivial name; all these parts are hirsute, with simple hairs. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. It flowers in Europe in October.

23. *Oxalis tubiflora*, or tube-flowered wood-forrel: corollas caryophylleous; styles very short; filaments unequal. Bulb roundish, covered with a brownish coat, the size of a hazel-nut, or larger. Stem round, very hirsute, almost all leafy, sometimes, but seldom, having a single branchlet, half a foot high, almost upright, weak, about half the thickness of a pigeon's quill. Calycine leaflets lanceolate, sharpish, ciliate, villose, pale-green, with blood-red edges, erect; claws of the corolla yellow within, dirty without and villose, erect, forming a cylindric tube an inch long; borders obovate, sharpish, spreading very much, less than half the length of the claws, red-purple within, a little paler on the outside, with one side dirty-yellow and somewhat villose; antheræ incumbent, yellow; styles smooth. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. It flowers in Europe in October and November.

24. *Oxalis canescens*, or hoary wood-forrel: corollas caryophylleous; styles very short; filaments equal. Bulb roundish or ovate, from the size of a pea to that of a hazel-nut, with the scales a little loose; the outer ones brown, the inner whitish dotted with red. Stem round, villose, half the thickness of a pigeon's quill, upright, half a foot high, scaly at the base, either quite simple, or branched from the axils of the leaves. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. In Europe it flowers in September and October.

25. *Oxalis secunda*: corollas caryophylleous; styles of a middling length. Bulb roundish, covered with a brown coat, larger than a hazel-nut. Stem round, the thickness of a pigeon's quill, extremely villose, brownish, only at bottom scaly and leafless; weak, about a foot high, upright for some inches, and then more or less reclining. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. It flowers in Europe in October and November.

26. *Oxalis hirta*, or hairy wood-forrel: corollas bell-shaped; styles very long; filaments toothless, equal. Stem round, slender, smooth at bottom, the rest villose, about eight inches in length, purplish-brown, weak, flaccid, hence it is sometimes almost upright, sometimes decumbent or ascending, putting forth from the axils branch-

lets that seldom flower. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. It flowers in Europe in September and October. This species is remarkably rough in its wild state, but puts off much of its roughness when cultivated.

27. *Oxalis hirtella*: corollas bell-shaped; styles very long; filaments toothletted, unequal. Resembles the preceding: it is also a native of the Cape of Good Hope; and, in Europe, flowers in October and November.

28. *Oxalis multiflora*, or many-flowered wood-forrel: corollas bell-shaped; styles very short; leaflets wedge-shaped. Stem round, almost upright, brownish-purple, from the thickness of a pigeon's quill to only half the size, from six inches to a foot in height, branched. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. In Europe it flowers in October and November. A very large specimen is figured in Jacquin's Rare Plants, as a variety of *O. hirta*; in his Monographia, it is represented smaller, and more branched.

29. *Oxalis rubella*: corollas bell-shaped; styles middling; filaments toothless. Stem round, slender, somewhat hirsute, fleshy, weak, so that it is seldom really upright; scaly at the base; brownish-purple, about half a foot high. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. In Europe it flowers from October to December. Jacquin at first took this for *O. hirta*, and it is figured under that name in his Rare Plants, with larger leaves and flowers. Another specimen is figured in his Monographia.

30. *Oxalis rosacea*: corollas bell-shaped; styles middling; filaments gibbosity-toothletted. Stem round, slender, very hirsute, leafless to the middle, with minute wandering scales, sometimes, but very seldom, having an axillary flowering branchlet at top, weak, prostrate, rising up towards the top, from six inches to near a foot in height. Leaves on very short petioles, alternate, ternate, the upper ones collected into a close hoary rose. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. In Europe it flowers from September to November. This species is easily distinguished from all the rest, by having its leaves at the ends of the stem, and branches very closely collected into a form like a double rose.

31. *Oxalis disticha*: corollas bell-shaped; styles middling; petioles wingedly-stipuled. Bulb elongated-ovate, half an inch long or more, covered with a brown skin, putting forth a long thick fibre from the base. Stem round, the thickness of a pigeon's quill, smooth, pale-green or dirty-purple, half a foot long or more, almost upright at the base, then reclining and ascending, branched at the base, having distant scales at bottom, in other parts leafy, at all the scales and leaves jointed. Leaves alternate, distich, smooth, ternate. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. In Europe it flowers in December and January.

32. *Oxalis tenella*: subcaulescent; corollas bell-shaped; filaments toothless; leaflets obovate. Bulb ovate, acute, the size of a pea, often several inclosed in one brown skin. Stem filiform, weak, an inch or a little more in length, round, appearing villose when magnified. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. In Europe flowering in November and December. This and the following species connect the caulescent with the stemless Oxalides.

33. *Oxalis reptatrix*: subcaulescent; corollas bell-shaped; filaments toothletted; leaflets roundish. Bulb roundish, about the size of a hazel-nut, with a black hard skin, and commonly a double nucleus, putting forth a slender white jointed root, with a scale at each joint, having fibres on every side, here and there bulbiferous, creeping horizontally, from one to six inches in length. Stem round, the thickness of a pigeon's quill, somewhat villose, upright, below the leaves scaly, and about an inch long, and then two or three inches more in length. Leaves alternate, ternate; petiole jointed at the base, round, villose, weak, red or green, from three to six inches long; leaflets sessile, slightly emarginate, appearing dotted with a magnifier on both sides; somewhat villose at the edges and along the dorsal nerve; in other parts smooth, green; but, when old, variegated with red and yellow. Scapes axillary,

axillary, jointed at the base, round, somewhat villose, red, flaccid, the length of the leaves, with alternate green bracts below the middle. Calycine leaflets oblong, sharpish, ciliate, hirsute, erect, green. Corolla six times as long as the calyx; claws upright, twice as long as the calyx, yellowish; borders obovate, rounded, wide, spreading very much, pale with a blush of purple, somewhat villose at the back on one side; antheræ oblong, incumbent, yellow. Germen oblong, pale-green, villose at top; styles very short, very hirsute, with simple hairs. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. In Europe it flowers in November and December. This species increases abundantly by its creeping roots generating many bulbs in their course, so that the pots are in a short time full of plants, all thus caulescent. These numerous plants have flowered only once in four years that they have been cultivated.

2. Stipitated. *a.* With simple leaves.

34. *Oxalis lepidula*: styles very long. Bulb roundish, twice as large as a pea, and of a brownish straw-colour. Stipe subterraneous, from a line to an inch in length, having a few scales at top, terminating in an umbel of a few leaves and flowers. Leaves few, green on both sides, and appearing dotted in the microscope; hirsute at the edges, and on the midrib, with capitate hairs, in other parts smooth; about an inch long. Scapes from one to four, not jointed at the base, weak, hirsute, with capitate hairs, longer than the leaves, yellowish-green, without bracts. Calycine leaflets oblong, bluntish, erect, hirsute, with capitate hairs, and ciliate, pale-green at bottom, variegated at top with blood-red spots and orange dots, whitish at the edges; corolla six times as long as the calyx, bell-shaped; claws upright, villose, yellow; borders obovate, rounded, pale-purple, with the back on one side villose; antheræ oblong, incumbent, yellow. This and the two next species are so alike in habit, leaves, bulb, and flowers, that they can scarcely be distinguished.

35. *Oxalis monophylla*, or simple-leaved wood-forrel: styles of middling length. Leaves spreading, from oblong obovate, almost entire, half an inch long, jointed below the leaf, but not at the base. In other respects it agrees with the preceding.

36. *Oxalis rostrata*, or beaked wood-forrel: styles very short. Nearly agrees with the two preceding.

β. With binate leaves.

37. *Oxalis crispata*, or curled wood-forrel: leaflets obovate, curled. Bulb roundish, with a brown skin, the size of a hazel-nut, often loose. Stipe partly subterraneous, about an inch long, and then standing out, shorter, scaly, leaflets, brownish, the thickness of a pigeon's quill, upright, terminated by a thin umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves few, generally three, upright, wholly smooth, sometimes simple, never ternate; the leaflets from an inch to three inches long.

38. *Oxalis asinina*, or ass's-eared wood-forrel: leaflets lanceolate; styles middling. Bulb ovate, with a brown skin, the size of a hazel-nut. Stipe partly subterraneous, about an inch long, scaly, then standing out, shorter, scaly, leaflets, almost upright, terminated by an umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves several, erect, smooth, very seldom simple, never ternate. Petiole jointed at the base, half round, about two inches long, winged. Leaflets bluntish, quite entire, or very seldom slightly emarginate, from two to three inches long, green on both sides, appearing dotted in the microscope, along the edges together with the wings cartilaginous-crenulate, erect. It has the trivial name from its long binate leaflets, resembling ass's ears.

39. *Oxalis leporina*, or hare's-eared wood-forrel: leaflets lanceolate; styles very long; filaments toothletted. Bulb roundish, pale flesh-colour, with a brown skin, the size of a hazel-nut. Stipe, the part under-ground about an inch, above shorter, scaly, leaflets, brownish, almost upright, terminated by a thin umbel of leaves and flowers.

Leaves few, commonly two only, upright, smooth, very seldom simple, never ternate. It has the trivial name from the binate leaves resembling a hare's ear.

40. *Oxalis lanceifolia*: leaves binate and ternate; styles very long; filaments toothlets. Bulb ovate, smaller than a hazel-nut; covered with a brown skin. Stipe subterraneous, one or two inches long, almost the thickness of a pigeon's quill, having a few scales at top, and being bulb-bearing at bottom, terminating in an umbel of leaves and a few flowers. Leaves several, the lower ones binate, the rest ternate, almost upright.

γ. With ternate leaves.

41. *Oxalis fabæfolia*, or bean-leaved wood-forrel: leaves obovate, flat; petioles winged. Bulb roundish, with a brown skin, the size of a hazel-nut, often loose. Stipe about an inch, partly under ground, partly above, scaly, leaflets, nearly as thick as a reed at top, almost upright, terminated by a thin umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves few, upright, wholly smooth.

42. *Oxalis laburnifolia*, or laburnum-leaved wood-forrel: the middle leaflet sublancoate; the side ones obliquely oblong; styles very long; filaments toothletted. Bulb ovate, with a blackish-brown skin, the size of a hazel-nut. Stipe subterraneous, round, white, almost as thick as a pigeon's quill, about an inch in length, terminated by a thin umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves few, spreading.

43. *Oxalis sanguinea*, or bloody-leaved wood-forrel: the middle leaflet sublancoate; the side ones obliquely oblong; styles middling. Bulb ovate, minute, with a blackish-brown skin, loose. Stipe subterraneous, an inch long, of a dirty whitish colour, nearly as thick as a pigeon's quill, terminated by a thin umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves few, sometimes no more than two, almost upright, or spreading a little.

44. *Oxalis minata*, or small wood-forrel: leaflets lanceolate, acute; styles very long; filaments toothlets. Stipe subterraneous, terminating in a poor umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves few, minute, wholly smooth.

45. *Oxalis ciliaris*, or ciliate-leaved wood-forrel: leaflets oblong, blunt; styles very long; filaments toothlets. Bulb ovate, the size of a hazel-nut, with a black skin. Stipe out of the ground, having a few scales and one or two leaves, round, villose, often smooth at bottom, slender, weak, almost upright, terminated by a dense umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves several, upright, and spreading very much.

46. *Oxalis arcuata*, or bending wood-forrel: leaflets linear-oblong, emarginate; styles very short. Bulb ovate, slender, with a blackish-brown skin, almost an inch in length. Stipe out of ground, round, almost half the thickness of a pigeon's quill, having a few scales but no leaves, hirsute, brownish-green, three or four inches long, procumbent, terminated by an umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves very many, spreading.

47. *Oxalis linearis*, or linear-leaved wood-forrel: filaments toothlets; styles very long; corollas caryophyllous; leaflets linear. Bulb ovate, with a blackish-brown skin, smaller than a hazel-nut. Stipe out of the ground, round, slender, having a few scales but seldom any leaves, sometimes a single leaflet at top, hirsute, brown, from four to seven inches long; at first upright, but by age becoming wholly procumbent, terminated by a cloist umbel of leaves and flowers, and sometimes, but rarely, lengthened out into another umbel. Leaves several, almost upright.

48. *Oxalis gracilis*, or slender wood-forrel: filaments toothlets; styles very long; corollas bell-shaped; leaflets linear. Bulb roundish, the size of a hazel-nut, covered with a brown skin, sometimes loose. Stipe standing out, filiform, brownish, smooth, about half a foot long, very weak, and wholly prostrate; at bottom leaflets with a few scales; above having solitary leaves, and frequently an umbel, terminating in a thin umbel of leaves and flowers.

49. *Oxalis reclinata*, or reclining wood-forrel: filaments toothless; styles middling; leaflets linear. Bulb roundish, often an inch in diameter, covered with a brown skin, loose. Stipe standing out, a foot or eighteen inches long, round, smaller than a pigeon's quill, minutely and densely villose, brown; below the middle having a few scales but no leaves; above the middle leafy, and sometimes having a branchlet; when young wholly upright, but afterwards more or less reclining, and even entirely procumbent, on account of its weakness and the weight of the umbel; terminated by a denser loose umbel of leaves and flowers.

50. *Oxalis miniata*, or vermilion wood-forrel: filaments toothless; styles very short; leaflets linear. Stipe above ground, from one to four inches long, very weak, and always wholly prostrate, from its extreme slenderness; mostly leafless, and having only a few minute scales, except at top, where there is a leaf or one or two umbels; it is terminated also by a denser loose umbel of leaves and flowers.

51. *Oxalis versicolor*, or striped-flowered wood-forrel: filaments toothletted; styles very long; stem upright, hairy, generally simple; leaflets linear, callous on the under side at the tip. Bulb ovate, half an inch long, covered with a black skin, within which are frequently several bulbs; hence, when cultivated, it has almost always many stipes; these are out of the ground, have a few scales on them, are round, slender, have a very few hairs scattered over them, are six inches long, sometimes leafless, sometimes having a single leaf at top, when young almost upright, but afterwards wholly procumbent, terminated by a dense umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves several, upright, and spreading a little. Dr. Smith remarks, that the flowers are expanded in the sunshine only, have no scent, but are beautiful, and extremely elegant, even when closed; that the petals are separate at the base, but, a little above it, united into a tube, then again separated, folded over each other to the left, white with an exquisite red border; that the five longest filaments are but half the length of the corolla, with didymous antheræ; and five other very short filaments, without antheræ, are attached to the longer ones, and stand between the shorter; that the germen is smooth and pellucid, full of little protuberances, occasioned by the prominent rudiments of the seeds, the styles the length of the longer stamens. Introduced in 1774 by Mr. Francis Masson. It flowers abundantly in the hot-houses of the botanic garden at Chelsea in the winter.

52. *Oxalis elongata*: filaments toothletted; styles very short; petals emarginate; leaflets linear. Bulb ovate, covered with a sooty skin, smaller than a hazel-nut. Stipe appearing somewhat hirsute when examined by a glass, having a few scales, and often one or two leaves, extremely weak, so as to be wholly procumbent.

53. *Oxalis tenuifolia*, or fine-leaved wood-forrel: filaments toothletted; styles very short; petals quite entire; leaflets linear. Bulb ovate, with a black skin, half the size of a hazel-nut. Stipe almost upright, smooth or somewhat villose, purple at bottom, from two to four inches long, scaly at the base, sometimes leafless, sometimes leafy all over; and even having barren branchlets; the umbel of leaves and flowers that terminates it being elongated, but barren.

54. *Oxalis polyphylla*, or many-leaved wood-forrel: filaments gibbously-toothletted; styles middling; leaflets linear. Bulb roundish, the size of a hazel-nut, or even of a walnut, covered with a brown skin, having ovate-acuminate loose scales, flesh-coloured or pale and fleshy. Stipe from half an inch to six inches in height, upright but weak, appearing somewhat villose in the microscope, purplish or brownish, the thickness of a pigeon's quill; sometimes leafless, and having only distant scales; sometimes leafy; commonly quite simple, but sometimes having a single branchlet or two, terminated by a cleftly-

leafy and many-flowered umbel. Leaves very many. This is described by Jacquin in his Collections, and figured in his Icones Rariores, under the name of *O. versicolor*. The three last, indeed, are probably considered by Linnaeus and Thunberg as varieties of *O. versicolor*.

55. *Oxalis cuneata*: filaments toothless; styles very long; leaflets wedge-shaped. Bulb ovate, almost the size of a hazel-nut, with a blackish-brown skin, often loose at top. Stipe standing out, round, scaly, brown, villose, procumbent, leafless, slender, two or three inches long, terminated by a dense umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves very many, spreading a little.

56. *Oxalis cuneifolia*: filaments toothless; styles very short; leaflets wedge-shaped. Stipe about three inches long, frequently with a leaf or two on it. It differs from the preceding in having the interior filaments unequal, and the exterior filaments not smooth, but hirsute, with capitate hairs, and the styles very short.

57. *Oxalis glabra*, or smooth wood-forrel: filaments toothletted; styles very short; stipe upright, smooth; leaflets oblong, or wedge-shaped, smooth. Stipe standing out, round, filiform, appearing somewhat villose in the microscope, angular-grooved, one or two inches in length, having frequently a leaflet on it, terminated by an umbel of leaves and flowers.

58. *Oxalis pusilla*, or dwarf wood-forrel: filaments toothletted; styles middling; leaflets wedge-shaped. Bulb ovate, with a brown skin, less than a pea. Stipe partly under and partly above ground, from half an inch to two inches in length, filiform, smooth, the shorter upright, the longer procumbent, sometimes leafless, sometimes having a few leaves at the base or at top, terminated by a denser umbel of leaves.

59. *Oxalis ambigua*, or doubtful wood-forrel: styles very long; leaflets unspotted, flat; the middle ones wedge-shaped; the side ones oblong; calycine leaflets equal. Bulb oval, an inch long, covered with a black hard skin. Stipe standing out, one or two inches in length, scaly, round, the thickness of a pigeon's quill, purplish, somewhat villose, erect, terminated by a dense umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves very many, spreading out in a ring. Calycine leaflets lanceolate, bluntish, hirsute, ciliate, pale-green with whitish edges, having generally below the tip one or two roundish orange spots, upright; corolla several times longer than the calyx; claws upright, sulphur-coloured; borders wide, rounded, snow-white within, somewhat sulphur-coloured without, one side being variegated with red dots, spreading very much. Antheræ incumbent, yellow. Jacquin doubted a long time whether this was any thing more than a variety of the next species; but the constant difference in the equal calycine leaflets, and the leaves never being waved, induced him at length to consider it as a distinct species.

60. *Oxalis undulata*, or wave-leaved wood-forrel: styles very long; leaflets unspotted, waved; middle wedge-shaped; lateral oblong; one leaflet of the calyx spatulate. Bulb equal, an inch long, with a blackish-brown skin. Stipe from one to three inches long, almost upright, green or brownish, slightly pubescent, leafless, but having lanceolate acuminate ferruginous ciliate scales, terminated by an umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves several, almost upright, or spreading a little. Calycine leaflets oblong, blunt, green above, below having blood-red spots, variegated on the back with roundish, yellow, scattered, spots; one of them is larger, and spatulate; corolla five times as long as the calyx; claws short, yellow; borders very wide, long, white, with one side of the back dotted with purple. In other circumstances it agrees with the preceding, except in those pointed out before.

61. *Oxalis fuscata*: styles very long; leaflets spotted on both sides; middle wedge-shaped, lateral, oblong. Bulb oval, covered with a black hard skin, an inch long. Stipe subterraneous, scaly above, an inch and more in length,

length, terminated by a dense umbel of leaves and flowers, under which is frequently another umbel or two that is less dense. Leaves very many, spreading.

62. *Oxalis glandulosa*, or glandular wood-forrel: styles middling; leaves and calyxes capitately-ciliate; middle leaflet wedge-shaped, lateral ones oblong. Bulb ovate, covered with a black hard skin, twice as large as a hazel-nut. Stipe one or two, standing out, round, the thickness of a pigeon's quill, from one to three inches long, erect or procumbent, villose, scaly, leaflets, purplish, weak, terminated by a dense umbel of leaves and flowers.

63. *Oxalis tricolor*, or three-coloured wood-forrel: styles middling; ciliae simple; middle leaflet wedge-shaped; lateral ones oblong. Bulb ovate-roundish, covered with a black skin, larger than a hazel-nut. Stipe commonly wholly subterranean, having one or two scales at top, short, leaflets, round, almost as thick as a pigeon's quill, terminated by a denser umbel of leaves and flowers.

β. Bulb oval, an inch long, covered with a black hard skin. Stipe either wholly subterranean or standing out a little, scaly, leaflets, roundish, whitish, about an inch long, upright, thinner than a pigeon's quill.

64. *Oxalis exaltata*: styles very short; leaflets dusky-spotted; middle wedge-shaped, lateral, oblong; scapes upright. Bulb oval, an inch and a half long, covered with a black hard skin. Stipe partly under partly above ground, scaly, round, about an inch high, upright, leaflets, terminated by a dense umbel of leaves and flowers.

65. *Oxalis rubro-flava*: styles very short; leaflets unspotted; middle wedge-shaped, lateral, oblong; scapes upright. Bulb subovate, with a blackish-brown skin, less than an inch in length. Stipes standing out, scaly, leaflets, round, the thickness of a pigeon's quill, villose, almost upright, about an inch in length, terminated by a denser umbel of leaves and flowers.

66. *Oxalis flaccida*: styles very short; leaflets unspotted; middle wedge-shaped, lateral, oblong; scapes flaccid. Bulb ovate-acuminate, with a blackish-brown skin, about an inch in length. Stipe partly under partly above ground, round, villose, the thickness of a pigeon's quill, green, procumbent, somewhat scaly, an inch and a half long, leaflets, terminated by a dense umbel of leaves and flowers.

O. exaltata has always long slender scapes, strictly upright, and spotted leaves; *rubro-flava* and *flaccida* have always green unspotted leaves; and the former of these has yellow flowers on shorter upright scapes; the latter has white flowers on very long flaccid scapes. If these differences be not thought sufficient to distinguish the species, the three last may be considered only as varieties.

67. *Oxalis variabilis*, or variable wood-forrel: styles very short; leaflets roundish, unspotted, very slightly emarginate. Bulb ovate, with a blackish skin, half the size of a hazel-nut. Stipe subterranean, an inch long, terminated by an umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves several. Calycine leaflets lanceolate, sharpish, green, with one or two orange spots at top, which, however, are often wanting; corolla large; claws upright, yellow on both sides; borders longer than the claw, wide, rounded, spreading very much, white on both sides, with a suffusion of flesh-colour within above the claws, and with one side of the back reddish and somewhat villose; antherae incumbent, yellow.

β. *O. variabilis rubra*. The variety with red flowers has the bulb the size of a hazel-nut. Stipe partly under partly above ground, and scaly. Leaves very many. Calycine leaflets green, with the edges blood-red at bottom; corolla several times longer than the calyx; borders the same length with the claws, red on both sides, except that one side of the back is dirty-yellow and somewhat villose. In other respects it agrees with the preceding.

68. *Oxalis grandiflora*, or great-flowered wood-forrel: styles very short; leaflets roundish, frequently blood-red underneath; scarcely emarginate. Bulb ovate, acute, small, loose. Stipe subterranean, an inch and a half long. Leaves in a ring. This bears a great affinity to *O. varia-*

bilis, differing chiefly in having the leaflets commonly blood-red underneath, whereas, in that, they are always green.

69. *Oxalis convexula*, or convex-leaved wood-forrel: styles middling; filaments toothless; leaflets roundish, convex. Bulb ovate, with a blackish-brown skin, from the size of a hazel-nut to twice that bigness. Stipe shortly subterranean, then standing out, from three to five inches long, round, purple, smooth, without scales, the thickness of a pigeon's quill or thicker, wholly procumbent, branched, brittle, with a central tough fibril, thickened at the tip, and from this terminated by a very close and elegant umbel of leaves and flowers, and finally densely bulb-bearing from the same. Leaves very numerous, spreading every way.

70. *Oxalis purpurea*, or purple wood-forrel: styles middling; filaments toothletted; petioles round; leaflets roundish, unspotted, ciliate. Bulb ovate, loose, small, loosely inclosed in a skin, from three to six times the size of the bulb. Stipe subterranean, from one to three inches long; round, slender, often bulbiferous, terminated by a dense umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves very many, spreading or lying on the ground. According to Linnaeus, the leaflets are obcordate, obsoletely-emarginate, smooth even underneath, very finely ciliate. Scapes the length of the leaves. This does not agree with Jacquin's figure or description. Mr. Miller says the leaflets are roundish, large, hairy, and but little indented at the top, standing upon long slender footstalks, arising from a thick short stalk, which adheres to the root. He adds, that some earth that came to England with plants from the Cape of Good Hope was full of it. In 1690, it was cultivated in the royal garden at Hampton-court.

71. *Oxalis laxula*: styles middling; filaments toothletted; petioles round; leaflets roundish, often purple underneath. Bulb less than a hazel-nut, with a blackish-brown skin. Stipe about an inch long, terminated by a loose umbel. It is so nearly allied to the preceding, that it may perhaps be nothing more than a variety.

72. *Oxalis breviscapa*: styles middling; filaments toothletted; petioles thick, compressed; leaflets roundish. Bulb oval, with a black hard skin, an inch long. Stipe subterranean, an inch in height, thick, terminated by a dense umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves very many, prostrate in a ring.

73. *Oxalis rigidula*: styles very long; leaflets roundish, unspotted. Bulb ovate, an inch long, covered with a blackish skin. Stipe subterranean, an inch in height, terminated by a stiffish umbel of leaves and scapes.

74. *Oxalis speciosa*, or handsome wood-forrel: styles very long; leaflets roundish; unspotted above; underneath blood-red and dotted with gold. Bulb oval, with a blackish skin, less than an inch in length. Spike subterranean, an inch long, scaly at top, terminated by an umbel of leaves and flowers.

75. *Oxalis fuggillata*: styles very long; leaflets roundish; when adult, livid underneath all over, and above at the edges. Bulb oval, with a blackish skin, less than an inch in length. Stipe subterranean, about an inch and a half in height, terminated by an umbel of leaves and flowers.

76. *Oxalis truncatula*, or truncate-leaved wood-forrel: styles very long; leaflets rounded, truncated. Bulb ovate-roundish, with a black hard skin, almost the size of a walnut. Stipe standing out, extremely short, terminated by an umbel of leaves and flowers.

77. *Oxalis sulphurea*, or sulphur-coloured wood-forrel: styles very short; filaments toothless; calyx ciliate; leaflets obcordate. Bulb oval, covered with a blackish hard skin, an inch and more in length. Stipe subterranean, about an inch long, terminated by a dense umbel of leaves and yellow flowers.

78. *Oxalis natans*, or floating wood-forrel: styles very short; filaments toothless; calyx smooth at the edges; leaves floating; leaflets obcordate. Stipe filiform, submersed,

merged, of an indeterminate length, leafless; but having a few scales, terminated by an umbel of leaves and flowers floating on the surface of the water.

79. *Oxalis frumosa*: styles very short; filaments toothletted, equal; leaflets spotted on both sides; middle one obcordate, lateral ones roundish. Bulb oval or obovate, with a black hard skin, almost an inch in length. Stipe subterraneous, one or two inches long, terminated by a dense umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves numerous, villose on both sides, and at the edges.

80. *Oxalis luteola*: styles very short; filaments toothletted, equal; leaflets obcordate; unspotted and somewhat villose on both sides. Bulb ovate or oval, with a blackish skin, half the size of a hazel-nut. Stipe subterraneous, about an inch long, terminated by a loose umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves several, villose all over on both sides, and at the edges.

81. *Oxalis lanata*, or woolly wood-forrel: styles very short; filaments gibbously-toothletted, equal; leaflets obcordate, very hirsute on both sides. Bulb deep in the ground. Stipe standing out, closely-woolly, with one or two woolly scales, about half an inch in length, terminating in an umbel of flowers and leaves.

82. *Oxalis punctata*, or dotted wood-forrel: styles very short, filaments toothletted, unequal; leaflets underneath coloured and dotted with gold; middle one obcordate; lateral ones roundish. Bulb oval or ovate, half the size of a hazel-nut, with a hard blackish variously-angular somewhat striated and wrinkled skin. Stipe subterraneous, about half an inch long, terminated by a thinner umbel of leaves and flowers.

83. *Oxalis obtusa*: styles middling; filaments toothletted, unequal; calycine leaflets rounded-blunt; leaflets obcordate. Bulb deep in the ground. Stipe standing out, villose, half an inch long, terminating in an umbel of leaves and flowers.

84. *Oxalis fallax*: styles middling; filaments toothletted, equal; leaflets obcordate. Bulb ovate or oval, with a blackish-brown skin, half the size of a hazel-nut. Stipe subterraneous, about an inch in length, terminated by a loose umbel of leaves and flowers.

85. *Oxalis marginata*: styles middling; filaments toothless, equal; leaflets obcordate. Bulb oval, with a blackish-brown hard skin, an inch long. Stipe subterraneous, scarcely an inch in length, terminated by a dense umbel of leaves and flowers. Leaves very many, spreading in a ring.

86. *Oxalis pulchella*, or pretty wood-forrel: styles very long; filaments toothless; stipe subterraneous; leaflets obcordate. Bulb oval or ovate, with a blackish-brown hard skin, about an inch in length. Stipe subterraneous, very short, terminated by an umbel of leaves and yellow flowers.

87. *Oxalis macrogona*: styles very long; filaments toothletted; stipe subterraneous; leaflets obcordate. Bulb oval or ovate, with a blackish skin, half the size of a hazel-nut. Stipe about an inch in length, terminated by a loose umbel of leaves and flowers.

88. *Oxalis incarnata*, or flesh-coloured wood-forrel: styles very long; filaments toothletted; stipe standing out, very long, branched; leaflets obcordate. Bulb in the young plant ovate, covered with a brown skin, twice the size of a pea. The root in the mature plant consists of several legs slenderly fusiform, terminating in a long fibre, round, the thickness of a reed and more, some inches in length, fleshy, brittle, pale, somewhat pellucid and sweet. Stipes very many, herbaceous, round, the thickness of a pigeon's quill, or even of a reed, thick, green or purplish-brown, a foot and a half high, upright, but so weak as not to be able to support themselves without assistance, at the base and origin of the branches having an ovate-acuminate stipule; both they and the branches terminated by distant umbels of leaves and flowers. Leaves several, at remote distances, in whorls. This was cultivated in 1739 by Mr. Miller.

89. *Oxalis bifida*, or cloven-leaved wood-forrel: styles very long, filaments toothletted, stipe standing out, commonly branched, leaflets semibifid, corolla bell-shaped. Stipe filiform, smooth, striated, leafless, loose, a foot high and more, together with the branches terminated by a dense umbel of leaves and flowers. Branches alternate, directed one way, striated, upright. Leaves several, smooth. These are all natives of the Cape of Good Hope.

90. *Oxalis longiflora*, or long-flowered wood-forrel: stipe standing out; leaflets semibifid; corolla caryophylleous. Stipe scaly, leafless, simple, terminating in a leafy flowering umbel; flowers long. Native of Virginia.

91. *Oxalis acetosella*, or common wood-forrel: styles equal; leaflets obcordate, hairy. Root perennial, branched, round, knobbed, creeping with very fine fibrils on every side, partly white, partly red, having an ovate-acute, thick, rigid, scale like a tooth at the knobs. Stipe partly subterraneous, partly standing out, sometimes very little, sometimes several inches, then procumbent and striking root into the ground, toothletted at the knobs like the root, round, somewhat hirsute, red, closely-toothletted above with the permanent joints of decayed leaves, perennial, putting forth from its top several aggregate leaves and scapes. Petiole jointed, round, somewhat hirsute, red, especially at bottom, from two to three inches long, almost upright but weak. Leaflets subfleshy, near half an inch long, wider, green and hirsute on both sides, shortly ciliate. Scapes one or two, jointed at the base, round, somewhat villose, red, the length of the leaves; with embracing, villose, jointed bractes, above the middle. Calycine leaflets oblong, acute, sometimes bifid, somewhat hirsute, ciliate, purple at the tip, upright; corolla three times as long as the calyx, white, beautifully veined with purple, bell-shaped: claws upright: borders obovate, rounded, spreading very much; antheræ oblong, incumbent, pale-yellow, or whitish. Receptacle none, except two papillæ, surrounded by a yellow ring, in the central angle of the cells, to each of which one seed is fastened. Seeds regularly two, scarcely ever more, ovate, compressed like a lens, with rugged, raised streaks, russet-yellow: a fleshy white aril invests the whole seed, at first smooth and closed on every side, but at length, opening elastically at the tip and rolling back, it wrinkles up, and throws off the seed with considerable force.

Mr. Curtis remarks, that the leaflets are of a yellowish-green colour, frequently purple underneath; that the petiole proceeds from a little bulb, which forms a kind of sheath to it; and that, although round at bottom, the upper part is grooved on one side; that the calycine segments are bluntish and membranous at the edges; that the petals adhere together from the base just above the claws, which bend a little inward, and are tinged at bottom with yellow; that the antheræ are bilocular; that the germ is four-cornered, the styles very slender and a little longer than the stamens, and the stigmas blunt; that there are three heart-shaped seeds in each cell, grooved longitudinally, of a bright reddish-brown colour; that, like the violet, it continues producing seed-vessels and seeds during the greatest part of the summer, without any appearance of expanded blossoms, which are only observable in April and May; and that, when it has done flowering, the flower-stalk, as in many other plants, bends down, and, when the seed is ripe, again becomes upright.

Linnæus remarks, that the leaflets in wet weather are erected, but hang down in dry weather. They are also said by some authors to manifest a degree of sensibility on being struck. Villars observes, that this elegant little plant has the leaves of trefoil, (see the BOTANY Plate IV. fig. 19. vol. iii.) the taste of forrel, and the flower of geranium; from which last it is distinct, according to Jussieu, in the number of styles, the form of the capsule and manner of its opening, its straight corcle or heart, without any perisperm or albumen.

Wood-

Wood-forrel has a grateful acid taste, more agreeable than common forrel, and therefore proper to be used in salads: its acid approaches nearly to that of the juice of lemons, or the acid of tartar, with which it also corresponds in its medical effects, being esteemed refrigerant, antiscorbutic, and diuretic. An infusion of the leaves, or a whey made by boiling the plant in milk, is useful in ardent fevers, to allay inordinate heat, and to quench thirst. The London College directs a conserve of the leaves and petals to be made by beating them with thrice their weight of fine sugar, and orange-peel. It is called *Conserva Lujulae*. The expressed juice depurated, properly evaporated, and set in a cool place, affords a crystalline acid salt in considerable quantity, which may be used wherever vegetable acids are wanted. It is employed to take iron-moulds and ink-stains out of linen; and is sold under the name of essential salt of lemons. This salt, when genuine, which it seldom is, consists of the vegetable alkali and a peculiar acid, which, according to Bergman, seems more allied to the acid of sugar than that of tartar. What is sold for it in this country appears sometimes to consist of C. tart. with the addition of a small quantity of vitriolic acid. For taking out spots in linen, the stained part is dipped in water, sprinkled with a little of the salt powdered, then rubbed on a pewter plate, after which the spot is washed out with warm water. Dr. Beddoes informs us, that the leaves and stalks wrapped up in a cabbage-leaf, and macerated in warm ashes until reduced to a pulp, have been successfully applied to scrophulous ulcers. This poultice should remain on the sore for twenty-four hours, and be repeated four times. Afterwards the ulcer is to be dressed with a poultice made of the roots of the meadow-sweet (*Spiræa ulmaria*) bruised and mixed up with the scum of four butter-milk. Doubtless some of the foreign species may be superior to this in the same way. Thunberg says that *Oxalis cernua* grows to the greatest size and greatest abundance of any species at the Cape of Good Hope, and that a good salt was prepared from it; but he does not inform us in what quantity. Twenty pounds of our wood-forrel leaves, fresh, yield six pounds of juice, from which two ounces two drams and one scruple of salt have been obtained.

Wood-forrel is common in Europe in woods, and occurs also among bushes, in hedges, and on heaths. It is called, says Gerard, wood-four, four-trefoil, stubwort, and forell du bois; by herbarists, alleluya and cuckow's meat, "by reason, when it springeth forth and flowereth, the cuckow singeth most, at which time also Alleluya was wont to be sung in churches." The names Alleluya and Lujula, however, are corrupted from the Calabrian name *Juhola*. It is called *stubwort*, probably from its covering the ground among the stubs in coppices when they are cut down. In French it is *petits oseille* or *farrelle*, and *pain à corneau*.

β. A variety is found with purple flowers. It is said to be a smaller plant, and to flower later. Discovered in a hollow lane between Owsram and Halifax.

δ. With digitated leaves.

92. *Oxalis lupinifolia*, or lupin-leaved wood-forrel: styles very short; calyx smooth; leaflets flat. 93. *Oxalis flava*, or narrow-leaved wood-forrel: styles very short; calyx capitate-ciliate; leaflets channelled-converging. 94. *Oxalis flabellifolia*, or fan-leaved wood-forrel: styles of middling length; leaflets linear. 95. *Oxalis pectinata*: styles very long; leaflets smooth. 96. *Oxalis tomentosa*: styles very long; leaflets very hirsute underneath. The five last species are natives of the Cape of Good Hope.

Propagation and Culture. The European and North-American sorts require no particular culture. If the roots of the common wood-forrel are planted in a moist shady border, they will thrive and multiply; and, if kept clean from weeds, will require no other care. If the seeds of the other sorts are sown in an open border, the plants

will rise freely; and, if they are permitted to scatter, there will be a plentiful supply of plants.

The numerous species from the Cape of Good Hope must be planted in pots, which may be sheltered in the dry stove, or under a hot-bed frame in winter, where they may have as much free air as possible in mild weather. Most of them may be easily increased by offsets from the roots or bulbs which come out from the side of the stalks, generally in great abundance. Of *O. repatrix* in particular, Jacquin says, that as it runs along it puts forth bulbs in such abundance as in a short time to fill the pots with plants; but that, in four years during which he had cultivated it, he had only a single flower; which is common in plants that are suffered to run at the roots.

The sorts from the East and West Indies, being more tender than these, require to be placed in a stove kept to a moderate degree of warmth in winter. They are propagated by seeds, sown in pots, plunged into a moderate hot-bed. When the plants come up, set them singly in pots filled with light sandy earth, and plunged into a fresh hot-bed, shading them from the sun till they have taken new root; after which they must be treated in the same manner as other tender plants from the same countries. Jacquin remarks of *O. barrelieri* (n. 4.) from South America, that when sowed early in the spring, it grew luxuriantly in the stoves, produced seed abundantly, which, from the elasticity of the capsule, could not be collected without great difficulty, and that it always perished in the winter; but that, when it was sown later in the season, it sometimes continued through the winter, and flowered the next spring, but always continued in a languid state. See *PORTULACA* and *RUMEX*.

OX'BOROUGH, a village in Norfolk, to the south-east of Downham, on the river Ouse, with a fair on March 25. Here has been a military foss, where, on planting an orchard at the foot of the hill, the bones of men, and old pieces of armour, were dug up in abundance.

OX'BOW, a fertile tract in the state of Vermont, formed by a bend in the river Connecticut, near Newbury.

OX'EHAL, or OXENHALL. See DARLINGTON, vol. v.

OX'EN CREEK, a river of Maryland, which runs into the Potomack in lat. 38. 55. N. lon. 77. 8. W.

OX'ENBACH, a town of Austria: nine miles south of Ips.

OX'ENBERG, a village of Denmark, in the island of Funen, near Assens, where the count of Oldenburg was defeated by Christian III. in the year 1535.

OX'ENDEN, a village in Northamptonshire, south of Harborough. An echo in the steeple of the church repeats thirteen syllables.

OX'ENFORD, a village in Surrey, on the river Wey, south-west of Godalming. In Bonfield nunnery, near it, there is a spring, whose water was good for sore eyes and ulcers; and about it hart's-tongue grows in great plenty. Near it was dug up, in the last century, a quantity of old English coins and gold rings.

OXENSTIER'NA (Axel), a celebrated Swedish minister, son of baron Gabriel Oxenstierna, was born at Fano in Upland, in 1583. His father having died during his infancy, he was educated with great care, under the inspection of a tender mother; and, on leaving school, was sent for farther improvement to Germany, where he studied at Rostock, Wittenberg, and Jena; and made great progress in the languages, and in various branches of science. The principal object of his application, however, was theology, which he prosecuted with great diligence; and in this was encouraged by his relations, who intended him for the ecclesiastical state: and, though he afterwards devoted himself to a secular employment, he retained, during his whole life, a strong attachment to the study of theology, and an ardent desire to promote the diffusion of the evangelic doctrine.

When he had finished his academic courses, he paid a visit

a visit to most of the German courts; and, being recalled in 1602, with all the other Swedish nobility then in foreign countries, to take the oath of fidelity to Charles IX. he was soon after received into the service of that monarch; who, in 1606, sent him as envoy to the court of Mecklenburg. In 1609, when he had completed the twenty-sixth year of his age, he was admitted a member of the senate; being the fourteenth of his family who, in uninterrupted succession from father to son, had sat in that assembly. The first public business undertaken by him after this period, was the adjustment of some differences which had arisen in Esthonia between the Livonian nobility and the city of Revel, and which he brought to a happy conclusion.

He had now given such a favourable display of his talents, that the king, finding the powers of his own mind weakened by the infirmity of years, made choice of Oxenstierna to be guardian to the royal family, and placed him at the head of the regency. On the accession of the new sovereign, Gustavus-Adolphus, he was promoted to be chancellor; and in 1613, when overtures were made for peace between Sweden and Denmark, he was appointed chief negotiator on the part of the former. Next year he accompanied the king on his expedition into Germany, and soon after had the satisfaction of seeing an end put to hostilities between Russia and Sweden by an honourable peace, concluded at Stolborn. In 1620, he conveyed the intended consort of his sovereign from Brandenburg; in 1622, he attended the king to Livonia; and, being afterwards sent to Prussia with several regiments, he was nominated governor-general of all the districts in that country subjected to the Swedish arms.

When the imperialists entered Pomerania, in order to make themselves masters of the shores of the Baltic, Oxenstierna was dispatched to the duke of Pomerania, to treat respecting the admittance of a Swedish garrison into Stralsund, in room of the Danish troops, which at that time were in possession of the place; he then proceeded to Denmark, to prevail on his Danish majesty to sanction this arrangement; and afterwards, through the mediation of the French and English courts, brought the negotiation for peace with Poland to such a state, that a suspension of hostilities for six years was agreed upon.

That Oxenstierna was now in high favour with his sovereign, appears by a letter which he wrote to him in 1630, from Pomerania, when he was about to take the field against the imperialists. When the seat of the war was transferred farther towards the centre of Germany, Gustavus found the presence of his chancellor necessary, in order that he might profit by his talents and advice. He was therefore invested with full authority in all civil and military affairs on the Rhine; and, the king having afterwards advanced into Bavaria and Franconia, Oxenstierna fixed his head-quarters at Mentz; whence he proceeded with the troops he had collected to join his majesty, and then took up his station with some regiments in the upper part of Germany, while Gustavus advanced to Lutzen, where he fell gloriously in the arms of victory, in the year 1632. Oxenstierna was much affected, but not dispirited, by this melancholy event. He collected more troops for the defence of Sweden and the allies; and undertook a journey to Dreßden and Berlin, to concert measures with the electors of Brandenburg and Saxony in regard to the prosecution of the war. An unlimited commission was now given him by the Swedish government to pursue such plans, both in regard to negotiations and to the Swedish army in Germany, as he might think most conducive to the benefit of his country. In consequence of the power thus delegated to him, he entered into a correspondence with different foreign states; proceeded to the congress at Heilbrunn, and was there acknowledged as director of the allied powers, distinguished by the name of the Evangelic League. This elevation gave rise to much discontent, and excited against him no

little jealousy, which was greatly fomented by the French; but the efforts of his enemies were ineffectual, and were not able to lessen his consideration, nor to prevent the flattering mark of respect offered to him by the evangelic states, of being created elector of Mentz. In the meantime, he undertook a journey to France and Holland, in order to gain over these two powers to the evangelic party; but, on his return to Saxony, he was much mortified to find every thing in the utmost disorder. The foreign generals were wavering in their attachment to Sweden; the soldiers, discontented on account of their pay being in arrears, manifested a mutinous spirit; a great part of the allies had become disheartened, in consequence of the blow given to their cause by the unfortunate battle of Norlingen; and, to complete this disastrous state of affairs, the elector of Saxony had declared in favour of the enemies of Sweden. Oxenstierna, however, by his prudent and judicious conduct, found means to revive the drooping spirits of his party, and to surmount all these difficulties.

Having thus retrieved the affairs of Germany, and placed them on a more secure footing, he was recalled to Sweden in 1636, after being absent from it about ten years; and, as he now wished to retire from the more busy scenes of life, he resigned the authority with which he had been invested, and took his seat in the senate as chancellor of the kingdom, and as one of the five guardians of the queen. His chief care, after this period, was to instruct the queen in every thing that related to the art of government. With this view, he communicated to her the best rules and most useful maxims for the regulation of her conduct; and, as he had nothing so much at heart as to bring the German war to a happy termination, he dispatched, as plenipotentiary, his son, John Oxenstierna, to co-operate for that purpose; and peace was at length concluded by the famous treaty of Westphalia. Oxenstierna assisted at Bromsebo at the negotiation with Denmark, in 1645; and, on his return, queen Christina conferred on him the title of count. At the same time he was chosen chancellor of the academy of Upsal; an office which he discharged with great zeal for the success and prosperity of that seminary.

When Christina made known her resolution of naming a successor to the Swedish throne, Oxenstierna was one of those members of the senate who strongly opposed this measure: he however showed a much greater opposition to the steps which the queen took to abdicate the crown; and, when the act of abdication was discussed, he feigned indisposition, that he might avoid the mortification of being present at the debates on a measure which he conceived to be fraught with so much evil. From that day he became more and more dissatisfied with public affairs, but without deserting his duty, which he continued to discharge with credit to himself and advantage to his country. To add to his uneasiness, he found that the finances of the kingdom were in a deranged state, and that the national debt amounted to several millions: a circumstance which gave him more pain, as the Swedish territories had been considerably enlarged during the course of the preceding years, and as trade and the public revenue, in consequence of his judicious measures, had been more improved in the reign of Gustavus-Adolphus than they had been in those of his predecessors. In the latter part of his life he was subject to frequent fits of weakness, which often threatened his dissolution. With one of these he was one day seized in the king's apartment; and, being unable to go home without assistance, he began seriously to prepare for that awful change which he expected, and which took place soon after, in the month of August 1654.

Oxenstierna was undoubtedly a man of great talents. His character may be put in competition with that of the most celebrated men who have acted a distinguished part on the grand theatre of the world; and his name will, at all times, be classed among those of the immortal geni-

uses who have done honour to mankind. The natural powers of his mind were strengthened by an excellent education, and by the study of the most useful sciences. No person was better acquainted with the art of prying into the recesses of the human heart. His political sagacity excited no less respect than admiration; and he lived at a period which gave him an opportunity of displaying, to its full extent, the strength and solidity of his judgment. The form of government which he drew up, at the command of his sovereign, and which was adopted by the Swedish states in 1634, was considered as a masterpiece of political wisdom. His eloquence was concise, but nervous. He possessed the happy talent of foreseeing the various results with which any measure might be attended, and of thence deducing the best rules for directing him in his public conduct. His integrity not only procured him friends, but enabled him to outstrip all his competitors, and to overawe those who were hostile to his designs. The storms and vexations to which he was often exposed, he withstood with firmness, prudence, and magnanimity. The independence of his country was the darling object of his heart; and he possessed talents sufficient to defend it against every attack. Though he was classed among those who at that time were called *aristocrats*, he was never deficient in deference, fidelity, and respect, to his superiors; and on that account they loved and esteemed him. He exerted himself with so much zeal, particularly after his return from Germany, to introduce economy in the public expenditure, to revive commerce, and encourage manufactures, that, in this respect, he is entitled to a place among the most eminent of the Swedish patriots. A list of his works, as well as of the manuscripts which he left behind him, may be seen in *Stiernman's Bibliotheca Suiæ-Gothica*. We shall, however, here remark, that the second part of the "*Historia Belli Sueco-Germanici*," ascribed in general to P. B. Chemnitz, was composed by Oxenstierna. He compiled also the work "*De Arcanis Austriacæ Domus*," published by the same Chemnitz, under the name of Hypolitus à Lapide. *Gezelii Biographiska Lexicon*.

OXENSTIERNA had two sons, John and Eric, who were both men of talent, and obtained promotion.

OXFORD, a city of England, and capital of the county to which it gives name, the see of a bishop, and an university, situated on a gentle eminence, at the union of the Cherwell and the Thames, and anciently surrounded with walls, of which considerable remains are yet to be seen. Oxford is distant from London fifty-four miles, twenty-three from Henley, and seven and three quarters from Woodstock.

The town is situated on a broad eminence, which rises so gradually as to be hardly perceptible, in the midst of a most beautiful extent of meadows to the south, east, and west, and of corn-fields to the north. The vales on the east are watered by the river Cherwell, and those on the west and south by the main stream, and several branches, of the Isis. Both rivers meet towards the south-east. The landscape is bounded on every side, the north excepted, by a range of hills covered with woods. The opening to the north admits a free current of fresh air, and entirely removes all the inconvenience which would otherwise arise from the noxious vapours of a watery situation. From some of the surrounding hills, the traveller is surprised with an unparalleled prospect of magnificence and plenty; of numerous spires, domes, and turrets, with the combined charms of verdure, water, and trees. The soil is a fine gravel; and, on the whole, the situation is not less healthy than agreeable.

That part of the town properly denominated the *city*, and originally enclosed with walls, is not more than two miles in circumference, and of an oblong figure. The suburbs are most considerable on the north, east, and west sides; containing the parishes of Holiwell, Magdalen, St. Clement, St. Giles, and St. Thomas; with the colleges of Baliol, Trinity, Wadham, Worcester, St. John,

and Magdalen. The walls, from that part of them which remains as a boundary to New College on the north and east, appear to have been embattled with bastions at one hundred and fifty feet distance from each other. The walls likewise, but without their battlements, serve as a fence to Merton College on the south and east. A few detached fragments of them are discernible at other places. The whole town is about three miles in circumference. The principal street is the High-street, running from Magdalen-bridge to Carfax-church. Its length and breadth are hardly to be paralleled; and it is remarkably clean and well paved. It derives its principal grandeur from the fronts of three magnificent colleges, together with the churches of St. Mary and All Saints. This street would be less beautiful were it in a straight line: from its tendency to a curve, it affords a gradual and unexpected display of its parts, and successively surprises us, at every turn, with a new object. This street, but under different names, is continued towards the castle. The next considerable street, by some called Fish-street, leads from Carfax to a bridge over the Isis, on which formerly stood a turret called Friar Bacon's Study. It is adorned with the stately front of the college of Christchurch, which is extended to the length of three hundred and eighty-two feet. In the same street is the town-hall, where the assizes for the county, and the town and county sessions, are held; a neat and commodious edifice; partly erected at the expense of Thomas Rowney, esq. the late representative, and high-steward, of the city. From Carfax (where formerly stood a conduit erected by Otho Nicholson) we pass on the north into the Corn-market; and from thence, by Magdalen parish-church on the right, and Friar's Entry on the left, being the passage to the Carmelite friary in Beaumont, into St. Giles's; which is a street of extraordinary breadth; and, from the trees left before St. John's college, and those in the front of the church, has the appearance of an elegant village. On the east side stands St. John's college; and the town, as well as the street, is terminated at this end by St. Giles's church.

These are the chief entrances. The principal bridges are, 1. Magdalen-bridge, over the Cherwell, being five hundred and twenty-six feet in length, by which we enter the town from London. 2. High-bridge, or Hithe-bridge, in the western suburbs, over the Isis, consisting of three arches. 3. Folly-bridge, as it is commonly called, in the southern suburb, on the same river, over which is the Abingdon road, which leads to various parts of Berkshire, &c. This consists of three arches, and is, like the rest, entirely built with stone.

The origin of this famous town has been a subject of anxious investigation among the learned in different ages; and much curious but fanciful speculation has been exhibited by those who were ambitious to bestow on it a claim to very remote antiquity. John Ross, or Rous, whom Dugdale terms a "famous antiquary," even asserts, that a town was built here by Memphric king of the Britons, upwards of a thousand years before the Christian era. This town, the same author observes, was first called *Cuer-Memphric*, in honour of its founder; then *Bellestium*, from a pretty mountain near it; afterwards, *Ridohen*, implying, in the Celtic language, a Ford of Oxen; and *Cuer-Voffei*, from Bosfo, the name of an earl who was contemporary with king Arthur. Such a view of the origin of Oxford, however, though accredited and repeated by some antiquaries of modern times, is justly considered by Camden and others to be fabulous; and the fact is, that no mention of Oxford occurs during the Roman era; for the idea of Wood and Leland, that it was the *Calleva* of that celebrated people, and a place of splendour and notoriety under their government, has been proved to be altogether erroneous. Indeed, no credit can be given, by the rational enquirer, to any statement respecting it till the reign of Alfred, when it appears to have been famous for a monastery dedicated to the Holy Trinity. This was founded in 727, and was most probably the nucleus

cleus whence the town actually derived its origin, by collecting around it the habitations of the laity. At all events, whether this was the source of its existence or not, it is certain that a town of some kind occupied the site of Oxford in the tenth century. In 979 it was mostly burnt, and in 1002 again suffered the same fate. It soon revived, however, but only to encounter fresh disasters. In 1009, Swein king of Denmark set fire to it; and when, in revenge, king Ethelred ordered a general massacre of the Danes throughout all his dominions, the command was executed with terrible fidelity at Oxford. No regard was paid either to sex or age; even the altars were polluted with the blood of the devoted victims. Among those who perished on this occasion, was the lady Gunilda, sister to the Danish monarch. This savage policy of the Saxon king inflamed the resentment of Swein to the highest pitch; he consequently made a descent upon England with an overwhelming force, and laid in ashes many of the principal towns; but it appears that he only frightened the inhabitants of Oxford into a surrender, and imposed upon them a heavy contribution. About three years after this event, Ethelred having returned from France, whither he had fled to avoid the vengeance of Swein, invited some of the Danish nobles hither to a conference, and treacherously caused two of their number to be put to death. The remainder, fearing the same fate, immediately took to arms, but were overpowered; and either fell by the sword, or were consumed in the conflagration of St. Frid's church, in which some of them had sought protection from the rage of their assailants. During the subsequent contests of the Danes and Saxons, Oxford frequently suffered severely. It attained, however, at this period, a very high degree of political importance. King Edmund, surnamed Ironside, occasionally resided here; and was unhappily murdered in the town, November 30th, 1016. Canute the Great held his court frequently at Oxford; and in 1022 he assembled here a general council, in which the laws of Edward were discussed, and made binding upon all his subjects, Danes as well as English. The same monarch, in a subsequent parliament, confirmed the edicts of king Edgar. Harold, surnamed Harefoot, likewise fixed his chief residence at this place, which was the scene both of his coronation and of his death.

When William the Conqueror made a progress to the north, after he had been crowned at Westminster, the inhabitants of Oxford, being much attached to their deceased sovereign, refused to open their gates to the usurper of his throne. The king was therefore compelled to obtain entrance by force of arms; and, as a punishment for their resistance, he levied upon the townsmen a tax much higher than was paid by other towns. The better, however, to restrain their rebellious spirit, he conferred the government of Oxford on Robert de Oigli, a Norman of tried valour, and empowered him to build and fortify a castle. This structure was of great size and strength, and was raised on the west side of the town, near the river. After the completion of the castle, Oxford became more submissive; and, long before the termination of the Conqueror's reign, appears to have been perfectly reconciled to the Norman government. The immediate successors of William frequently made it the place of their residence, and on several occasions summoned parliaments and councils to it. When William Rufus found his throne threatened by formidable insurrections in the north, he convened a general council here, and, declaring his resolution to govern his subjects with strict impartiality, succeeded in confirming the allegiance of many of his great barons, who might otherwise have deserted his interest; and, through their means, was enabled to quell the revolt. Stephen several times held his court here; and, during the contest for the crown between him and the empress Maud, the latter having taken up her abode in the castle, was besieged in it by the king

in person, and only effected her escape, by stratagem, the day previous to its surrender.

Henry II. convened several councils at Oxford; and in the year 1177, the princes and chief lords of Wales did homage to him here for their territories and estates. This monarch resided, during a greater part of his reign, in the palace of Beaumont, which had been erected in the north suburbs by Henry I. Within the walls of that structure, his heroic son, Richard Cour-de-Lion, was born, and subsequently held a council here anterior to his departure for the Holy Land. King John passed many of his troubled hours in the same palace; and had a meeting with his indignant barons in the vicinity about two months before he was compelled to sign that grand bulwark of English liberty, Magna Charta. Henry III. following the example of his predecessors, occasionally fixed his abode at Oxford, and held many parliaments and councils here on subjects of great political importance.

In the reign of Henry VIII. Oxford was constituted the seat of a bishop's see, and consequently elevated to the rank of a city. By order of queen Mary, archbishop Cranmer, with bishops Ridley and Latimer, were executed here, October 1555, for heresy to the Romish church. Her successor, queen Elizabeth, frequently visited Oxford, as will be more particularly mentioned in the sequel of this article. In the year 1577 the plague raged with dreadful mortality in this town. While the court sat on the trial of a popish bookfeller, accused of circulating offensive pamphlets, a sudden sickness seized nearly the whole of the persons present; and, within 48 hours, upwards of 300 persons died, among whom were the lord chief-baron, the high-sheriff, several justices of the peace, and most of the jurors. King James I. withdrew to this city when the plague broke out in London. The malady, however, likewise found its way hither, and began its devastations with such awful effect, that the scholars fled from the university, and the citizens shut their shops. "Not a living creature," says Aycliffe, "besides nurses and corpse-bearers, was to be seen in the streets, which were covered with grass, even in the market-place."

Charles I. held a parliament at Oxford in the early part of his reign; and at a subsequent period, when he found it expedient to quit London, he chose this city for his place of abode, being well assured of the loyalty of the citizens, and of the collegians. The whole melancholy winter of 1646 was spent by that monarch within the walls of Christchurch, where he assembled the shattered remains of his parliament, and whence he wrote the memorable letter to lord Digby, declaring that, "if he could not live as a king, he would die as a gentleman." The negotiations for peace between Charles and the republican parliament were chiefly carried on at Oxford; but no military event of any consequence occurred here throughout the war, though the city was strongly fortified, and its possession considered an object of great importance to both parties. It was surrendered by the express command of the king himself, after he had been made prisoner by the Scots. The last parliament which met at Oxford was convened in the year 1681 by king Charles II. As party-spirit then prevailed in a very high degree, its meeting was attended with many boisterous circumstances. The popular faction affecting to dread some secret machinations among the papists, their representatives entered Oxford with a large train of servants and partisans as body-guards. Numerous bands of soldiery were drawn up round the royal quarters; and, on the whole, according to Hume, "the assembly rather bore the appearance of a tumultuous Polish diet than of a regular English parliament." This parliament lasted only seven days, having been dissolved by the king, to prevent a bill of banishment and exclusion from the throne being passed against his brother James duke of York, afterwards

terwards James II. in whose reign many scenes of turbulence happened here, in consequence of his illegal interference with the civil rights both of the city and university. Since that time, the annals of Oxford afford no very remarkable historical particulars.

THE UNIVERSITY.

The origin of the university is no less involved in doubt and obscurity than the early annals of the town. Some of the more eager disputants for the remote antiquity of Oxford contend that it was a seminary of learning immediately after the destruction of Troy. "The studies of literature," observes Middendorp, "flourished here ever since those excellent philosophers, with the Trojans, coming out of Greece, under the command of Brute, entered and settled in Britain." Other writers, less fantastical, wish to show that the university was founded by Arviragus, a British king who lived in the time of Domitian, about seventy years subsequent to the Christian era. A third class, with greater appearance of candour, decline to affix any precise date to its foundation, but uphold the opinion that it took place during the government of the Romans. All these notions, however, we are to treat as chimerical, and unworthy attention. We shall therefore pass them over without further remark, and descend at once to a period later by about a thousand years.

Among the many national improvements attributed to the great Alfred, the foundation, or, as some will have it, the restoration, of the university of Oxford, is one of the most eminent. John Rous, the historian already mentioned, affirms, that he established within this city, at his own expense, three teachers of grammar, arts, and divinity, in three different places. One of the fragments of Leland says, "Alfred founded the university of Oxford, at the instigation of his brother St. Neot;" and in the edition of Asser, the contemporary of the monarch, which was published by Camden in 1603, there are several passages corroborative of this assertion. The critical inquiries of succeeding writers, however, have clearly proved these passages to be interpolations, and to have formed no part of the genuine work of Asser. Many conclusive arguments have likewise been adduced, to show that Alfred never founded any school-establishment except that of Winchester. Add to this the fact that no mention is made of Alfred in the early statutes, or other records, of the university; and it is not possible to resist the conviction that Alfred had no concern either in its original foundation, or its revival at any subsequent period.

At what time then, it will perhaps be asked, was the university really founded? To this question our answer is, that its progress to that rank was gradual, and that, in all probability, no regular system of education, or corporate body for the purposes of learning, existed at Oxford till about the twelfth or thirteenth century. It is admitted, however, that there were numerous schools for the acquisition of knowledge established here at a much earlier date; but these were either of a private nature, or attached to some of the religious houses with which the town abounded. The clergy, before the conquest, monopolized the small portion of learning which, in those early days, was permitted to enliven the otherwise dark and cloudy atmosphere of European ignorance. They were almost the only teachers to whom the people could apply for instruction. Every monastery, therefore, was in fact a school; and, whenever there chanced to be a number of them at one place, it might not improperly be called a seat of learning. It could not, however, be regarded in the light of an *university*; as that term, in its modern signification at least, implies a corporate establishment, with the privileges of holding property and conferring degrees. In Domesday-book no mention of such a corporation occurs at Oxford.

Under this view of the subject, it seems reasonable to

conclude, that, when the Conqueror mounted the throne, Oxford enjoyed no greater pre-eminence in learning than what naturally resulted from the number of its monastic establishments, and from the circumstance of its having been, during the preceding century, a favourite residence of the English monarchs. This, indeed, was a certain degree of distinction; and would assist in paving the way to the future celebrity of the town. Its schools might for these reasons be more numerous, and better attended, than in other towns, and might possibly possess some few trifling privileges, which would be gradually augmented, till the plan of a modern university was completed.

Henry I. having been educated here, seems to have paid great attention to Oxford as a seminary for learning, and is said to have granted to the teachers and the scholars some important privileges in their individual capacity. In the reign of Stephen, learning sunk to a very low ebb, and continued in the same degraded state during that of his successor Henry II. Richard I. however, stimulated its revival in every part of his dominions; but especially gave encouragement to Oxford, because of its having been the place of his birth. Many new halls or schools were established under his royal patronage, and with money issued by his command from his own exchequer. To so flourishing a condition, indeed, did he raise Oxford, that the number of scholars at its several halls, in the early part of the succeeding reign, is stated to have been not less than three thousand. In the reign of Henry III. anno 1229, a serious dispute having arisen between the students and citizens of Paris, the king seized the opportunity to advance the interests of Oxford, by inviting the Parisian masters and scholars to settle there. Accordingly, no fewer than a thousand of them resorted thither; but these foreigners introduced such a dangerous levity of manners, that tumults were continually breaking out, and caused great alarm and disquiet in the town. They had sometimes even the audacity to interfere in political matters; and thus it may reasonably be supposed, that, though the number of scholars was great, yet the real votaries of learning were few. But still amongst these few some names have attained considerable distinction from their eminence in the fashionable literature of the age, which was deeply corrupted with the subtleties of the Aristotelian philosophy, and the mysteries of theological belief. The reign of Henry III. however, will be always memorable in the annals of the university, on account of an important acquisition of private patronage which prevailed towards its conclusion. Previous to that period the teachers and scholars lodged and studied in mansions, or *halls*, rented from the townsmen; and this was one great source of the numerous quarrels which were constantly taking place between them. To remedy this evil, as well as to encourage learning, by conferring upon its professors more complete independence than had hitherto been enjoyed, several public-spirited individuals purchased, or built, large houses for their reception, and set the example of appropriating funds for the support of those who might not possess the competent means of pursuing their studies to advantage. By such progressive steps, a taste for erecting and endowing *colleges* was introduced.

The reign of Edward I. is marked with no very interesting features in the annals of literature. That prince, continually occupied in war, and in schemes of political aggrandizement, had little leisure to attend to the advancement of learning. Some privileges, however, were conferred on the university in his time; and, towards the conclusion of his reign, a violent dispute arose between the *university*, for such the school-establishments here had now really become, and the bishop of Lincoln, in whose diocese Oxford was then included. This dispute related to the limits of the bishop's jurisdiction in university-matters; and ultimately led to the total emancipation of the learned body from ecclesiastical authority, under the sanction

sanction of a papal bull, granted by pope Boniface in the year 1301.

Edward II. granted many additional privileges to the university, and confirmed all the grants of his predecessors. In this monarch's reign *lectures* were first instituted in the Hebrew language. The original lecturer, John de Bristol, a converted Jew, is said to have been a man of greater science and erudition than was common in his age; and his lectures were received with the greatest approbation.

Edward III. having been educated at Oxford, retained, during his whole life, a high veneration for the university, and was more liberal in his grants to it than any of his predecessors. Though almost constantly engaged in war, his vast and capacious mind did not forget the interests of literature. He effected many regulations in the police of the town, highly useful, and calculated to promote the health and comfort of the numerous students by which it was frequented. While he added progressively to the power of the superior officers of the university, he was equally careful to increase the consequence and security of the scholars. He took the most decided measures to root out the ancient animosity arising from difference of country as to north and south, which had given birth to many dangerous tumults; and endeavoured to turn the current of jealousy into the channel of emulation. The state of society, however, had not yet advanced far enough to teach men to restrain their ardour in debate within the bounds of decorum. The increase of learning augmented the violence of discussion on doctrinal points; and the university became split into sects or parties, not one of which recollected that urbanity should form the basis of disputation. Among the more celebrated of the disputants at this period, were Duns Scotus, and Oakham. The former was the founder of the sect called the Nominals, and the latter the patron of the Reals. The distinction between these sects does not appear clearly upon record; but one subject of difference was the relative authority of the civil and ecclesiastical power. Oakham, who maintained the pre-eminence of the civil power, is said even to have convinced the pope himself by the influence of his oratory. He was styled by his holiness the Invincible Doctor, and his antagonist the Subtle Doctor.

The reign of Richard II. is distinguished by the appearance, at this university, of one of the brightest luminaries that had hitherto enlightened the religious hemisphere. We allude to Dr. John Wicliffe, a man whose name is yet deservedly venerated by all who regard the reformation as an occurrence favourable to the interests of Christianity, and to the progress of the human mind. This eminent character was the first warden of Canterbury-college; and it was at Oxford that he read those lectures on divinity which laid the basis of the religious liberty we now enjoy. He loosened the shackles of papal thralldom which Henry VIII. afterwards burst asunder, though from motives of a very opposite nature to those which animated the father of the reformers. No sooner were the doctrines of this great man divulged at Oxford, than they were approved of by the judicious, and received with enthusiasm by a large proportion of the university. But, though the spirit of the university was thus favourable to liberty of opinion, learning was by no means in a flourishing condition at this era. The number of students had greatly diminished; and many of the halls and schools were let for purposes entirely different from their original destination. Some new foundations, however, took place during this reign; but the ages which succeeded were dull and fordid in a lamentable degree. The reigns of Henries IV. V. and VI. are only memorable for the violence of the religious dissensions which prevailed, and had nearly produced a dissolution of the university. Thus circumstanced, the accession of the house of York was viewed by many of the collegiates as a matter of indifference, and by some was even hailed with joy, from a

hope that their situation might be bettered under the new dynasty. Nor were they deceived in their expectations; for no sooner was Edward IV. seated on the throne, than he assumed the title of "Protector of the University," and in many respects proved a zealous friend to the cause of learning. Richard III. who is commonly stigmatised as the worst of tyrants, was likewise a great benefactor to the university, and an encourager of literature. Among many other judicious measures adopted by this monarch for its advancement, he passed a law, empowering the university "to import or export books at pleasure;" a permission which may be rationally construed to signify an entire freedom of the press, and liberty of discussion.

The reign of Henry VII. from a variety of fortuitous causes, is entitled to the proud distinction of having fostered with more than common success the revival of learning. From the many discouraging particulars of the preceding century, genuine scholarship had become almost an obsolete character, in a professional light. The Greek language had not only fallen into general disuse, but was affectingly held in contempt by a great body of the scholars, who formed themselves into an association under the name of *Trojans*. So strong, indeed, were the existing prejudices against this noble and harmonious language, that, when Erasmus repaired hither for the purpose of teaching Greek, several leading men in the university read lectures against him in the schools, and endeavoured to attach ridicule both to the man, and to the knowledge which it was his object to disseminate.

The period during which Henry VIII. held the sceptre, is, in some respects, one of the brightest in the annals of the university. Soon after his accession, this prince confirmed all the grants of his predecessors, and honoured Oxford with a regal visit. Wolsey, so celebrated for his unexpected elevation to the highest pinnacle of power, for his talents, and for his fall, proved himself one of the most munificent patrons of learning that graced his own or any other age. In 1518, this illustrious prelate and statesman founded seven lectures for theology, civil law, physic, philosophy, mathematics, Greek, and rhetoric; and appointed all such men as were most distinguished for their abilities and for their knowledge in these respective branches of learning. His efforts to promote the good of the university were indeed vigorous and uniform. Through his means the Greek language was again received into estimation, and a taste for elegant literature was introduced; and this happily supplanted the quibbling sophistry which had hitherto occupied the chief attention of the learned. Wolsey also founded the college now called Christ-church. About the same time the colleges of Brazen-nose and Corpus Christi were also founded; the former by Wm. Smyth bishop of Lincoln, and sir Robert Sutton, and the latter by Richard Fox bishop of Winchester. Yet, soon after, when Henry began his system of spoliation and suppression, the university presented a most dismal spectacle. The plague, together with the calamities of the church, concurred in driving the students from their habitations; and, so few in number were those who resorted hither at this era, that, in the year 1546, only ten inceptors in arts, and three in divinity and law, are recorded.

The accession of Edward VI. brought with it evils of no less magnitude than those which marked the footsteps of his father. The first act of this young prince's counsellors, (for to them must belong the merit or demerit of almost every act of his reign,) was a gross infringement on the rights and privileges of the university, as it directed "that no gownsmen should concern themselves at the election of any president, fellow, or scholar, or do any thing to oppose the visitation now ordered by the king." Accordingly, when the threatened visitation took place, the royal commissioners executed whatever measures they deemed proper. They entirely changed the form of the university-government, and framed a new code of statutes, called Edward's Statutes, which remained

remained in force until archbishop Laud introduced a better model. They moreover despoiled the libraries, and destroyed many rare manuscripts on subjects of science, merely because they had been written by votaries of the old school. This treatment so inflamed the few remaining scholars, that the greater part of them quitted Oxford, and retired to foreign seminaries to prosecute their studies.

When queen Mary ascended the throne, the ancient forms and government were again established, and the late regulations completely abrogated. The popish party, now in their turn predominant, was not behind its antagonists in the work of cruelty and destruction. The ingenious arts were consigned to contempt; the divinity-school was seldom opened; there was scarcely one sermon preached in the city in a month; public lectures were neglected, either through insufficiency or idleness. The Greek tongue again fell into almost total disuse; and, in general, learning, in every branch, was sunk to the lowest ebb. For six years there were only three inceptors in divinity, eleven in civil law, and six in physic.

The death of Mary without issue, gave Elizabeth possession of the regal sceptre at a most critical juncture for the united interests of religion, as well as of learning. This wise and politic princess reversed all that her sister had effected in the constitution of the university. But, unlike her predecessors, she conducted the change with gentleness and moderation. Objectionable individuals were simply deprived of their places, or induced to resign; and no greater punishment than a few days' imprisonment was inflicted, even upon the obstinate opposers of the queen's measures. These, however, were some time before they produced the desired effect of restoring the university to any tolerable degree of prosperity. The shock occasioned by the versatile state of the court-religion during the three previous reigns, and the consequent uncertainty of ecclesiastical provision, was not to be quickly overcome. In the year 1560, not one person performed theological exercises in the schools, and only one in civil law, and three in physic. No divine, legislator, or physician, stood that year for a degree. In 1563 there were only three university-preachers in Oxford, and two of these shortly afterwards retired. Hence the pulpit was frequently supplied by laymen. Mr. Taverner, sheriff of Oxfordshire, mounted the pulpit, with his sword by his side, and his golden chain of office round his neck, and preached a sermon to the academics. This sufficiently evinces that the condition of ecclesiastical literature must have been low indeed, or the Oxonians never could have listened to such flagrant absurdity as the following: "Arriving at the Mount of St. Mary's," says this preacher at the commencement of his sermon, "in the stony stage [the pulpit was of stone] where I now stand, I have brought you some fine biscuits baked in the oven of charity, carefully conserved for the chickens of the church, the sparrows of the spirit, and the sweet swallows of salvation." And afterwards he goes on in this strain: "Here I find that all houses are ale-houses, matrimony is made a matter-of-money, and men place their paradise in a pair-of-dice. Was it so in the days of Noah? Ah! No!"

In the 13th year of queen Elizabeth the two universities were incorporated by act of parliament; and two years subsequent, the obligation of subscribing the Articles of the Church of England began to be rigidly enforced on all who entered into the ministry. This occasioned some disturbance, as there were many persons in the university who favoured the puritanical doctrines, and peremptorily refused their assent to the proposed articles. However, the university rapidly rose in consequence, and could boast among its members numerous individuals eminent for their proficiency in almost every branch of the liberal arts or sciences. Queen Elizabeth twice visited the university; and on one of these occasions delivered a Latin speech extempore, with so much ease and correctness as excited the surprise of all who heard her.

In this reign sir Thomas Bodley founded the Bodleian library, which has proved an highly useful and valuable addition to the university.

The reign of James I. is remarkable in the annals of the university, for the privilege it then acquired of sending two representatives to the national council. In this era, the disputes between the Papists, Episcopalians, and Puritans, were carried to a great height; and proved highly injurious to the interests of solid learning, by inducing too eager a thirst for controversial inquiry. On this account, sir Henry Savile informs us, "that geometry was almost totally unknown and abandoned;" and hence we may fairly presume that many of the other sciences were in a similar state of decay and neglect.

Charles I. in the early part of his reign, conferred some important benefits on the university. At the intercession of the chancellor, the celebrated archbishop Laud, he granted to it a new charter, in which its ancient liberties and privileges were explained and confirmed; and new ones were added. This charter was sealed with the great seal of England; and, to distinguish it from other grants, it was denominated the *Caroline Charter*. In 1636, the statutes of the university, after being corrected and enlarged, and approved of by the heads of the colleges, received the royal sanction; and in 1638 the statute ordering the examination of all candidates for degrees, was first put in execution. During the rebellion which broke out shortly after, the university maintained an inviolable allegiance to the unfortunate monarch; but its firmness was of little avail in checking the religious fanaticism which at this period possessed the minds of the predominant party. The dean and chapter's lands were sold; the episcopalian divines were ejected; the libraries were pillaged; and some of the more zealous votaries even proceeded so far as to destroy the ornaments and decorations of the several colleges, without regard to the circumstance whether they bore relation to matters of religion, or not. Classical learning now experienced a total stagnation. The candidates for holy orders were no longer required to be men of science and polite erudition: it was enough if they "abounded in grace," and were "endowed with the spirit of preaching." Still, amidst this melancholy scene of religious bigotry, a few men of real talent inhabited the more shady recesses of the university, and kept alive the dying embers of genuine knowledge. These individuals met together at stated periods, to communicate to each other their respective discoveries in physics and geometry; and thus laid the foundation of the Royal Society, the most honourable and scientific institution of which our country can boast.

Cromwell, who was elected chancellor of Oxford in 1650, gave several proofs of his predilection for learning; but the temper of the times is supposed to have checked his efforts for its revival and encouragement. On the restoration, however, this sentiment being in a great measure removed, the university was again replaced on its former basis. The lands of the dean and chapter were restored, and most of the persons who had suffered expulsion on account of their principles, were reinstated in their respective collegiate stations. Learning once more began to flourish; and some of those who were the proudest boasts of science and of literature matured their studies, or laid the foundation of their future eminence, here, in the reign of the second Charles.

But this pleasing aspect of affairs did not continue long: violent party-contentions disturbed the peace of the university during the whole reign of James II. who exhibited a signal proof of his determination to subvert the civil and religious liberties of the country, in his conduct towards Magdalen-college. It happened that, shortly after he had ascended the throne, the president of that establishment died; and the king transmitted an order for the election of a person named Farmer, as successor in that office. The fellows, however, knowing that Farmer was a man of contemptible character, petitioned his majesty either

either to leave them the freedom of choice which their statutes entitled them to assume, or to propose a more respectable individual for their head. James took no notice of this application; so that, when the day of election arrived, the fellows elected Dr. Hough for president. This measure roused the vengeance of the monarch, who viewed their refusal to obey his mandate as an act bordering on rebellion. He therefore repaired to Oxford in person, and commanded the fellows to appear before him at Christ-church; but, finding that even his own presence could not influence their decision, he expelled the whole of them, except two, from the college. This conduct of the monarch excited the detestation of all friends to cool reason and upright government; and in 1688, when James became alarmed by the preparations of the prince of Orange to invade his dominions, one of the first measures he adopted to conciliate his subjects, was the reinstatement of the expelled members of Magdalen-college.

From the period of the revolution to the present day, the university of Oxford has continued to flourish in an unexampled degree. Its revenues have been increased, and the system of education has generally kept pace with the improvements which have happily been accomplished in almost every branch of human science. The doctrines of the schools, indeed, were received and taught here for some time after they had been exploded in the northern universities; but they have now yielded, as in other seminaries, to the more rational views of the experimental philosophy. For some remarks on the state of national learning during the last century, and the peculiar features of university-tuition, discipline, and influence, see UNIVERSITY.

The university, as a corporate body, has been governed by statutes enacted at different periods, and sanctioned by charters granted in different reigns. Those at present in force were chiefly drawn up in 1620, and were confirmed, as already mentioned, by king Charles I. in the year 1635. In that charter the corporation is styled "The Chancellor, Masters, and Scholars, of the University of Oxford;" and this body is vested with the power of framing laws for its own government.

The principal officers of the university are, the chancellor; the high-steward; the vice-chancellor; two proctors; a public orator; a keeper of the archives; a registrar; numerous public lecturers and professors; two curators of the theatre; two clerks of the market; the Bodleian librarian, and the keeper of the Ashmolean Museum. The first five mentioned officers are invested with magisterial authority, and have the power of appointing deputies.—Of these,

The *Chancellor* is chosen by the members of convocation, and now holds his office for life, though formerly it was annual, or at most triennial. It is a station of great dignity, and is usually filled by a person of the first eminence in the kingdom. The duties of the chancellor are, to superintend the interests of the university, to defend its privileges, and to decide, either in person or by deputy, in all civil questions in which a member happens to be involved. For this purpose he is empowered to hold regular courts; he likewise presides, if present, at all university-meetings, and possesses an absolute negative on their proceedings. The present chancellor is lord Grenville, who was elected in the year 1809.

The *High Steward* is nominated by the chancellor, but must be approved of by convocation. He holds his office for life, and is bound to assist the chancellor, vice-chancellor, and proctors, in the execution of their several duties, and to sit in judgment in capital causes, where a member of the university, or a privileged person, is the party offending. He likewise holds the university court-leet, either in person or by deputy. Lord-chancellor Eldon, the present high-steward, was elected in 1801.

The *Vice-Chancellor*, who is always the head of some college, is appointed by the chancellor, and admitted, and sworn, in convocation. This office is annual, but

the same individual is usually named for four successive years. The vice-chancellor nominates four deputies, or pro-vice-chancellors, who must likewise be heads of colleges. His duties are, to enforce the university regulations, to call congregations, convocations, and courts, license taverns, expel delinquents, &c. The present vice-chancellor is John Cole, D.D. rector of Exeter-college, appointed in 1810.

The professors and lecturers are public officers, who have certain salaries allowed to them, on some foundation, and who are, in consequence, required to deliver lectures annually, on such subjects as the founders may have appointed in their charters, or wills. The lectureships at present in Oxford are twenty-five in number.

The whole business of the university, in its corporate capacity, is conducted in two separate assemblies, called the House of Congregation, and the House of Convocation.

The *House of Congregation* is constituted entirely of regents; either of necessary regents, or regents *ad placitum*. Of these, nine at least, besides the vice-chancellor and proctors, are required to make a congregation. The business of this assembly refers chiefly to the passing of graces and dispensations, and to the granting of degrees. All votes are given secretly, by whisper in the ear of the proctor.

The *House of Convocation*, which is composed of regents and non-regents alike, but with certain limitations, is privileged to investigate and determine every subject in which the interest of the university is concerned. In this assembly, laws are enacted, altered, or explained, without restriction, unless the statute proposed to be altered be a Caroline statute, and then the royal consent must be previously obtained. In both these meetings, the chancellor or vice-chancellor singly, and the two proctors jointly, are officially empowered to negative every proceeding. All questions are decided by a majority of votes; and all elections, except for members of parliament, are conducted by a private scrutiny in writing.

We have already noticed, that the privilege of sending burgesses to parliament was granted to this university by king James I. this was in the year 1603. The right of election is in the doctors and actual masters of arts, who are in number about 1200; the returning officers are the vice-chancellor and heads of colleges. "The political principles of the members of this university (says Mr. Oldfield) are, with a few exceptions, those of toryism. They have always assisted and given shelter to royalty, whenever it was distressed by the parliament or people. So little are they, however, to be influenced in the choice of their representatives, that they do not suffer any canvass to be made, nor either of the candidates to be, at the time of election, within ten miles of the jurisdiction of the university." The present members (elected Mar. 1820) are—sir Wm. Scott (brother of lord Eldon) and the right hon. Robert Peel, eldest son of sir R. Peel, bart.

The several *degrees* conferred by the university of Oxford, are those of Doctors of Divinity, Civil Law, Medicine, and Music; of Bachelors in these sciences, and of Masters and Bachelors of Arts. For the attainment of each of these degrees, a residence for a certain number of terms is required; but it is to be observed, that the terms kept by students at universities, vary from those observed by our courts of judicature, and from each other, as to their times of commencement and termination, though not in their titles.

It is only within these few years that the public examinations for degrees at Oxford have been at all placed on that footing of scholarship which they demand. The strictness of the new statute has, however, been considered, by some well-judging persons, to be carried to too great an extent; and instances have occurred, in which more exactness seems to have been required than is generally attainable by the youthful candidate. It is, no doubt, a most difficult and delicate point, to hit the precise medium of proper inquiry into the attainments of the

early scholar; but, to err on the liberal side, will probably always be found the safest.

Find'st thou the golden mean, where Right from Wrong
(Though e'er so close) runs clearly mark'd along?
Where Rigour ends ere Laxity begins,
And pardon'd faults stop short of licensed sins?
'Tis well. But, candid Rhedycina, say,
In this the reflux of thy brighter day,
Screws not thy hand too tight the strong machine,
Where thy young votaries ne'er before were seen?
How canst thou hope degenerate times like these
Will yield a host to storm Thucydides?
How canst thou bid them at so green an age,
Reap the full vigour of that attic page? *Sacculomastix*, 1819.

COLLEGES and HALLS.

The university contains twenty distinct endowed corporations, termed *colleges*; and five *halls*, or buildings appropriated for the residence of students, under the superintendence of a principal, who receives rent for their chambers. The following is an account of these institutions, according to the date of their respective charters of foundation.

1. MERTON COLLEGE, which is the oldest in point of legal establishment in the university, was founded by Walter de Merton, bishop of Rochester, and lord-chancellor of England, who began to erect the buildings about the year 1260, and established the college by charter, dated January 7, 1264, under the appellation of "*Domus Scholarum de Merton*." A second charter was granted in 1270, and a third in 1274; both confirming the original deed, and adding new privileges and possessions to those previously conferred. The first officers of this college were nominated in 1276, about two years after the completion of the buildings. Its chief benefactors, besides the founder, were Ella countess of Warwick, about the year 1295; John Willyott, chancellor of Exeter, in 1380; Dr. Thomas Jessop, physician, in 1595; William Rede bishop of Chichester; and sir Thomas Bodley. This college is situated in St. John's-street, to the east of Corpus Christi, and its buildings are arranged round three courts or quadrangles. The outer court to the street was rebuilt in 1589, with the exception of the tower and gatehouse, which were constructed in the early part of the fifteenth century, in the wardenship of Thomas Rodburne bishop of St. David's, and one of the most distinguished mathematicians of his age. Within this court are the warden's lodgings, some portions of which are supposed to be coeval with the original edifice. The second or grand court is of modern date, and exhibits a mixed style of architecture: the centre elevation is adorned with four tiers of columns, or four orders of architecture; but the third, or small court, is of ancient erection, and is supposed to have been entirely built about the same time with the library, which forms its south and west sides. This library was founded in 1376, by the bishop of Chichester above mentioned, and is the oldest structure, distinctly appropriated as such, in the kingdom. In 1550, when the work of reformation was conducted, in some instances, with more zeal than judgment, many of the printed books and manuscripts belonging to this institution were either sold or destroyed. Upon the restoration of the library, however, by sir Thomas Bodley, a considerable part of them was recovered by the liberality of those private individuals by whom they had been purchased. The hall of this college is remarkable, as having been the room in which queen Elizabeth was entertained at dinner, on the occasion of her visit to the university, with her privy-council, in 1592.

2. UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, as already noticed, is said to have owed its origin to king Alfred. Smith, in his history of this college, has proved to the satisfaction of every unprejudiced mind, that it was founded by the university, with the money of William of Durham, who died at Rouen in Normandy in the year 1249, and bequeathed

310 marks to purchase certain annual rents for the maintenance of ten, eleven, twelve, or more, masters. At first, the funds left by this benefactor were appropriated to the support of a limited number of individuals, (chosen from the various halls of the university,) who did not form an independent society, but were severally subordinate to the schools in which they had been educated. In 1280, however, they were constituted a society by themselves, under certain conditions; and in 1292, their privileges were confirmed and enlarged by a body of statutes. The situation of their house, or hall, at this period, is uncertain; but historians have generally placed it on part of the site of Brazen-nose College, and assert that they removed to the present college, in the High-street, about the year 1343. On this removal, they styled themselves the Masters and Scholars of the Hall of the University of Oxford, and their house University Hall; but in 1381, the latter began to be called Great University Hall. When the term College was first applied is not ascertained, nor is it known at what time the corporation was completed. This, however, most probably did not take place till about the year 1475, when the body of statutes still in force were enacted; but a common seal was used as early as the year 1320.

Numerous benefactors to this college appeared within the first century after its foundation; and in 1403 Walter Shirlaw bishop of Durham, gave the manor of Mark's Hall, in Essex, for the maintenance of three fellows, natives of York and Durham. Henry earl of Northumberland, in 1442, gave lands and the advowson of a rectory to support three bachelors or masters of arts from the dioceses of Durham, Carlisle, and York. In 1566, Joan Davys, wife of a citizen of Oxford, gave certain estates for the establishment of two logic lecturers, or one in logic and another in philosophy; and for an augmentation of the allowance to the masters and fellows. Francis Russell second earl of Bedford, Robert Dudley earl of Leicester, John Freyften of Altofts in Yorkshire, the Rev. Robert Gunsey, and sir Simon Bennet, were likewise very considerable donors. But the greatest benefactor of modern times was Dr. Radcliffe, who, besides rendering munificent assistance toward improving the buildings of the college, instituted and endowed two travelling fellowships for students in medicine. Each fellow receives 300l. per annum for ten years, the first five of which he is required to spend abroad.

University College stands on the south side of High-street, and consists principally of two quadrangular courts, one of which was built at various times between the years 1634 and 1675. It is a hundred feet square, with a chapel and hall on the south side. The other court, which was chiefly erected by Dr. Radcliffe, has only three sides, the fourth opening to the master's garden. These two quadrangles form a grand front towards the street, of about 260 feet in length, with two tower-gateways. The chapel of this college was built in 1665, and displays much painted glass in the windows. It also contains a cenotaph to the memory of sir William Jones, the celebrated orientalist, designed and executed by Flaxman, and is highly creditable to the talents of the artist. The library here was completed in 1669, and is furnished with a very valuable collection of books and manuscripts.

3. BALLIOL COLLEGE owes its foundation to John de Balliol, of Bernard Castle, in the county of Durham, father to the unfortunate king of Scotland of the same name. This gentleman, who possessed a taste for literature and a benevolence of disposition little prevalent in the thirteenth century, commenced it in the year 1263, and intended that it should maintain sixteen poor scholars of Oxford. He died, however, without having effected the design, and so suddenly, that he left no will, but verbally enjoined his lady and executors to take charge of, and give permanency to, his infant institution. Lady Dervorgille, accordingly, at the instigation of her confessor Richard Slickbury, hired a house on the site of the present

present college; and was so fortunate as to meet with the concurrence of the founder's executors in all her subsequent steps to perpetuate the establishment. In 1282 she appointed statutes under her seal, which are interesting; because they serve to throw some light on the modes of collegiate discipline at that early period. In 1284 this lady purchased a tenement called Mary's Hall; and, having repaired and enlarged it, transferred the scholars to this new residence, which was henceforth called New Balliol College. The same year she presented them with some lands in the county of Northumberland, and had their statutes confirmed by Oliver bishop of Lincoln, and by her son John de Balliol, who at that time held the Scottish sceptre under the protection of Edward I. But, notwithstanding these generous efforts, the revenues of the college still continued extremely small, not yielding above eight-pence a-week to each scholar. A number of benefactors, however, soon arose, and by their united contributions conferred a considerable degree of opulence on the institution. In 1294, Hugh de Wychenbroke gave the advowson of St. Lawrence, Old-Jewry, London; and in 1310, Hugh de Warkenby and William de Gotham gave four messuages in School-street, for the support of a chaplain to officiate in the oratory. In 1320, Richard de Hunstonsore also gave a tenement in Oxford. But these donations were trivial compared with the liberal gifts of sir William Fenton and sir Philip Somervyle. The benefaction of the latter, indeed, was deemed so considerable, as to entitle him to the honours of a second founder. A new body of statutes was drawn out under his sanction, one article of which enacted that the society should henceforward be governed by a master. These statutes were confirmed by Edward Balliol king of Scotland, and remained in force till 1364, when a third code was enacted by Simon de Sudbury, afterwards archbishop of Canterbury. In 1507 this code was likewise superseded, and the one at present in force substituted in its stead. Among the various benefactors since that period, the most distinguished were Thomas Harrope, rector of Hasely; Peter Blundell, of Tiverton in Devonshire; lady Elizabeth Periam, of Greenland in Berkshire, sister to the great lord Bacon; Dr. John Warner, bishop of Rochester; and John Snell of Warwickshire. The two last gave donations exclusively for the benefit of Scotch scholars.

The buildings of Balliol-college were erected at various times on the site of the tenements or halls hired and purchased by the lady Dervorgille, and are chiefly arranged round a quadrangle, which is 120 feet long and 80 broad, in the interior. The front towards the street presents much irregularity of structure. Over the entrance, in the centre, is a fine square tower, embattled at the top, with an oriel window in front, also a highly enriched and canopied niche on each side. This gateway is likewise adorned with the arms of Balliol. The buildings to the east and west of the tower were constructed at the beginning of the last century, and possess little consonance of character with the older portions of the college. Within the court the same dissimilarity of architecture is visible as on the outside. The hall, and the residence of the master, occupy its western side; the northern side is composed of the chapel and library; and the other sides are appropriated as lodgings for the fellows and scholars. The library was built in two parts; that towards the west by Dr. Chace, A. D. 1427, and that on the east by Robert Abdy in 1477. The interior of the whole has been lately renewed under the superintendence of Mr. James Wyatt, the architect. Formerly this library was esteemed among the first in the university. Before the time of Edward VI. it was particularly rich in MSS. above two hundred of which, highly illuminated, were presented by Grey bishop of Ely in 1454. Most of these, however, have been since lost or destroyed; but the collection of printed books is still both valuable and extensive. Besides the quadrangle, there is an area on the

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north-west, consisting of several detached lodgings for the students: these were purchased and made over to the society by archbishop Abbot. There is likewise a building belonging to the college, at the south-west angle of the quadrangle fronting the street, which was erected at the expense of Mr. Fisher, late fellow of Balliol.

4. EXETER COLLEGE was founded in the year 1315, by Walter de Stapleton bishop of Exeter, who was likewise the founder of Hert or Hart hall, now Hertford-college, the origin of which is so intimately blended with that of Exeter-college, that it is difficult, at least for some time, to consider them as separate establishments. The rector and scholars of Hart hall, indeed, were actually the first possessors of this college, having been removed to the buildings which formerly occupied the present site, and others dependent on them substituted in their stead. According to the statutes then formed, the society was to consist of thirteen members, eight of whom were to be chosen from Devonshire, four from Cornwall, and one, a priest, nominated by the dean and chapter of Exeter, from any part of the kingdom. The chief benefactors of this institution were Edmund Stafford bishop of Exeter, who added two fellowships, and reformed the statutes, in 1404; and sir William Petre, who procured a new body of statutes, and a regular deed of incorporation for the college, in 1565. The same gentleman likewise endowed eight new fellowships. The other considerable contributors to the prosperity of this establishment, were sir John Ackland; king Charles I. sir John Maynard; Samuel Hill, rector of Warlegan; and the lady Shiers.

The buildings of this college encompass a single quadrangle. The grand entrance facing the street is surmounted by a tower with Ionic pilasters, which supports a semicircular pediment, ornamented with the arms of the founder on a shield surrounded with festoons. The inner front is of similar construction; but the arms here are those of lord Petre. More uniformity prevails in the architecture of this college than in any of those hitherto noticed; and, on the whole, its appearance is simple and pleasing. The chapel, which occupies a large portion of one side, is a neat and solid edifice in the later pointed style, and possesses the peculiarity of having two aisles. The hall is a handsome building, also in the pointed style, erected by sir John Ackland about the year 1620; but the library is of modern erection, and contains, among other valuable works, a fine collection of Aldine classics.

5. ORIEL COLLEGE was founded about the year 1324, by Adam de Brom, rector of St. Mary's in Oxford, under the sanction of Edward II. to whom he afterwards surrendered the whole, in the hope of obtaining the royal protection for his infant establishment. Nor were his expectations groundless; for the king readily took the college under his especial care, and the next year granted a new charter, appointing it a college for divinity and the canon law, to be governed by a provost. He likewise bestowed upon the society some tenements in Oxford, and the advowson of St. Mary's church, on condition of their providing chaplains for the daily service. Adam de Brom was named the first provost, and drew up a code of statutes in 1326, by which the college was to consist of a provost, ten fellows or scholars, seven to study divinity; and three the canon law. He likewise gave them the livings of Aberforth in Yorkshire, and Coleby in Lincolnshire; and in 1327 Edward III. bestowed upon them a large messuage called La Oriole, or Oriel, to which the members soon after removed; and hence the college derived its present name. The chief subsequent benefactors of this institution were John Franke, lord-chancellor of England in 1441; Carpenter, bishop of Worcester; Smyth, bishop of Lincoln; Dr. Richard Dudley, chancellor of Sarum; Dr. Robinson, bishop of London; Dr. Carter, provost of the college in 1708; Charles fourth duke of Beaufort, and her majesty queen Anne. By some of these benefactors fellowships were founded; so that the

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society

society now consists of a provost, eighteen fellows, fifteen exhibitioners, and other students. The lord-chancellor is the visitor.

The buildings consist of a large quadrangle, and two lateral ranges of chambers for the reception of students, with a library between. The whole of the quadrangle was rebuilt in the early part of the seventeenth century, and both exteriorly and interiorly possesses uniformity of style and construction. The front, towards the street, is divided by a square tower, which rises over the entrance, and is ornamented with a bay-window, or *oriel*. The hall faces the gateway, and is approached by a flight of steps under a portico, surmounted by statues of Edward II. and III. in niches, with the virgin and child in another niche immediately above. The provost's lodgings are on the north side; and the buildings on the south and west are entirely appropriated for the accommodation of students. The library was designed by James Wyatt, esq. architect, and executed under his direction. It contains, among many other books, a very curious and valuable collection, which was bequeathed to the society by Edward lord Leigh of Stourleigh.

6. QUEEN'S COLLEGE was founded by Robert Eglesfeld, confessor to queen Philippa, the illustrious consort of Edward III. The founder was descended from an honourable family in the county of Cumberland; and appears to have been deservedly held in high estimation by his royal master and mistress, as he employed his interest at court chiefly in promoting religion and learning. Anxious to supply the means of education to the border-counties, in which, to use his own expression, "an unusual scarcity of literature prevailed," he purchased some tenements on or near the site of the present buildings; and obtained a charter, dated January 18, 1340, from Edward III. to constitute a collegiate hall, under the name of "Aula Scholarium Reginæ de Oxon;" a title which seems to imply that the queen had some share in its institution. At all events, she took it immediately after under her protection; and, in consequence, the honorary patronage of the college has ever since appertained to the queens of England. By the original charter and statutes of this establishment, the society was to consist of a provost and twelve fellows or scholars; the provost to be in holy orders, and chosen from among the fellows, who were to be natives of Cumberland and Westmoreland, in the first instance; and afterwards of those counties in which the college possessed property. This number, however, has since been increased by various benefactions, but by none so much as by that of John Michel, esq. of Richmond, who bequeathed estates valued at 700*l.*a-year, for the maintenance of eight master-fellows, four bachelor-scholars, and four under-graduate scholars, or exhibitioners; and for the erection of suitable buildings for the accommodation of the masters and scholars; so that this has been considered in the light of a new foundation. The queens who have contributed to the college, besides queen Philippa, are Henrietta Maria, consort to Charles I. queen Caroline, and her late majesty. The first gave three rectories and as many vicarages, and the two last presented 1000*l.* each towards enlarging and repairing the buildings, which now consist of two courts, divided by the hall and chapel, and forming an oblong 300 feet long and 220 broad. With the exception of the chapel, the whole of this college was erected during the last century. The style of its architecture is therefore modern. The principal front is in the High-street, and has in the centre a large gateway, over which is a statue of queen Caroline, under a cupola supported by pillars. This gateway leads into the first court, which bears, in general, a remarkable resemblance to the Luxembourg-palace at Paris. The principal library-room is one of the largest in the university, and is arranged in a very tasteful manner. Here are two very ancient paintings on glass of Henry V. who received his education at this college.

7. NEW COLLEGE is indebted for its origin to William de Wykeham bishop of Winchester, one of the most illustrious characters of his age. He founded the society about the year 1373, and established the members in halls, which he hired for their reception, till a college could be erected. Of this college he laid the foundation-stone in 1380, under the authority of the king's license, and likewise of the pope's bull; but the buildings were not completed for a period of six years. As soon as they were, however, the society removed into them, and took possession with great solemnity. The same year, Wykeham began his collegiate establishment at Winchester, which was to serve as a nursery to that of Oxford; so grand and comprehensive was the original design of this distinguished benefactor. Both societies, by their respective charters and statutes, were made to consist of a warden and seventy scholars, besides priests, clerks, and choristers, for the service of the chapels. That of Winchester had likewise a schoolmaster and usher, and was to supply students to the Oxford college, by election, and to submit to an annual visitation from the warden and two fellows of the latter. Many special privileges were at this time secured to New College; of which one was, that the fellows should be admitted to all degrees in the university, upon being found qualified by examinations conducted, according to form, in their own college. This right was questioned in 1608, but decided by the then chancellor, archbishop Bancroft, in favour of Wykeham's foundation. See WYKEHAM.

Many benefactors have contributed to augment the prosperity of this college besides the founder, but only one appeared during his life-time: this was John de Buckingham, bishop of Lincoln, who presented to the society the advowson of Swalcliffe church, together with some adjacent lands. Of the subsequent donors, the principal were, Thomas Beckington, bishop of Bath; Robert Shireburn, bishop of Chichester; John Smyth, a burgher of Ipswich; Dr. Flethmonger, dean of Chichester; and Christopher Rawlins, vicar of Alderbury in 1589. By the assistance of these, and numerous smaller benefactions, this society became one of the richest in Oxford; its yearly revenues being reckoned at 1000*l.* in 1592, when it consisted of 130 persons. The present members are a warden, seventy fellows, ten chaplains, three clerks, a sexton, and sixteen choristers. The whole of the fellows must be elected from Winchester, at a regular meeting for that purpose, which is attended by the wardens of both colleges, two fellows of New College, and the sub-warden and head-master of Winchester. The visitor of New College is the bishop of Winchester. In the original charter of foundation, this college is entitled "Seinte Marie College of Wynchestre;" but, having popularly received the name of New College at the time of its erection, it has, by a remarkable inattention to propriety, retained that appellation through every succeeding age.

The buildings of this college are extensive, diversified, and interesting. As originally projected by the founder, they consisted of a spacious quadrangle, including the chapel, hall, and library, with a small quadrangle adjoining, called the cloisters. The other buildings, which form the garden-court, constitute an addition to the original design, and were built in 1684, in imitation either of the palace of Versailles, or of the king's house at Winchester. The approach to the great quadrangle is by a portal, with a tower above, which still retains the sculptured effigy of Wykeham in one of its ornamented niches. The chapel and hall on the north side of the great court present as fine an elevation as any in the university. The former is peculiarly beautiful and chaste in its interior decorations. The choir of this structure is 100 feet long, 35 broad, and 65 high; and the anti-chapel, running at right angles into the choir, measures about 80 feet in length by 36 in breadth. The windows of the latter division afford a magnificent display of painted glass, in
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four different styles of execution. None of them however come near, either with respect to design or beauty of colouring, to the great west window, which probably equals any similar effort in the pictorial art in Great Britain. It was executed by Jervais from finished cartoons by sir Joshua Reynolds, and is divided into two parts, the higher representing the Nativity, and the lower seven figures emblematic of the Christian and Cardinal Virtues. The famous crozier of the founder is preserved in this chapel; and over the altar-table are some beautiful specimens of sculpture from the chisel of Westmacott. The service of the chapel is assisted by sixteen choristers, appointed by the warden solely. No particular rule is laid down with regard to the age of the boys, when admitted; but, generally speaking, we may say from seven till ten years of age. They wear the usual academical habit, and have a liberal education at a school within the college: they are instructed in grammar, in the Latin and Greek classics, in writing, arithmetic, and music. Their musical school-room is furnished with a small organ, where the organist attends them personally three times a-week, from twelve till one o'clock. Choral service is performed twice a-day, at eight o'clock in the morning, and at six in the evening, except in the long vacation, when the chapel is shut from the beginning of July till the 10th of October. Before the year 1807, those boys whose friends lived in Oxford, boarded and lodged at home; and those who came from the country, where their friends thought proper to place them. At that time they received from the college 7l. per annum each, besides their education, and a dinner in the college-buttery every day; but in the year 1807, the warden and fellows thought it would be better for the boys all to board and lodge together, for which purpose a large and healthy house was taken, and an extra master appointed to have the charge of them; and, instead of their receiving 7l. from the college, they pay 7l. per annum to the person with whom they board, and the college pays him 16l. for each boy. Such of the choristers as can obtain the appointment, are permitted to sing at St. Mary's church, on Sundays and holidays, but never perform on any occasion for the profit of a master.

8. LINCOLN COLLEGE. The original institution of this college took place in 1427, when Richard Flemming bishop of Lincoln obtained the royal licence to establish a society of one rector or warden, seven fellows, and two chaplains, in the church of All-Saints, Oxford, and to unite to that church those of St. Mildred and St. Michael, under the general name of the first. This society he appointed perpetual patrons of the collegiate church; and intended to have erected buildings for the reception of its members, but was prevented by death from executing his benevolent views. They continued to reside, therefore, in a tenement called Deep-hall, till the original design of the present college was completed by the munificent exertions of bishop Rotherham, who was afterwards archbishop of York. This prelate likewise increased the number of fellows from seven to twelve, and framed a body of statutes for the government of the society. Various other benefactors have arisen since that period; among whom bishop Smyth, the founder of Brzen-nose, Edward Darby, M. A. archdeacon of Stowe, and Nathaniel lord Crew, bishop of Durham, were the principal. The society now consists of a rector, twelve fellows, eight scholars, twelve exhibitioners, and a bible-clerk. The bishop of Lincoln is visitor.

The chief buildings of this college compose two quadrangular courts. The first court, begun soon after the founder's death, and finished by bishop Rotherham, still retains much of the character of ancient collegiate structures. It contains the hall, the library, the rector's lodgings, the common room, and some apartments for scholars, all of which are of low elevation, and arranged with great simplicity. The other quadrangle was erected about the year 1612, with the exception of six sets of rooms,

which were added in 1759. The chief ornament of this court is the chapel, built at the expense of Dr. John Williams, bishop of Lincoln.

9. ALL-SOULS COLLEGE was founded in the year 1437 by Henry Chichele archbishop of Canterbury, who prevailed on king Henry VI. to assume the title of co-founder. Chichele, however, retained all legislative power respecting the new establishment; and drew up a code of statutes, after the model of those promulgated by bishop Wykeham. By these statutes, in conformity with the charter, the society was made to consist of a warden and twenty fellows, of whom sixteen were to study the civil and canon laws, and the remainder philosophy, and the arts, and divinity. Chaplains, clerks, and choristers, were likewise added for the service of the chapel. Numerous benefactors have enriched this college at different periods, by whose conjunct donations this society has been enabled to augment the number of its members to a warden, forty fellows, two chaplains, and six clerks and choristers. The warden is elected in the same manner as the warden of Merton-college. The archbishop of Canterbury is visitor.

The buildings of this college constitute two large quadrangles, one of which is entered from High-street, and the other from Radcliffe-square. The former was erected by the founder, and, though in some parts modernized, still preserves many features of the original style of its architecture. Two niches over the principal entrance contain large and well-sculptured statues of king Edward VI. and of Chichele. The latter quadrangle is comparatively of modern erection, and measures, within the court, 172 feet in length, and 155 in breadth. On the west are the grand entrance and the cloister; on the east, the common room and other apartments, with two handsome towers; on the south, the chapel and hall; and on the north, the library. "This quadrangle," says Chalmers, "especially when viewed from the west entrance, presents one of the most attractive scenes of which Oxford can boast. The general style is the mixed Gothic." The library, which was begun in 1716, and only completed in 1756, owes its erection to the munificence of colonel Codrington, who left 10,000l. for that purpose, besides bequeathing to the society a collection of books, then valued at upwards of 6000l. The principal room is probably the largest so appropriated in the kingdom, being 198 feet in length, and 32½ in breadth, exclusive of a grand central recess, in the area of which is fixed a statue of the colonel. Dr. Young, author of the Night Thoughts, laid the foundation-stone of this structure, which was designed by Hawksmoor, and chiefly executed under his direction.

10. MAGDALEN COLLEGE was founded by William of Waynflete bishop of Winchester, under the authority of a license, dated July 18, 1457, for a president, forty fellows, thirty scholars called *demies*, a divinity-lecturer, a school-master, an usher, four chaplains, an organist, eight clerks, and sixteen choristers. The fellows were directed to study divinity, medicine, and the canon law; and the demies to be "conversant in grammar, logic, sophistry, and that species of music called plain song, or chaunting." Among the chief benefactors of this institution were sir John Fastolf, who appointed the founder one of his executors, William earl of Arundel, Ralph Freman, and John Norris, LL. D. by whose and other donations, added to the endowments of Waynflete, the college became so opulent, that its annual revenues were estimated, in 1535, at 10761. 5s. 2d. The members of this society still remain the same in number as at the time of foundation, with the addition only of gentlemen-commoners, for no commoners are admitted. The choristers are at the sole appointment of the president, who is not limited to particular age. They receive about 22l. per annum for their commons; and eight of them have each an exhibition besides, of between 5l. and 6l. a-year. They wear the proper collegiate dress, attend chapel daily at 10 and 4; and

4; and three or four of them are permitted to sing at St. John's, where the service is performed at other hours. They are educated free of expense in the grammar-school belonging to the foundation. The president requires them to be removed at fourteen years of age, unless the head-master of the school approves of the progress they have made in classical learning. They have music-lessons three times a-week in the college-chapel. Dr. Sheppard has lately left by his will 60*l.* a-year to be given to those choristers who are sons of clergymen, and either become members of the university, or are bound apprentices to trades or professions.

The buildings of this college, as designed by the founder, compose two quadrangular courts, one of small and another of large dimensions. The entrance to the first is through a modern portal of the Doric order, which appears very inappropriate, and very badly accords with the rest of the structure. This court contains the president's lodgings on the left, and in front is the entrance door-way to the chapel. This door-way is a very curious and beautiful specimen of architecture. In niches over it are small statues of Waynflete, Henry VI. St. John the Baptist, and St. Mary Magdalen, standing in canopies of exquisite workmanship. The large quadrangle remains nearly in the same state in which the founder left it, the south cloister being the only portion of the buildings that has been added since his death. Here are the chapel, hall, and library, a part of the president's lodgings, and chambers for the fellows and demies. Great pains have been taken to unriddle the meaning of the hieroglyphics which surround the cloister. Some affirm that they are nothing more than the licentious invention of the mason; while others as warmly contend that they contain a complete system of academical discipline.

The chapel, a most elegant structure, has been described by Mr. Chalmers in a manner that will interest every reader. "In this elegant chapel (says Mr. C.) the original style of building still predominates; but in the screen and panneling, put up about the year 1740, which last covers the east wall, formerly of great beauty, we have those Grecian ornaments which were generally adopted in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The body is lighted by ten windows, painted with figures of the apostles, fathers, saints, &c. in *claro obscuro*. The west window, containing the Last Judgment, was executed after a design of Christopher Schwartz, originally prepared for the wife of William duke of Bavaria, as appears by a print engraved by one of the Sadeliers. After being damaged by the high wind in 1703, it was restored in 1794 by Egginton to its pristine beauty. Eight of the lateral windows were removed from the anti-chapel in 1741, and two new ones next the altar added by the younger Price, who died in 1765. The eight fine windows now in the anti-chapel, put up in 1797, were executed from designs of Egginton, and are filled with the college-arms, scripture-history, and portraits of St. John the Baptist, St. Mary Magdalen, kings Henry III. and VI. the founders of Magdalen, New College, Corpus Christi, and Cardinal College, now Christ-church; the two last of whom had been fellows of this college, admirably drawn and coloured. The present altar was constructed in 1740, and corresponds with the modern alterations in the interior of the chapel. The altar-piece by Fuller, representing the Last Judgment, has not been fortunate in attracting universal admiration. As an imitation of Michael Angelo, it falls far short of the sublime, although sometimes wild, imagination of that great artist; nor is the colouring harmonious or natural. Some of the figures, however, are correctly drawn; and he has at least imitated the temper of Michael Angelo with success, in introducing among the damned the portrait of an hostler at the Greyhound-inn, near the college, who had offended him. Mr. Addison has honoured Fuller's painting with an elegant Latin poem, in which he seems

to praise the genius that ought to have predominated in such a subject. This painting was placed here about the year 1680. Underneath is a nobler picture of Our Saviour bearing his cross, which was long supposed to have been painted by Guido, or, in the opinion of Mr. Byres of Rome, a very competent judge, by Ludovico Caracci; but it is now given to Morales, styled El Divino, a Spanish artist who flourished in the sixteenth century, and whose works are rare in this country. Sherwin's beautiful print from it is well known; and Egginton made a copy for the east window of the church of Wanstead in Essex. It remains to be added, that this picture was brought from Vigo in 1702 by the last duke of Ormond, and afterwards fell into the hands of William Freeman, esq. of Hamels in Hertfordshire, who gave it to the college. He gave also a new organ, and was in other respects a considerable benefactor."

Besides the two courts above-mentioned, there are a tower, and several other ranges of buildings belonging to Magdalen-college, which have been erected at different periods, and were not included in Waynflete's design. The tower is a structure of very fine proportion; and is supposed to have been designed by Wolsey, while he was burf of this college. It was commenced in 1492, and finished in 1498. A few years afterwards the chaplain's court was built; and some further rooms, towards the east, were added in 1635. At the beginning of the last century, a plan was proposed, and agreed to, for the building of a new quadrangle, but only one side of it has yet been finished. By this plan, three sides of the old quadrangle were to have been demolished, leaving only the hall, chapel, and south cloister.

Magdalen-college being bound by its statutes to entertain the kings of England and their sons when at Oxford, the hall has frequently been the scene of royal and princely festivity. Edward IV. and Richard III. were both entertained here by the founder. In 1496, prince Arthur paid a visit to this college; and in 1604 James I. held his court within its walls, upon which occasion Henry prince of Wales was admitted a member of the society. Oliver Cromwell, Fairfax, and other principal officers of the parliamentary army, also had a sumptuous dinner provided for them here in 1649, and afterwards played at bowls in the college-green, which, with the grove and water-walk, form pleasure-grounds of great extent and beauty.

II. BRAZEN-NOSE COLLEGE. This noble institution was founded by William Smyth, bishop of Lincoln, in concert with his friend sir Richard Sutton. The buildings were begun about the year 1509, and shortly after the society was formed, and accommodated in some of the ancient premises which occupied the site of the present college, and most probably in the tenement called Brazen-nose Hall, whence the new foundation derived its name. By the charter of incorporation, which is dated the 15th of January, 1511-12, this society was to consist of a principal and sixty scholars; but, in 1621, a revision of the statutes having been made by the surviving founder, sir Robert Sutton, the members were limited to a principal and twelve fellows. They were soon, however, augmented by the munificence of succeeding benefactors, some of whom added fellowships, others scholarships and exhibitions, others lectureships in philosophy, in humanity, Hebrew, Greek, and mathematics. These last were founded by sir John Port, John Barneston, D. D. Richard Harper, a judge of the common pleas, and Thomas Weston, rector of Crisfelton, near Chester. The other contributors are too numerous to be mentioned; so that we shall only observe, that, by their conjunct donations, the society now consists of a principal, twenty fellows, thirty-two scholars, and fifteen exhibitioners, besides a great number of independent members. The bishop of Lincoln is visitor.

The buildings of this college are arranged round a large quadrangle and a smaller court to the south, with the

the exception of the residence of the principal, and lodgings for seven students, which are detached. The large quadrangle contains the hall and chambers for the society; and has suffered little alteration since it was originally built, except the addition of a continued attic. The small court is occupied by the library and chapel, and was erected in the seventeenth century, from plans, as some assert, by sir Christopher Wren, while a very young man at college. The architecture is of the mixed kind; arched windows and battlements are here opposed by Grecian pilasters and capitals.

12. **CORPUS-CHRISTI COLLEGE** was founded and endowed by Richard Fox, bishop of Winchester. This prelate had designed and partly executed a collegiate establishment for monks and secular scholars, to be subordinate to the priory of St. Swithin in Winchester; but was induced to alter his plan, by the advice of Hugh Oldham, bishop of Exeter, and to found a college for the study of divinity, philosophy, and literature. He accordingly obtained a charter to that effect, dated March 1516; and shortly after drew up a body of statutes, declaring the society to consist of a president, twenty fellows, twenty scholars, two clerks, and two choristers. He likewise appointed two lectures for Greek and Latin, a measure which soon raised the reputation of the college to the highest pitch, as the founder conferred those offices on men of established fame and acknowledged erudition. The benefactors of this college are not so numerous as those of some other colleges; but the donations were in general liberal, and the ample provision of the founder rendered additional contributions the less requisite. Bishop Oldham above mentioned gave 6000 marks, besides some estates in land, and Dr. Turner 6000*l*. The members of the college are the same as those prescribed by the charter, with the addition only of four exhibitioners and six gentlemen-commoners. The bishop of Winchester is visitor.

Of the buildings of this college, the spacious quadrangle alone, with the chapel, hall, and library, was built by bishop Fox. This court is entered by a gateway under a lofty square tower in the centre of the principal front. On the east side is the hall, and on the south the library, which last is decorated with a statue of the founder in his pontifical robes. The rooms to the east of the quadrangle were first erected in 1667, and re-built in 1737, for the residence of the six gentlemen-commoners. The fine building which looks into Christ-church walks owed its construction to Dr. Turner, and is appropriated for the reception of students. The library is enriched with an invaluable set of Aldine classics, and with numerous curious MSS. and rare works, in a state of excellent preservation.

13. **CHRIST-CHURCH COLLEGE** is indebted for its origin to the munificence of cardinal Wolsey, who has been justly styled the Mæcenæ of his age. This prelate began the great work in question in the year 1524, upon a scale far surpassing the design of any former or succeeding founder. By the original charter, which he procured from king Henry VIII. his projected establishment was made to consist of one hundred and sixty persons, who were to apply themselves to the study of the sciences at large, as well as to polite literature. For the support of this society he settled upon it a clear annual revenue of 2000*l*. and commenced the present structure for the accommodation of its members, under the designation of "Cardinal College." Before he had completed his plans, however, he was hurled from the pinnacle of power, and plunged into irretrievable disgrace; but, before his death, he warmly recommended his college to the fostering regard of his monarch. Accordingly Henry, after the first effusions of his resentment had subsided, yielded to the entreaties of the society in 1532, and became its patron. But, in order to preclude Wolsey from all nominal participation in the merit of the undertaking, he granted the college a new charter of foundation, directed that its

members should consist of a dean and twelve canons, and that it should be called "King Henry the Eighth's College in Oxford." This arrangement, however, only continued for twelve or thirteen years, at the end of which period the society yielded up their charter and possessions to the king, who converted the college into a cathedral-church, by translating the episcopal see hither from Oseney. The institution now became an appendage to the cathedral, and received the name of "The Cathedral Church of Christ in Oxford, of King Henry the Eighth's Foundation." At the same time the society was declared to consist of a bishop, with his archdeacon, a dean, and eight canons, who had all the college-estates made over to them on condition of their maintaining three professors of divinity, Hebrew, and Greek, one hundred students in theology, arts, or philosophy, eight chaplains, and a numerous choir. The king himself is visitor of this college.

The benefactors to Christ-church are few, and all of them appeared at a period long subsequent to its foundation. Among the principal of them were the celebrated Dr. Busby of Westminster, who bequeathed a sum of money for a catechetical lecture; bishop Fell, who contributed ten exhibitions of 10*l*. per annum each; and Dr. Lee, physician to George II. who left 20,000*l*. for the purpose of erecting an anatomical theatre.

The buildings of this magnificent college occupy the area of the ancient priory of St. Frideswide, and have undergone as many revolutions as the society itself. They are chiefly arranged round four courts, two of which are very spacious. The great west quadrangle is particularly interesting, as being the work of Wolsey; and indicates that, if he had survived to complete the design he appears to have formed, his college would have exceeded in magnificence every other in Europe. This quadrangle is entered by the gateway of the principal front, which extends 382 feet, and is adorned in the centre by a stately tower begun by Wolsey, but only completed in 1681, by sir Christopher Wren. All the buildings here are beautifully proportioned, and are faced with a fine terrace, as well as surmounted by a handsome stone balustrade. The hall and kitchen are on the south, and on the east and west sides are splendid ranges of lodgings for the dean and canons. The hall occupies more than one-half of an entire range, and was begun and finished under the direction of the founder. This room is 115 feet in length, forty in breadth, and fifty in height. The roof is of oak, carved in an elaborate style. The windows are intersected Gothic, and one in a recess on the southern side is among the finest specimens of that mode of architectural disposal. The side-walls are of pannelled wainscot, and display an extensive collection of portraits, among which is an original half-length of Wolsey, a whole length of Henry VIII. another of queen Elizabeth, and a third of Dr. Busby, with a pupil in attendance.

The second great quadrangle of this college, termed Peckwater-court, was erected at the commencement of the last century, and contains the library on its southern side. This edifice is 141 feet long in front, and is adorned with massive pillars in the Corinthian style. Each of the other sides is appropriated as lodgings for students. Their elevation is three stories, the lower of which is rustic, and supports a range of architecture of the Ionic order, finished by an entablature and balustrade of stone. In the library, which is rich in MSS. prints, and coins, is likewise a very noble collection of paintings, bequeathed to the college by brigadier-general Guise in 1765. Most of these paintings are by the old masters, and must have been collected at a very great expense. The two smaller courts are denominated Canterbury-square and Chaplain's-court. Of these the first only deserves to be noticed, being now the principal entrance into the college. It stands on the site of Canterbury-hall, which was founded in the fourteenth century by archbishop Islip, as a place for the study of the canon and civil law.

The design of this court was furnished by James Wyatt, architect, and the whole carried into execution under his direction. It was completed in 1783, chiefly through the munificence of Richard Robinson baron Rokeby, late lord-primate of Ireland.

The Cathedral of Christ-church, to which the college is appended, is situated to the east of the grand quadrangle of the college. It was originally the church of St. Frideswide's monastery. This edifice is referred by King, in his *Munimenta Antiqua*, to the era of the Saxons; but Dugdale, Tanner, and Willis, date its foundation in the time of Henry I. In its architecture this church presents the styles and examples of different ages, from the time of the original building up to the commencement of the sixteenth century. The church is built in the shape of a cross, and measures 154 feet in length. In the centre rises a tower with a spire to the height of 144 feet. Some of the windows contain fine specimens of painted glass, and in the north aisle is a monument attributed to St. Frideswide. There are eight choristers, partly maintained by the dean and chapter; that is, they have dinner in the hall of the college daily. They receive also a salary arising from corn-rents, and consequently varying in amount; it however is always sufficient to pay for the rest of their board and lodging, for clothes, and to cover the expenses of a journey to a moderate distance. The choristers are in the sole nomination of the dean, exclusive of the chapter, and he appoints at any age he thinks proper; the time of their dismissal is also at his discretion. They wear caps and gowns in their ordinary dress, and surplices in the choir. A preference is usually given to the sons of clergymen and professional gentlemen. Since the foundation of the college there has always been a master provided for the boys, who instructs them in Latin and Greek. They are also taught writing and arithmetic. The choristers attend morning-service in the cathedral at ten o'clock, and afternoon-service at half-past three. They are in the grammar-school from seven in the morning till nine, from eleven till one, and from two till half-past three. They are taught singing by the organist. They are permitted to be members of any other choir in Oxford, provided their attendance does not interfere with their duty at Christ-church. They have not any engagements for the profit of the singing-master. There is no provision for superannuated choristers: frequently, however, as they have had a good education, they enter as servitors at Christ-church. We may observe, in general, that the singing-boys brought up in these choirs have usually entered into holy orders, and have deservedly obtained the patronage of their several colleges. *Gent. Mag.* Feb. 1819.

14. TRINITY COLLEGE was founded by sir Thomas Pope, in the reign of Philip and Mary, from whom he obtained a royal license and charter, dated the 8th and 28th of March, 1554. The society was then made to consist of a president, a priest, twelve fellows, and eight scholars; but the latter were soon increased to twelve. These he placed in the tenements called Durham-college, which he bought and repaired for their accommodation. In 1556 he drew up a body of statutes for their regulation, under the auspices of the celebrated cardinal Pole, to whom it is supposed he was indebted for many useful hints. The same statutes are still in force, with some slight alterations made by the first president, with the consent of the founder, after the re-establishment of the Protestant worship, on the accession of queen Elizabeth. The endowment of this institution by sir Thomas was only limited by the extent of his means, which were happily ample. In May 1556 he gave the society one hundred pounds; and, before the close of that year, made over to them no fewer than thirty-five manors and thirteen advowsons, besides impropriations and pensions. So liberal, indeed, was his donation, that, with the exception of the contributors towards the new buildings, few persons have deemed it requisite to become benefactors to this college,

so that the society remains nearly in the same state as when originally founded, with the addition only of gentlemen-commoners and commoners. The bishop of Winchester is visitor.

Architecturally considered, this college consists of two courts. The first contains the chapel, the hall, the president's lodgings, the library, and some apartments for the fellows and scholars; and the latter is wholly occupied by lodgings for the reception of students. The chapel was built chiefly at the expense of Dr. Bathurst, as is generally supposed, after a design by dean Aldrich, corrected and improved by sir Christopher Wren. The interior is highly decorated. In a recess at the upper end of this chapel is a monument in honour of sir Thomas Pope, and of his third lady, with their whole-length figures sculptured in alabaster.

15. ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE. All the colleges hitherto noticed have owed their origin to the munificence of distinguished statesmen, or prelates; but we now come to one which was founded and endowed by an individual whose fortune was gained by industrious exertions in the mercantile world. This was sir Thomas White, a citizen and merchant of London, and one of the most liberal and benevolent characters of his age. The spot selected for the new foundation was the site of St. Bernard's college, the buildings of which, indeed, still form a small portion of the present college. Here sir Thomas fixed his society in 1557, shortly after he had obtained a license and charter for its institution; and in the same year drew up a body of statutes, declaring that it should consist of a president, fifty fellows and scholars, three chaplains, three clerks, and six choristers; but the twelve last-mentioned members were soon discontinued, the funds being found inadequate to their proper support. A suitable choir, however, has since been founded by sir William Paddy, one of the numerous benefactors who have continued to enrich the society at different periods. Among these the chief were archbishops Laud and Juxon, and Dr. William Holmes and his lady. All the fellows of this college, except six of the founder's kindred, and two from Coventry, two from Bristol, two from Reading, and one from Tunbridge, schools, are elected from Merchant Tailors' school in London, sir Thomas having been a member of that respectable corporation. The bishop of Winchester is visitor.

The buildings of St. John's College, as they at present stand, have been erected at various periods. They are arranged chiefly in two quadrangles, one of which still retains a part of the tenements which composed Durham-college. In this division are the hall and chapel, the president's lodgings, and chambers for the fellows and scholars. The principal entrance is under a square tower adorned with a statue of St. Bernard, placed in a richly-canopied niche. On the east side is a passage leading into the second quadrangle, which contains the library, and was erected at the sole expense of archbishop Laud, from a design by Inigo Jones. In the centre, both on the east and west sides, is a gateway of the Doric order, surmounted by a semicircular pediment of the Ionic and Corinthian, and having a statue on either side between the columns. These represent king Charles I. and his queen, and were designed and cast in brass by Fanelli of Florence. The apartments in the same range with the gateways are built over cloisters, supported by eight round arches, and adorned with busts of the cardinal and Christian virtues over each pillar. The library here is enriched with a valuable collection of books and manuscripts, and a variety of antiquarian curiosities.

16. JESUS COLLEGE owes its foundation to Hugh ap Rice or Price, D.D. first prebendary of Rochester and treasurer of St. David's. This benevolent character, observing that his countrymen, the Welsh, were scarcely ever noticed in collegiate endowments, resolved to found a college peculiarly for their benefit; and with this view prevailed on queen Elizabeth to institute the present establishment.

blishment by charter, dated June 27, 1571. This deed prescribed that the college should be erected by the name of "Jesús College, within the City and University of Oxford, of Queen Elizabeth's Foundation;" and declared the society to consist of a principal, eight fellows, and eight scholars. It further permitted Dr. Price to settle upon them an annual revenue of 160*l.* to which he added a donation of 1500*l.* to assist in erecting the buildings, besides a small sum which he bequeathed for the same purpose at his death. The queen, though nominally foundress, bestowed little patronage, and still less property, on her college; a circumstance not a little remarkable, as we believe this to have been the first college in Oxford which could boast of deriving its origin from a Protestant benefactor. Hence, when Dr. Price died, the funds of the society were so much exhausted as to stop for a time the progress of the buildings. But private munificence soon after supplied the want of regal bounty. The buildings were gradually completed; and many extensive benefactions quickly added stability to the hitherto limited finances of the institution. Sir Eubule Thelwall, besides liberal donations, procured for the society a new charter, dated June 1, 1622. Dr. Williams founded a logic lecture, and sir Thomas Canon a catechetical lecture. Among the other more extensive contributors were Henry Westphaling, bishop of Hereford; Henry Rowlands, bishop of Bangor; king Charles I. Francis Mansell, D.D. sir Leoline Jenkins; and Edward Merrick, M.A. treasurer of St. David's; some of whom added new fellowships and scholarships. These additional revenues rendered new charters necessary at different periods. The last was granted by George II. January 10, 1729; and under it the society now consists of a principal, nineteen fellows, and eighteen scholars, besides a number of exhibitioners, &c. The earl of Pembroke is visitor.

The buildings of Jesús College form two quadrangles, the first of which measures 90 feet by 70, and the second 100 feet by 90. The former, entered from the street, contains the chapel on the north, and the hall on the east sides. The other sides are occupied by apartments of three stories high. The front, in the street, was rebuilt in 1756, and is a heavy erection, destitute alike of interest and beauty. The second, or inner quadrangle, was begun in 1640, under the management of Dr. Mansell, then principal; but the disturbances arising from the rebellion prevented its completion till the year 1767, when it was finished by sir Leoline Jenkins, at his own expense. The library, on the west side of this quadrangle, contains a good collection of books and some curiosities; among which are an immense silver bowl, weighing 278 ounces, and capable of holding above ten gallons; a metal watch given by Charles I. and a huge stirrup, said to have been pressed by the foot of queen Elizabeth. The chapel, built in 1621, is divided into three parts by two screens. The roof is finished in compartments, and is very richly decorated.

17. WADHAM COLLEGE was founded by Nicholas Wadham, esq. and his wife Dorothy, daughter of sir William Petre, an eminent benefactor to several colleges in this university. The execution of the undertaking, however, wholly devolved on the latter, as Mr. Wadham himself died before the plan he had proposed could be carried into effect. Her first step was to purchase the site of the ancient priory of Austin-friars, once a place of great distinction in the university, which she accomplished in 1610; and on the 31st of July, in the same year, laid the first stone of the present college. A royal license was obtained in 1611, and in 1612 the statutes promulgated by the foundress received the sanction of an act of parliament. By these statutes, which still continue in force, (except as to the subject of marriage,) the college was made to consist of a warden, fifteen fellows, fifteen scholars, two chaplains, and two clerks. To these, however, several exhibitions have been added by successive benefactors, among whom the late Dr. John Wills, who died in 1806,

deservedly holds the first rank. This gentleman bequeathed 400*l.* a-year to the wardenship; 1000*l.* to improve the warden's lodgings; two exhibitions of 100*l.* per annum each to two fellows, students in law or medicine; two exhibitions of 20*l.* to scholars in the same faculties; 20*l.* a-year for a divinity-lecturer; an annual exhibition of 75*l.* and another of 100*l.* to two superannuated fellows; 11*l.* 10*s.* to a preacher; and 6*l.* a-year for the purchase of books to be given as a premium to the best reader in the chapel. He further nominated the society his residuary legatee.

The buildings are entirely comprised in one very spacious quadrangle, about one hundred and thirty feet square; the whole of which, with the exception of a building of three stories on the south of the front, were erected by the foundress, at the expense of 10,816*l.* 7*s.* 8*d.* This college is entered by a gateway, under a central tower; and has on its eastern side the hall and chapel, and on the other three, the warden's lodgings, and apartments for the fellows, scholars, and students. In the middle of the eastern side is a portico in four compartments, adorned with statues in canopied niches of the founder and foundress, and of king James I. whose arms, sculptured in stone, are placed in the highest compartment. The bishop of Bath and Wells is visitor.

18. PEMBROKE COLLEGE owes its foundation to the joint munificence of Thomas Tefdale and Richard Wightwick; for though, in the charter, which is dated 1624, king James is denominated founder, and the earl of Pembroke, chancellor of the university, godfather, yet they in fact contributed little or nothing towards its establishment, further than what their patronage may be supposed to have accomplished. According to the statutes drawn up agreeably to the charter, the society was made to consist of a master, ten fellows, and the same number of scholars; but the fellows have since been increased to fourteen, and the scholars and exhibitioners to twenty-one, by the liberality of different benefactors, among whom the most eminent were lord Ossulston, grandson to the founder, Tefdale, and George Morley, bishop of Winchester. The chancellor of the university is visitor.

Pembroke College now forms two small courts, which are built on the ancient site of Broadgate's Hall, some portion of which is still standing, and constitutes the hall of the present college. The principal court is uniform in its architecture, and possesses the merit of simplicity. It was chiefly erected at different periods during the seventeenth century, partly with the money of the founders, and partly by the aid of subsequent contributions. The front, which was only completed in 1694, is an unadorned elevation, with a low tower over the entrance in the centre. The chapel is a small but elegant edifice of the Ionic order, and is richly ornamented within.

19. WORCESTER COLLEGE was founded in 1714, under the will of sir Thomas Cookes, of Bentley Pauncefort in Worcestershire, who died in 1702, and bequeathed 10,000*l.* to be applied either in establishing a new college, or in the endowment of additional fellowships and scholarships in some previous establishment. The trustees at first hesitating which of the above plans to adopt, the money accumulated to 15,000*l.* before they came to the resolution of founding the present institution. This however they at length determined on; and a charter of incorporation was obtained in 1714, for a college, to be called "The Provost, Fellows, and Scholars, of Worcester College, in the University of Oxford." A body of statutes was framed about the same time; and the society settled in the ancient tenements of Gloucester-hall, some part of which still remains. Several liberal benefactors soon after added considerable donations. Of these, the principal were Dr. James Fynney, George Clarke, D.C.L. and Mrs. Sarah Eaton, the last of whom endowed seven fellowships and five scholarships for the sons of clergymen only. Hence the society now consists of a provost, twenty-one fellows, and fifteen scholars. The visitors are the bishop of

of Oxford and the vice-chancellor of the university. A preference is given in the choice of students, on the original foundation, to persons educated in the founder's schools of Bromsgrove and Feckenham, and to his own kindred.

The situation of Worcester-college is on the western side of the city, on an eminence near the bank of the river Isis. The buildings form a court, the south side of which is still occupied by a range of old apartments; but its other divisions are all of modern erection, and comprise a chapel, a hall, a library, and lodgings for the accommodation of members and students. The architecture of these portions is grand and imposing, though simple and devoid of ornament. The library, however, is supported by a spacious cloister in the front towards the court; and is particularly remarkable for a valuable collection of architectural books and manuscripts.

20. HERTFORD COLLEGE, the last we have to notice, was the ancient Hart hall, which was founded by William Stapledon, bishop of Exeter, and continued attached to Exeter-college till the year 1740, when it was elevated to the rank of an independent college by Dr. Newton, (see vol. xvii. p. 36.) who bestowed upon it his whole property. This however proved insufficient for its intended purposes; and, as few benefactors appeared in aid, the institution declined. Since 1805 it has had no principal, and in 1812 there was only one fellow, though by the statutes the society was made to consist of a principal, four senior fellows, and eight junior fellows or assistants. According to the design of Dr. Newton, the buildings of this college were to have formed one spacious quadrangle, containing a chapel, hall, and library, lodgings for the principal, and apartments for the society. Of this plan only a part had been carried into execution, and that by the founder himself, no additions having been made since his death. The portions of Hart hall left standing were, the refectory, built in the reign of queen Elizabeth, the old principal's lodgings, with the kitchen and chambers over them, and the gatehouse and library.

At length, the college, being entirely deserted, was considered to have escheated to the crown; and his present majesty, when regent, was graciously pleased, in the name and on the behalf of the late king, to direct a grant of the site, with all the property attached to it, including an excellent library of books, to be made to the chancellor, masters, and scholars, of the university, in trust for the principal and other members of Magdalen-hall for ever. In consequence of Magdalen-hall being burnt down, as mentioned below, the royal gift became extremely valuable and appropriate; and on the 3d of May, 1820, the vice-president and fellows of Magdalen-college went in procession from St. Mary's church to the dissolved college of Hertford, for the purpose of laying the foundation-stone of the new buildings intended for the future residence of the members of Magdalen-hall; the principal and vice-principal of that society were also in the procession. The stone was laid by the Rev. T. N. Blagden, B. D. vice-president of Magdalen-college, assisted by the architect, Mr. Garbett of Winchester, and by the builder, Mr. Evans of London. A brass-plate was placed in the centre of the foundation-stone, on which was engraved the following inscription: "In Honorem Dei bonarumque Literarum Profectum Imum hunc Lapidem Aulae Magdalenensis Regis Georgii Quarti Auspiciis in Alia Sede Renovatæ Collegium Magdalenense, P.C."

Of the numerous halls, hostels, or inns, which were the only houses originally possessed by the students of Oxford, only five subsist at present, one of which is destitute of students. Each hall is governed by a principal, under the guidance of statutes originally drawn up by the principal of the university, and alterable at his pleasure. This officer is officially visitor of all the halls; and has the power of nominating the whole of the principals, except the principal of St. Edmund's Hall, who is elected

by the provost and fellows of Queen's College. The students in these halls have equal university-privileges with those belonging to the colleges; and are subject to the same regulations with respect to discipline, course of studies, tuition, length of residence, examinations, dress, &c.

1. ST. ALBAN'S HALL, the most ancient of those now remaining, is situated on the east side of Merton-college. This hall derived its name from Robert de Sancto Albano, a burgess of Oxford, in the reign of king John. In the time of Henry VI. it was united to Nunne-hall, which stood west from it; but its principals were appointed by Merton-college. Henry VIII. granted both halls, conjoined, in the name of Alban-hall, to his physician, from whom it passed to different proprietors, and is now the property of the warden and fellows of Merton-college. The buildings of this hall form a quadrangle, plain in its architecture, but commodious in respect to internal arrangements. It has no chapel.

2. EDMUND HALL is traditionally so called from St. Edmund, archbishop of Canterbury in the reign of Henry III. At the dissolution, it belonged to Oseney-priory; and soon after that event came into the possession of Queen's College, and was renewed as a place of study under the auspices of that institution, to which it still continues attached. Several extensive additions to the old buildings of this hall have been made during the two last centuries, chiefly by the liberality of its own members, and those of Queen's College. The library, begun in 1680, has been enriched by several valuable collections of books and manuscripts. This portion of the buildings, as well as the chapel, was erected by Stephen Penton, B.D. principal, and chiefly at his own expense.

3. ST. MARY'S HALL was anciently conveyed to the rectors of St. Mary's church for a parsonage-house; and remained in their possession till the year 1325, when Edward II. gave it, with the advowson of the church, to the society of Oriel-college, who converted it into an academical hall in 1333, under its present appellation. The buildings are arranged in the form of a quadrangle, containing lodgings for the principal on the north, a hall and chapel on the south, and apartments for the students on the west and east, all of which have either been rebuilt or much improved within the last century.

4. NEW-INN HALL is entirely gone to decay, the only part of its buildings now remaining being a house for the principal, who is only nominally such, there having been no students at this hall for many years. It was at one time, however, very famous for students of the civil and canon law, and produced many eminent characters in that faculty. In 1642 it was occupied as a mint by king Charles I. who here melted down the plate presented to him by the university. It has no chapel.

5. ST. MARY-MAGDALEN HALL was founded as a grammar-school in 1480 by William Waynflete, founder of Magdalen-college, to which it immediately adjoins. It was first called Grammar-hall, but received the name of Magdalen-hall upon being enlarged, and placed upon the same footing with respect to academical privileges as the other halls. This foundation appears to have been generally in a very flourishing condition, and at one time is said to have had nearly three hundred members; but it is difficult to conceive how so many persons could be accommodated within its walls. Dr. William Lucy, and some other benefactors, established a number of exhibitions in this hall for the benefit and encouragement of the students. Part of the buildings were erected by the munificence of private individuals, among whom Dr. John Wilkinfon, principal from 1605 to 1643, and his successor Henry Wilkinfon, are deservedly the most noted. The latter built the library, and procured for it a good collection of books. This seminary boasts the education of the celebrated lord Clarendon.

Nearly the whole of Magdalen-hall, consisting of eighteen sets of rooms, with an immense quantity of books and

and furniture, was destroyed by fire, on the morning of the 9th of January, 1820. Of the new lodgings providing for the members we have already spoken.

The following summary of the members of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, in the year 1815, will serve to show the comparative state of both these distinguished seminaries, and of their respective colleges and halls.

Oxford.	Members of Convocation.	Members on the Books.	Cambridge.	Members of the Senate.	Members on the Boards.
University Coll.	74	157	Trinity Coll.	407	922
Balliol	39	130	St. John's Coll.	306	683
Merton	52	104	Emmanuel Coll.	80	170
Exeter	56	155	Jesús College	51	162
Oriel	100	207	Queen's College	56	143
Queen's	97	195	Trinity Hall	24	131
New	56	119	Caius College	59	126
Lincoln	33	72	Christ College	45	113
All Souls	69	90	Pembroke Hall	30	102
Magdalen	109	152	Clare Hall	37	98
Brazen-nose	141	320	St. Peter's Coll.	40	87
Corpus-christi	61	94	King's College	60	86
Christ-church	300	647	Magdalen Coll.	35	73
Trinity	63	161	Sidney College	24	73
St. John's	92	169	Bene't College	20	71
Jesús	63	127	Catharine Hall	16	56
Wadham	50	134	Downing Coll.	7	8
Pembroke	30	82	Oppidants	4	0
Worcester	65	137			
Hertford	1	2			
St. Mary Hall	16	37			
Magdalen Hall	30	84			
New Inn Hall	1	1			
St. Alban Hall	8	40			
St. Edmund Hall	25	73			
Total	1631	3489	Total	1301	3104

The Totals, in the year 1819 and 1820, stood thus :

1819.	Oxford.	1819.	Cambridge.
Members of Convocation	1874	Members of the Senate	1495
on the Books	3984	on the Boards	3698
1820. of Convocation	1873	of the Senate	1558
on the Books	4102	on the Boards	3395

Besides the colleges and halls, there are several public buildings and establishments, which either owe their origin to the university, or are placed under the management of its officers. The principal of these are the Schools; the Bodleian Library; the Theatre; the Clarendon Printing-house; the Radcliffe Library; the Ashmolean Museum; the Observatory; and the Physic-garden.

The first Public Schools were erected about the commencement of the fifteenth century, by Thomas Hokenorton, abbot of Osney; and consisted of ten apartments, allotted to different branches of education. To these were added the divinity-school in the year 1427, the erection of which was chiefly effected by the liberality of Humphry duke of Gloucester, usually styled the Good. This last is still standing, and is a curious specimen of architecture. All the others, however, were demolished in the beginning of the seventeenth century, when the present schools were erected, which, with part of the Bodleian library, form a quadrangle of about 170 feet in length. Over the gateway is a lofty tower, fantastically arranged in compartments, exhibiting an imitation of the five orders of classic architecture. (See Britton's Architectural Antiquities, vol. iii.) The whole quadrangle is now three stories high, two of which are appropriated as schools, while the third and highest is occupied as a picture-gallery, and contains a numerous and splendid collection of the portraits of founders, benefactors, and other eminent persons connected with the university. The schools are governed by three masters, who cannot hold their office more than two years in succession. The public professors read lectures here in the different sci-

ences; and here also the scholars of the university are obliged, by statute, to perform the exercises required of them, before they can obtain their degrees. In the moral-philosophy lecture-room is preserved a collection of statues, marbles, and busts, the gift of the countess dowager of Pomfret; and, in an apartment on the north side of the schools, are ranged the Arundelian Marbles, together with numerous other monuments of Grecian antiquity, collected by Selden, Wheeler, and others, and presented or bequeathed to the university.

The Bodleian or Public Library, was founded by sir Thomas Bodley, at the close of the sixteenth century, on the remains of that which was established by the duke of Gloucester before-mentioned, but had been divested of all its valuable books and illuminated manuscripts by the commissioners of Edward VI. This library occupies three extensive rooms, disposed in the form of the letter H, and probably contains the most valuable collection of books and manuscripts in Europe, as the donations in aid of sir Thomas's contribution have been splendid and liberal beyond precedent. Among those who had added whole libraries to the original collection, are the earl of Pembroke, Mr. Selden, archbishop Laud, sir Thomas Roe, sir Kenelm Digby, general Fairfax, Dr. Marshall, Dr. Barlow, Dr. Rawlinson, Mr. St. Amand, Dr. Tanner, Mr. Willis, T. Hearne, Mr. Godwin, and Mr. Gough. The last contributed all his topographical collections, books, prints, copper-plates, and drawings. The statutes by which this library is governed, were drawn up by sir Thomas Bodley, who, besides his books, left an estate to the university for the provision of suitable salaries to its officers, and for the repair of the buildings. These statutes are preserved in the founder's own hand-writing, in the archives of the library; and contain, among other clauses, one appointing the vice-chancellor, proctors, and the regius-professors of divinity, law, medicine, Hebrew, and Greek, visitors or curators.

The Theatre, or Selden Theatre, in which are held all the acts called the Encenia and Comitia, also lord Crewe's annual commemoration of benefactors, was built at the sole charge of archbishop Selden, who, besides, gave the sum of 2000*l.* as a fund for repairs. The architect was sir Christopher Wren, who, in the plan and construction of this edifice, gave a happy preface of those talents which he afterwards displayed in the metropolis. By an ingenious disposition of its parts, he has contrived to render it capable of holding nearly four thousand persons, though its dimensions seem altogether inadequate for that purpose. The roof is eighty feet by seventy, and rests entirely on the side-walls, without any central support. The exterior elevation on the side opposite to the divinity-school is adorned with columns of the Corinthian order, and statues, in niches, of the founder, and the duke of Ormond.

The Clarendon Printing-house was erected in 1711, with the profits arising from the sale of lord Clarendon's History of the Rebellion, the copyright of which was presented to the university by his lordship's son. It is a massive structure, two stories high, adorned in front with a portico of the Doric order, and has a statue of the noble author over the southern entrance. The business of this house is superintended by persons termed delegates of the press, who are appointed by the vice-chancellor and proctors.

The Radcliffe Library, which is certainly one of the most imposing architectural ornaments of the university, was founded by Dr. Radcliffe, an eminent physician in the reigns of king William and queen Anne, he having bequeathed 40,000*l.* for its erection, 150*l.* per annum for a librarian, and 100*l.* per annum for the purchase of books. The building itself was designed and executed by Gibbs, between the years 1737 and 1749; and some of the first artists of the age were employed on its interior embellishments. Exteriorly, a rustic basement, in the form of a double octagon, supports a cylindrical superstructure, adorned

adorned with three-quarter Corinthian columns, ranged in couplets, between which are windows and niches alternately. A ballustrade, finished with vases on the piers perpendicular to the columns, surmounts the entablature, and the whole elevation is terminated by a fine cupola sixty feet high, which renders this building a striking feature in every distant view of the city. The contributions to this library are few, compared to those of the Bodleian, which seems almost to have wholly engrossed the munificence of the learned.

The Ashmolean Museum owes its foundation to Elias Ashmole, author of the History of the Garter, who offered to bestow on the university all the extensive collections in natural history which had been bequeathed to him by the two Tradescants, the celebrated naturalists and physic-gardeners at South Lambeth, and to add to these his own coins, medals, MSS. and books, provided the university would defray the expense of erecting a proper building for their reception. This offer was accepted, and the present edifice raised under the direction of sir Christopher Wren. The contributors to this museum have been numerous. The chief of them were Dr. Plot, Mr. Llwyd, Mr. Borlase, and Mr. Reinhold Foster. The contribution of this last consists chiefly of curious articles from the South-Sea islands. This building likewise contains the books of Dr. Lister, and the MSS. of Dugdale, Aubrey, and Wood. See farther under MUSEUM, vol. xvi. p. 276.

The Astronomical Observatory was built at the expense of 30,000*l.* defrayed by the trustees of Dr. Radcliffe. It is situated at the extreme end of the north suburb, on a very appropriate site with attached grounds, which were presented to the university by the duke of Marlborough. The central elevation of this edifice is upwards of 100 feet, and its third story consists of an octangular tower, with sculptural representations of the eight winds on the entablature, and a ponderous earth-coloured globe at the top. The whole structure comprises a dwelling-house for the observer, apartments for observation, for an assistant observer; and for lectures; and is supplied with a valuable set of astronomical instruments, besides a library. See OBSERVATORY, vol. xvii. p. 375.

The Physic Garden, comprising about five acres of ground, is situated opposite to Magdalen-college on the south, and is encompassed by a lofty wall, with a handsome gateway designed by Inigo Jones. Over the arch of this gateway is a bust of the founder, Henry Danvers earl of Danby, and on the right and left are statues of Charles I. and II. The garden is arranged in four quarters, and is provided with suitable green-houses, and a hot-house for the reception of the more tender plants. The chief contributor to this garden was Dr. Sherard, who in 1728 left 3000*l.* for the endowment of a professorship of botany; and in 1793 a regius-professor in that science was likewise appointed by his late majesty.

GOVERNMENT and CIVIL HISTORY.

The corporation of this city, established both by charter and by prescription, is governed by a mayor, a high-steward, recorder, four aldermen, eight assistants, two bailiffs, a town-clerk, two chamberlains, and twenty-four common-councillors. By grant from Henry I. the mayor, for the time being, acts in the buttery at the coronation-feasts of the kings and queens of England; and hence, as well as from other causes, many of them have received the honour of knighthood. Oxford sends two members to the national senate, and has done so, according to Willis, in his *Notitia Parliamentaria*, since the first institution of a parliament in this island. The electors are the corporation and freemen; and the returning-officers, the mayor and bailiffs.

This city is remarkable for an act of bribery, committed by almost all the members of the corporation. In 1767, Philip Ward, esq. then mayor, in conjunction with Thomas Robinson and John Brown, the bailiffs of the

said city, and several of the aldermen, wrote a letter to sir Thomas Stapleton, bart. and the hon. Robert Lee, their members, stating that they would elect them again at the next general election, for a certain sum of money, stipulated in that letter; and acquainting them, that, unless they complied with that condition, they certainly should not meet with their support. This letter was produced in the house of commons by the honourable members who received it; when, upon being read, it was agreed, that the persons concerned in writing that letter should be taken forthwith into the custody of the serjeant-at-arms. They were accordingly taken, and brought to the house of commons, and were by them committed to Newgate; but, after a confinement of some considerable time, upon their petitioning, and setting forth to the house their hearty sorrow and sincere contrition for their offence, they were discharged, after being reprimanded on their knees, by the speaker, in the following words.

“Philip Ward, John Treacher, sir Thomas Munday, Thomas Wise, John Nicholes, John Philips, Isaac Lawrence, Richard Tawney, Thomas Robinson, and John Brown: The offence of which you have been guilty has justly brought you under the severe displeasure of this house. A more enormous crime you could not well commit, since a deeper wound could not have been given to the constitution itself, than by the open and dangerous attempt which you have made to subvert the freedom and independence of this house. The freedom of this house is the freedom of the country, which can continue no longer, than while the voices of the electors are uninfluenced by any base or venal motive. For, if abilities and integrity are no recommendation to the electors, if those who bid highest for their voices are to obtain them from such detestable considerations, this house will not be the representatives of the people of Great Britain. Instead of being the guardians and protectors of their liberties, instead of redressing the grievances of the subject, this house itself will be the author of the worst of grievances; it will become the venal instrument of power to reduce this happy nation, the envy and admiration of the world, to the lowest state of misery and servitude. This is the abject condition to which you have attempted to bring your fellow-citizens. Many circumstances concur to aggravate your offence. The place of your residence was a singular advantage. You had at all times the example of one of the most learned and respectable bodies in Europe before your eyes. Their conduct in every instance, but especially in the choice of their representatives in parliament, was well worthy your imitation. You are magistrates of a great city. In such a station, it was a duty peculiarly incumbent on you to watch over the morals of your fellow-citizens; to keep yourselves pure from venality; and to prevent, by your influence, those under your government from being tainted by this growing and pestilential vice. How have you abused this trust? You yourselves have set the infamous example of prostitution in the most public and daring manner. Surely you must have felt some remorse from the generous disdain with which your corrupt offer was rejected by your representatives. They thought, and justly thought, that a seat in this house, obtained by a free and independent choice of their constituents, was the highest honour to which a subject can aspire; and that, discharging their duty as such representatives, was the noblest of services. Sorry I am to say, that these considerations do not appear to have had the least weight with you. However, you have at last acknowledged your guilt; and, by your petition yesterday, you seem conscious of the enormity of your offence. This house, in the terror of its judgments, always thinks upon mercy; nor do they ever inflict punishment but for the sake of example, and to prevent others from becoming the objects of their resentment. The censure passed upon you, will, they hope, have that effect. You are now the object of their mercy, and are brought to the bar to be discharged. May you be penetrated with
a due



South View of St. Mary's or University Church.

J. Chapman Sculp.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1820.

a due sense of their justice and lenity! May you atone for your past offence, by a constant endeavour to make a right use of the invaluable privileges which you enjoy as electors! Consider these privileges as a sacred trust reposed in you. Discharge it with integrity. But, before you rise from your present posture, I do, in obedience of the commands of this house, *reprimand you*. I am now to acquaint you, that you are discharged, paying your fees."

From the above period to the year 1796, the members for this city were nominated by the duke of Marlborough and the earl of Abingdon; but, at the general election in that year, Henry Peters, esq. offered himself as an independent candidate, and was elected, after an expensive contest. At the general election in 1802, the duke of Marlborough brought in one member, and the corporation the other; and procured the return of the same gentlemen again in 1806. In 1807, Mr. Lockhart, who had been an agent to Mr. Peters, succeeded upon the independent interest, in opposition to Mr. Atkyns Wright, the corporation-candidate. At the general election in 1812, the hon. George Eden was supported by the duke of Marlborough, Atkyns Wright, esq. by the corporation, and John Ingram Lockhart, esq. by the independent interest: the duke's member was not returned. The present members, elected Mar. 1820, are J. J. Lockhart and C. Wetherell, esqrs.

Oxford, with its suburbs, contains, according to the parliamentary returns of 1811, 2064 houses and 12,931 inhabitants, of whom 1015 persons belong to the colleges. The city is divided by four wards, under the immediate jurisdiction of the four aldermen; and these again, with their suburbs and liberties, are subdivided into fourteen parishes, viz.

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|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. St. Mary's. | 8. St. Mary Magdalen's. |
| 2. All Saints. | 9. St. Peter's in the East. |
| 3. St. Martin's, or Carfax. | 10. Holiwell. |
| 4. St. Aldate's, or St. Old's. | 11. St. Giles's. |
| 5. St. Ebb's. | 12. St. Thomas's. |
| 6. St. Peter's in the Bailey. | 13. St. John's. |
| 7. St. Michael's. | 14. St. Clement's. |

St. Mary's Church, or, as it is sometimes called, the University Church, is a beautiful structure, in the pointed style of the reign of Henry VII. It is situated on the north side of High Street; and consists of a spacious chancel, and three aisles, with a square tower and spire 180 feet high. The spire is supported by two graduated buttresses at each angle, and is finely ornamented with statues in niches, pinnacles, &c. The annexed Plate is from Loggan's *Oxonia Illustrata*. In this church the public sermons of the university are preached on Sundays and holidays; and it is consequently fitted-up in a manner proper for the reception of the several members of that distinguished corporation. The pulpit stands in the middle aisle, and at its western end is the chancellor's throne, which is raised several steps above the other seats. Close to the throne are the seats of the proctors; and, next to them, on either side, sit the doctors and heads of houses.

All Saints is situated in the same street with St. Mary's, but is a structure of a very different kind, being of comparatively modern erection, and in the style of sacred architecture which Sir Christopher Wren contributed to render popular. This edifice comprises a nave, a chancel, and two aisles; and its roof is supported entirely upon the side-walls, there being no pillars within the church, though pilasters of the Corinthian order are frequent. The tower is surmounted by a turret, encircled by Corinthian pillars, whence rises a spire. Between the lower range of windows are pilasters of the same character, disposed in couplets.

St. Peter's in the East is an interesting edifice, of a very ancient date. It is commonly said to be the earliest stone church erected in this part of England. The precise date of its foundation, however, is uncertain, as the

claims of St. Grymbald to be the founder are at least as doubtful as the story of his professorship under the patronage of King Alfred. This church was formerly the university-church, and the vice-chancellor and heads of houses still attend divine service here in the afternoon of the Sundays during Lent. It has a nave, chancel, and two side-aisles, with a tower at the west end. The chancel is a singular and curious specimen of architectural design; particularly in the ribs beneath the ceiling, and in two windows. Beneath the chancel is a crypt, supported by six circular pillars with square bases and capitals. Some of the latter are charged with very rude but singular sculpture.

St. John's Church, which is likewise a chapel to Mer-ton-college, is a rich specimen of the architecture of the fifteenth century, and in higher preservation than usually happens with the buildings of that age. Its members are a choir, a cross-aisle, an anti-chapel, and a square tower, which rises from the centre of the cross-aisle, and is elegantly adorned with panneling and pinnacles. The windows, both of the choir and cross-aisle, are filled with painted glass: so is likewise the great east window, the masonry of which is exquisitely delicate. Near the altar of this church are the monuments of those distinguished benefactors to the university, Sir Thomas Bodley and Sir Henry Savile; and, close to the door, is a small mural tablet, commemorative of the celebrated Oxford historian, Anthony Wood.

St. Martin's Church, commonly called *Carfax*, from its situation, as some suppose, at the meeting of the four main streets of Oxford, is a building of small extent, yet of just and even excellent proportions, and displays some specimens of very ancient and curious architecture. But alterations were rapidly effected in the pointed style shortly after its establishment, at the beginning of the 12th century, which were practised on the then existing structures whose importance did not require that their proportions also should be adapted to the new order. This is exhibited in the building now before us, which contains that variety and mixture of styles found, with very few exceptions, in ancient buildings. In the original unadorned walls of this church, several elegant alterations were made by the substitution of spacious windows, with beautiful and varied tracery, for the chaste and plain lancet-arches of the 12th century; a circumstance which proves that the situation was occupied by an elegant edifice, till the corrupt taste of the seventeenth century altered and injured its form, character, and relative proportions. Succeeding times have still more defaced this ancient structure; and, amidst many injudicious alterations and unnecessary dilapidations, only a portion of its originally good architecture, variety of form, and embellishments, appears undisguised or perfect. For these reasons we understand that this church is about to be totally demolished, and rebuilt (some say) upon the plan of Gloucester cathedral. (See Lamentations upon this subject, in the *Gent. Mag.* Aug. Sept. and Suppl. 1819.) We shall therefore give a further description of it, with a view, (see the Second Plate,) as it appeared in the last year, 1819. This church occupies the north-west angle of the intersection, or crossing, of the two streets; and is so situated as to expose to the full view of the High Street nearly the whole of its eastern front; which consists of three divisions, corresponding to the three aisles of the church: these are separated into nave and chancel, (an arrangement sufficiently apparent in the outside of the roof,) with a tower of good proportions at the west end. The introduction of the highly-beautiful architecture of the fourteenth century, observable in the principal windows of the east front, and in the whole of the fourth aisle, and the alterations of the north, has removed only a small portion of the original ancient edifice; for the entire east and north walls, with the lower half of the tower, were doubtless built at the commencement of the twelfth century: and those conversant with English architecture

chitecture will discover, in the very curious buttresses and northern window of the east front, the remarkable square door on the north side, and in the design of the tower, a peculiar character in the proportions, mouldings, and ornaments, belonging to that period, and not to a later. Nor is the masonry of this most ancient work unworthy of remark: the east and north walls are nearly twice as old as that of the south aisle, but are yet far more substantial and strong; and, to the decay of the south wall, and its being the most seen, must be chiefly attributed the fear of some accident, and the demand for a new church. The bold undertaking of opening spacious windows where only lancet-arches were originally designed, has, in this church, been executed with peculiar success; and their magnitude and beautiful tracery, particularly that of the great east window, excites no regret at these alterations, which, in many cases, have proved dangerous and mischievous. On the south side are three handsome windows; and between them and a double tier of small windows is the door, once a pointed arch, but altered in the year 1624 to a heavy Doric frontispiece. At the same time, the pediment of the east end was deformed as it now appears, and the heavy clock and chimes placed by its side. The upper, or *clere*, story, has four windows on the south, and the same number on the north side, where, in the aisle beneath, are large windows, the most western of them containing tracery like the elegant east window of the south aisle. The tower is without a door; but each side has a long narrow window, spreading to a considerable width inside, where it is quite plain, and sufficiently massive to withstand a siege, if required. The upper story of the tower is less ancient; each side has a window, and the whole a parapet of carved blocks and battlements.

The architecture of the interior of this church is very noble. The aisles are separated by three arches on each side, supported by octagonal columns, capitals, and bases, and are beautifully proportioned, very lofty, spacious, and uniform. The division of the body and chancel was formerly made at the most eastern column of each side by a very elegantly-carved wooden screen, portions of which still remain unobscured and uninjured; over this stood the ancient rood-loft; but, together with this screen, this also was removed, except the canopy, which is a richly-carved oak cove, quite entire. The roof of the nave is ancient, subdivided by arches and ribs, the whole of it painted, and the cornice ornamented with shields and arms. At the west end of the body, before the arch of the tower, and between the two entrances to the church, stands the font, raised on a step. Its form is octagonal, with a niche and figure in each face; at the angles are pannelled buttresses, and on the parapet quatrefoils and shields. In Oxford there are a few more ancient fonts, but certainly none more curious, notwithstanding that, between wanton injury and the whitewash of centuries, it is much defaced.

The absence of neatness, and consequent gloominess of the interior of this church, and, above all, the useless bulk of the galleries, and ill-disposed cumbrous pews, which occupy much more room than is necessary, are among the objections to the present building. And we suppose it to be a preliminary to removing the whole edifice, that a group of ancient and very picturesque houses, contiguous to the church-yard on the north side of the church, have been demolished; and the large plot of ground which for a considerable period has been thus occupied, is laid open to the spacious street leading towards St. Giles's church. But, whether any building of magnitude and use, or merely an obelisk, is to be erected within that space, is not known at present.

St. Ebba's, so called from Ebba, daughter of Ethelfrid king of Northumbria, has, we understand, been re-built, and was opened Feb. 9, 1817.

St. Giles's. It is conjectured that those churches which were dedicated in former times to St. Giles, the patron

saint of lepers, usually occupied a position at one extremity of the town to which they belonged, and were intended principally for the resort of those persons afflicted with the leprosy, and who resided in an hospital near the spot. The church thus dedicated at Oxford, stands at its northern extremity, a considerable distance beyond the gate called Bocardo, which joined, or very nearly so, the ancient tower of St. Michael's church. St. Giles's church is the most extensive of the parish-churches contained in this city. It is composed of architecture of various periods; the most ancient of which, appearing in the tower, and in the massive and plain pointed arches by which it is supported, belong to the twelfth century, the age when some of the characteristic features of the Norman style were united to those belonging to the pointed arch. The body of this church is composed of three very handsomely-proportioned aisles, which are each spacious and well lighted; the centre by a *clere* story of windows, and the side-aisles by lancet-windows, which on the south side are single openings, of lofty and narrow proportions, uniformly placed on each side an elegant stone porch, which is the principal, and indeed now the only, entrance to the church. The north aisle is lighted by double and triple lancet-windows, in five divisions. Four of these divisions are covered with pediments, which increase the variety of the design, and augment the elegance of this side of the church, now the most concealed from public view. The other component parts of this church are, a chancel, and a south aisle, the walls of which are not less ancient than those of the body, having a lancet-window on the south side, and another on the north side; the other windows possess various forms, and are of various dates; and so extensively and injudiciously has the eastern portion of the edifice been altered, that internally it appears gloomy and inelegant. Under the windows, towards the east end of the south aisle, are two recessed arches and a piscina. Every division of windows in the north aisle has an arch extending across from the great columns to the opposite piers, where are brackets for their support. One of these arches has been destroyed; and we may conjecture that each division or space of this aisle was formerly used as a chapel, having been separated by wooden screens which are now removed. Whether this conjecture be probable or not, a more reasonable one cannot perhaps be suggested that will lead us to account for the singular variety appearing in all the windows, such as double and triple openings; some with attached, others with insulated, columns; several of the arches are plain, and several are carved, with mouldings; some of the capitals plain, while others are enriched with exquisitely-sculptured foliage. The font is placed on a sub-base at the west end of this aisle. It possesses considerable elegance in design, with great novelty, and was certainly constructed early in the 13th century. Its general form is a square, the body being composed of broad semi-circular mouldings divided by rows of ornaments, and resting on a column with two slender and detached columns at every angle. A well-proportioned pointed arch opens from the south aisle of the body to the aisle of the chancel, which is now used as a vestry-room. A more spacious arch divides the body and chancel. A large semi-circular arch opens the chancel to the south aisle, which was made a chapel or chantry by one of the Fitzwarrens, and dedicated to the blessed Virgin Mary. It contains a stone seat for the officiating priest, and a piscina. The east window of this aisle is peculiarly elegant, while the larger window of the chancel is quite plain. At the east end of the north aisle is a large marble monument, consisting of two arches, supported on columns, and forming canopies to the kneeling figures of a male and female, and three children. A long inscription records the worth of Henry Bosworth, who was buried Jan. 3, 1633. A view of this church is added to the annexed Plate.

The above are the churches principally worthy of notice; and, as dissenters from the established church are comparatively



North West View of St. Martin's, or Carfax Church.



North East View of St. Giles's Church.

Engraved for the Encyclopedia Londinensis, Oct. 1820.

J. Chapman, Sculp.





Evesham Abbey, near Oxford, as it appeared in 1640.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1729.

Dale sc.

comparatively few in Oxford, meeting-houses are neither frequent nor spacious in extent. Here are, however, chapels belonging to the Roman Catholics, the Quakers, the Baptists, and the Methodists: a new Wesleyan chapel was opened on the 19th of February, 1818.

Among what have been termed the municipal public buildings, the Town and County Hall may properly claim the precedence as the seat of the courts of justice, and the focus of the municipal authority. It is a spacious edifice of stone, having a pediment over the centre of the front, which exhibits a range of rustic work in its lower division. The expense of erecting it was chiefly defrayed by Thomas Rowney, esq. late high-steward of the city.

The Radcliffe Infirmary is one of the public edifices conferred on Oxford by the munificence of Dr. Radcliffe; it having been built by his trustees with part of the funds remaining in their hands after the completion of the Radcliffe Library. It is a stone building, well adapted for the reception of patients, and has extensive grounds attached, the donation of T. Rowney, esq. above mentioned. The charity is supported by voluntary subscriptions.

The Town and County Gaol is a large edifice of stone, with separate lodgings, and yards of exercise for the debtors and felons. It occupies a part of the site of the old castle, built by Robert d'Oigly, and displays much more lightness and architectural taste than is usual in structures of a similar description. It was designed and erected by D. Harris, esq. architect.

The City Bridewell is a modern building, substantial in its construction, and well arranged for the purposes to which it is appropriated. Before the erection of this edifice, in 1789, offenders, within the jurisdiction of the mayor, were placed in a prison over the north gate, called Bocardo, where Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer, were confined, and whence they were led to the stake. In a small room, which forms the entrance to the Bridewell, is still preserved the door which is said to have led to the cell of these illustrious martyrs.

The General Market-house is a commodious range of building, erected under the authority of an act of parliament, and certainly constituting one of the greatest improvements effected during the last century. It is separated into three divisions, one appropriated to butchers, a second to the venders of poultry, bacon, &c. and a third to the sale of vegetables and fruits. Round the whole are ranges of shops under an arcade. Market-days, Wednesday and Saturday.

The House of Industry stands near the Infirmary. It was built for the reception of the poor of eleven parishes, and is consequently a structure of considerable extent, but possesses no architectural features worthy of remark. The other principal charitable institutions in Oxford are, Boulter's and Stone's alms-houses, and four charity-schools, one of which, for fifty-four boys, is supported by the university.

A *Provident or Saving Bank* was established here on the 22d of April, 1816. On the 3d of January, 1818, it appeared, that the number of persons who had deposited money therein was 530, and the amount 7289l. 19s. 4d. of which upwards of 1400l. had been paid in within the last three months.

This city, as has been already hinted, contained no fewer than nineteen religious houses prior to the reformation, some of which were converted into collegiate establishments. The names of these monastic institutions were as follows: 1. St. Frideswide's Priory; 2. St. George's College; 3. Osney Abbey; 4. Rowley Abbey; 5. St. Bernard's College; 6. Canterbury College; 7. Durham College; 8. Gloucester Hall; 9. London College; 10. St. Mary's College; 11. St. Bartholomew's Hospital; 12. St. John's Hospital; 13. Austin Friars; 14. Black Friars; 15. Grey Friars; 16. White Friars; 17. Crouched Friars; 18. Friars de Sacco; 19. Trinity-House. But of these we can now notice only two or three.

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St. Frideswide's Priory is said to have been originally founded for nuns of noble birth, by Didanus, an earl of Oxford, about the year 727, and to have derived its name from Frideswide, his daughter, whom he appointed the first prioress. In 1111 it was made the seat of a society of regular Augustine canons, and continued such till its suppression, when the site and buildings were granted to cardinal Wolsey for his college of Christ-church.

Osney Abbey was originally a priory for Augustine or black canons, founded by Robert d'Oigly, nephew to that Robert who was the founder of the castle; but was shortly after constituted an abbey. Within the walls of this religious seminary stood a most magnificent church, the grandeur and extent of which were much increased by the additional building erected by John Leech, abbot of this house, and other benefactors. The church, with the adjacent edifices, continued to be the admiration of beholders, till, with other societies of like nature, it felt the effects of the reformation, though it escaped, for a time, total demolition; for Henry VIII. converted it into a cathedral, and established therein a bishop, dean, and other officers; in which state it continued till the bishopric and chapter were transferred to St. Frideswide's college, now Christ-church; and Robert King, the abbot, was made first bishop of Oxford. From this time a gradual demolition has been made, till there are scarcely any vestiges of it remaining. It is probable that what the reformation began the rebellion completed. But it fortunately happened, that Mr. John Aubrey, the author of the *Antiquities of Surry*, then a gentleman-commoner of Trinity-college, whose natural turn for the studies of antiquity led him to fear the entire destruction of this magnificent structure, was induced to procure the view of it, as it appeared just before the rebellion commenced. What became of the original plate is not known: the impression is found but in very few copies of the *Monasticon*, vol. ii. page 136. and, wherever it is, it renders that copy of the work more valuable. A correct re-engraving of the print was given in the *Gentleman's Magazine* for April 1771; which, says the proprietor, "will doubtless be an acceptable present to the public, whether as a curious specimen of ancient architecture, or *for the purpose of inserting it in the work above mentioned.*" This hint, of tearing a plate out of one book to stick it into another, has been so well attended to, that the print has again become scarce, the copper having been probably destroyed in the fire of 1785. It has therefore been again re-engraved for the present work.

The Carmelite or White Friars first settled in Oxford A. D. 1254, in a house given them by Nicholas de Meules near the river, opposite to Rowley. About sixty years afterwards, however, they were transferred by king Edward II. to the ancient palace of Beaumont, which they possessed till the suppression.

The Palace of Beaumont, just mentioned, stood on the west side of the city. It was built by Henry I. before the year 1128, and continued to be a favourite regal residence during several succeeding reigns. Henry II. spent much of his time in this palace, which had the honour of giving birth to his gallant son, Richard I. All the buildings were pulled down at the dissolution, except the hall, the materials of which were afterwards used by archbishop Laud, in his additions to St. John's college. Only a small low fragment of them, therefore, now remains; and this appears to have constituted a part of one of its inferior divisions.

The Castle, built, or, as King supposes, restored, by Robert d'Oigly, was a fortress of prodigious strength, and occupied a great extent of ground close to the river Isis, towards the western side of the city. Being in a neglected state, and much decayed, in the reign of Charles I. it was repaired and rendered a post of defence by that monarch; but, after it became possessed by the parliament, a great part of its buildings were demolished. Hence the only remains of it now in existence are the

T t mount,

mount, a crypt, and the shell of one of the original towers, which is a square massive structure, lighted by a few loop holes only, and having a projecting bastion-turret at one angle, through which a narrow staircase leads to the top of the castle. It now constitutes part of the gaol.

FOREST HILL is the name of a small village situated on a pleasant hill, about three miles from Oxford, and was so called because it formerly lay contiguous to a forest, which has since been cut down. MILTON chose this place of retirement after his first marriage; (see vol. xv. p. 404.) and he describes the beauties of his retreat in that fine passage of his *L'Allegro*:

Sometime walking, not unseen,
By hedge-row elms, on hillocks green,
While the ploughman, near at hand,
Whistles o'er the furrowed land;
And the milkmaid singeth blithe,
And the mower whets his scythe;
And every shepherd tells his tale
Under the hawthorn in the dale.
Straight mine eye hath caught new pleasures,
Whilst the landscape round it measures;
Russet lawns, and fallows grey,
Where the nibbling flocks do stray;
Mountains, on whose barren breast
The lab'ring clouds do often rest;
Meadows trim, with daisies pied,
Shallow brooks, and rivers wide;
Towers and battlements it sees,
Bosom'd high in tufted trees.
Hard by a cottage-chimney smokes
From betwixt two aged oaks, &c.

"It was neither the proper season of the year, nor time of the day, (says Sir Wm. Jones, in his account of a visit to it,) to hear all the rural sounds, and see all the objects, mentioned in this description; but, by a pleasing concurrence of circumstances, we were saluted, on our approach to the village, with the music of the mower and his scythe; we saw the ploughman intent upon his labour, and the milkmaid returning from her country employment. As we ascended the hill, the variety of beautiful objects, the agreeable stillness and natural simplicity of the whole scene, gave us the highest pleasure. We at length reached the spot whence Milton undoubtedly took most of his images; it is on the top of the hill, from which there is a most extensive prospect on all sides: the distant mountains, that seemed to support the clouds, the villages and turrets, partly shaded with trees of the finest verdure, and partly raised above the groves that surrounded them; the dark plains and meadows of a greyish colour, where the sheep were feeding at large; in short, the view of the streams and rivers, convinced us that there was not a single useless or idle word in the above-mentioned description, but that it was a most exact and lively representation of nature. Thus will this fine passage, which has always been admired for its elegance, receive an additional beauty from its exactness. After we had walked, with a kind of poetical enthusiasm, over this enchanted ground, we returned to the village.

"The poet's house was close to the church; the greatest part of it has been pulled down, and what remains belongs to an adjacent farm. I am informed that several papers, in Milton's own hand, were found by the gentleman who was last in possession of the estate. The tradition of his having lived there is current among the villagers; one of them showed us a ruinous wall that made part of his chamber; and I was much pleased with another, who had forgotten the name of Milton, but recollected him by the title of The Poet. It must not be omitted, that the groves near this village are famous for nightingales, which are so elegantly described in the *Penferoso*. Most of the cottage-windows are overgrown with sweet-briars, vines, and honey-suckles; and that

Milton's habitation had the same rustic ornament, we may conclude from his description of the lark bidding him good-morrow,

Through the sweet-briar, or the vine,
Or the twisted eglantine;

for it is evident, that he meant a sort of honey-suckle by the eglantine; though that word is commonly used for the sweet-briar, which he could not mention twice in the same couplet."

NUNEHAM-COURTENAY, the seat of the earl of Harcourt, is near Oxford. At the general survey, this manor belonged to Richard de Courcy; afterwards to the family of Riparys, or Redvers. Mary, youngest daughter of William de Redvers earl of Devon (who, as well as his uncle William, was surnamed de Vernon), married Robert de Courtenay baron of Oakhampton, in 1214. It is probable that by this marriage the manor of Nuneham passed into the family of Courtenay, and thence assumed the name of *Nuneham-Courtenay*. After them succeeded (the Pollards) sir John Pollard, of Devon. From thence it came to Mr. Audley, of the Court of Wards, called the Rich Audley. From him to Robert Wright bishop of Lichfield, whose son, Calvert Wright, sold it to John Robinson, of London, merchant (temp. Oliver Cromwell); knighted in 1660 by king Charles II. and made lieutenant of the Tower. From the Robinsons it descended to David earl of Wemys, (who married Mary, daughter and co-heiress of sir John Robinson, bart.) from whom it was purchased in the year 1710, by Simon, first lord Harcourt, lord-high-chancellor of England.

The house was built by the first earl, but has since been much altered and enlarged (by the addition of a court of offices, &c.) according to the plans of Mr. Brown: it stands in a park of six miles and a half in circumference, well wooded, and containing near twelve hundred acres, in which are scenes worthy of the bold pencil of Rubens, or to be subjects for the tranquil sunshines of Claude. The gardens contain thirty-eight acres, and (except the terrace and flower-garden) were laid out by Mr. Brown. From the centre window of the breakfast-room round the south side of the garden, and back again, is half a mile and sixteen poles. From the same place along the terrace round the hill, at the termination of it, and back again, is a mile and a furlong.

The church is a beautiful building of the Ionic order, in the style of an antique temple; it was erected in the year 1764, at the sole expense of Simon earl of Harcourt, who gave the original design, which afterwards received a small alteration from Mr. Stuart. The principal portico, which consists of six columns, has no communication with the church, but serves for a seat in the garden; the public entrance is on the opposite side, and that to the family-pew through the semicircular portico at the west end. The inside was furnished and decorated by the late earl. The altar-piece, which represents the parable of the Good Samaritan, was designed and painted by Mr. Mason. The piece of tapestry at the west end (which is framed like a picture) represents the chiefs of the twelve tribes of Israel at the passover.

STANTON-HARCOURT is a village about seven miles from Oxford, situate between the two roads leading to Farringdon and Whitney, and was once the residence of the family of the Harcourts; but the mansion no longer appears in its former splendour. The chapel is still preserved by the present lord, with a great deal of attention and care. The interior part of this edifice, which was appropriated to the service of divine worship, is still entire; and the antique decorations of the ceiling preserve in a great degree their original form and appearance; it was adjoining the great hall, from whence there was a communication to a door opposite the altar, over which was a window enriched with stained glass, representing the various quarterings borne by the Harcourts, and also portraits of distinguished persons of that family. But the painted

painted glass is now removed, to preserve it from the probable destruction of such a deserted situation. In the tower are three rooms, about thirteen feet square; and over part of the chapel is a fourth. The uppermost of these rooms was occupied as a study by Mr. Pope, who passed two summers here for the sake of retirement. In one of the windows is the following inscription, written by him on a pane of glass: "In the year 1718 Alexander Pope finished here the fifth Volume of Homer."

The old kitchen is one of those ancient buildings erected without chimneys. Dr. Plot, in his History of this County, gives the description of it: "Among these eminent private structures (in the county of Oxford) could I find nothing extraordinary in the whole; but in the parts, the kitchen of the right worshipful sir Simon Harcourt, knight, of Stanton-Harcourt, is so strangely unusual, that, by way of riddle, one may truly call it either a kitchen within a chimney, or a kitchen without one; for below it is nothing but a large square, and octangular above, ascending like a tower, the fires being made against the walls, and the smoke climbing up them, without any tunnels or disturbance to the cooks; which being stopped by a large conical roof at the top, goes out at loop-holes on every side, according as the wind sits, the loop-holes at the side next the wind being shut with falling doors, the adverse side open."

Detached fragments of buildings and walls, and one or two respectable dwelling-houses, formed out of the ruins, though possessing little of antiquity, and nothing of interest, with their large gardens and orchards, now cover the site of this venerable mansion. The gate, or lodge, consists of a large arch with rooms over and at the sides, and had formerly a battlemented parapet, but is otherwise quite plain. In addition to Dr. P.'s description of the kitchen, we should observe that it is nearly of a square form, terminated with battlements, upon which is a low octagonal story, supporting a spiral or conical roof, and the figure of a lion on the top holding a vane, once charged with the arms of the family. This part is constructed of wood, every side having open compartments and trefoil arches to emit smoke from the fires within, and all being filled with weather-boards, which were open or closed, according to the direction of the wind.

The magnificent church, belonging to the village, stands a short distance eastward of this ruined mansion, and combines some early, as well as some very superbly-enriched, architecture of a later period.

Stanlake is a village near Stanton-Harcourt. The parson of this parish used formerly, in the procession on Holy-Thursd'ay, to read the Gospel at the barrel-head, in the Chequer-inn here, where some say was anciently an hermitage, others a cross, at which a Gospel used to be read in time of popery; and the inn, or cellar of it, being built over it, they were afterwards forced to perform it as aforesaid.

The remains of a Roman villa, were lately discovered on the duke of Marlborough's estate at *Stonesfield*, eleven miles from Oxford. They were first pointed out in 1816, by the Rev. Mr. Brown, vicar of that parish. By the assistance of that gentleman, and of the duke of Marlborough, extensive discoveries have been made. The building encloses about three acres of land; the peristyle, on every side of the quadrangle, is very evident, as are the divisions of forty-seven rooms. The pavements are tessellated, and in good condition. One of them, in a large room, is perfect. The tesserae are so exactly laid together, so beautifully varied, and the pattern so correct and elegant, that the best floor-cloth is not painted with more accuracy or beauty. The pattern is one which frequently appears on our modern floor-cloths. The baths are completely excavated; and the hypocausts and flues, by which they warmed the rooms, in the manner we have adopted for hot-houses, are apparent. The largest rooms seem to be about 30 by 25; one is exactly 28 by 24; a pro-

portion, in which the length exceeds the width much less than in modern rooms. Nothing has yet been found to fix the precise date of the villa; the coins collected are those of Constantine the Great, who flourished from 306 to 337.

The works chiefly consulted in the compilation of this article are—Nichols's Account of Queen Elizabeth's Progresses. Wilkes's British Directory, vol. iv. Wood's Athen. Oxon. Gent. Mag. 1771, 1818, 1819, 1820. Monthly Mag. 1810, 1814, 1815. Chalmers's Hist. of the University of Oxford, 1811. Chandler's Life of Bp. Weynflete, 1811. Britton's Architectural Antiq. vol. iii. iv. Oldfield's Representative History, 6 vols. 8vo. 1816. Brady's Clavis Calendaria. Plot's Oxfordshire. Beauties of England, vol. xiii.

OXFORD, a township of North America, in Worcester-county, Massachusetts: eleven miles south of Worcester, and containing 1277 inhabitants.—A town taken from the north part of Derby in Connecticut: seventeen miles north-west of Newhaven; containing 1400 inhabitants.—A post-town of New York, in Chenango-county, between Jericho and Norwich; incorporated in 1793, and containing an incorporated academy, and 1405 inhabitants.—A township of New Jersey, in Sussex-county, on the east bank of Delaware-river, fifteen or twenty miles north-east of Easton, in Pennsylvania, containing, in 1810, 2470 inhabitants.—A township of Pennsylvania, in Philadelphia-county; containing 973 inhabitants.—A township in Grenville-county, Upper Canada, situated in the rear and to the northward of the townships of Edwardburg and Augusta, and watered by the Rideau.—A township upon the Thames, in the Western District, Upper Canada, south of Dundas-street, where the western end of that road meets the upper forks of the river Thames.—A town in New Hampshire, Grafton-county, containing 988 inhabitants.—A port of entry, on the east shore of Chesapeake-bay, in Talbot-county: thirteen miles south-by-west of Easton, and about forty-eight south-east of Baltimore.—A small post-town of North Carolina; thirty-six miles from Hillsborough, and about 416 from Philadelphia.—A township of Ohio, in Guernsey-county, with 440 inhabitants; another on the Ohio, in Tuscarawa-county, with 271 inhabitants.

OXFORD (Lower), a town of Chester-county, Pennsylvania; with 769 inhabitants: twenty-one miles west-south-west from Philadelphia.

OXFORD (Upper), in the same county; with 700 inhabitants: twenty miles south-west of Philadelphia.

OXFORDSHIRE, one of the central counties of England, is bounded by Gloucestershire on the west; by Buckinghamshire on the east; by Berkshire on the south, south-west, and south-east; by Northamptonshire on the north; and by Warwickshire on the north-west. In figure this county is extremely irregular, being only seven miles in breadth in the centre, while its southern division is about twelve miles in diameter, and its northern half varies from little more than a mile, to thirty-eight miles in width. This latter portion, in proceeding northward from the centre, assumes the form of a cone, which terminates at what is denominated the Three-Shire Stone, in a complete point or apex. The total area of the county is computed, by Mr. Davis, at 742 square miles, or 450,000 acres, of which 309,000 lie to the north, and 141,000 to the south-east, of the city of Oxford; but in the table of poor-rates drawn up under the inspection of the late George Rose, the number of acres is estimated at 474,880.

When the Romans obtained possession of Albion, Oxfordshire, with some portion of the county of Gloucester, constituted the dominions of a British tribe called the *Dobuni*, who seem to have been of a less warlike disposition than most of their neighbours. Before the arrival of the Romans, they were held in subjection by the Cat-tieuchani, whose domination was so galling, that the Dobuni immediately embraced the protection of the new invaders,

invaders, and were admitted as tributary allies of the Roman people. Hence Cogidumnus, their legitimate prince, was not only continued in the government of his own territories, but had other states placed under his authority. The same power and privileges descended to his successors, each of whom, in union with his subjects, evinced on all occasions a firm adherence to their illustrious superiors, during the whole period of the residence of the Romans in Britain.

When the heptarchy was established, Oxfordshire became part of the powerful kingdom of Mercia, and remained annexed to that monarchy to the latest period of its independence.

In the subsequent contests which ensued between the Danes and the Saxons, several very obstinate and furious engagements were fought within the limits of Oxfordshire. Hoke-Norton is remarkable for a dreadful slaughter of the Kentish division of the army of Edward the Elder, by the Danes, and the Five Burgher insurgents under the command of Ethelwald.

In the wars between the houses of York and Lancaster, several persons of eminence belonging to this county lost their lives and properties; but it had the good fortune to escape the destructive ravages which at this period desolated many other districts of the kingdom. In one instance only did the partisans on either side enter Oxfordshire in arms. This was in the year 1469, when the earl of Warwick took post near Banbury, and soon after completely overthrew the Yorkists under the command of the earl of Pembroke, whom he took prisoner, and thus paved the way for the temporary restoration of Henry VI. The scene of this decisive action was the plain called *Daneşmore*, on the border of the county.

Oxfordshire, however, was not so much favoured during the next great civil contests which divided the people of England, and deluged her fertile fields with the blood of her own citizens; for, though the inhabitants do not seem to have embraced with senseless zeal either the republican or royal cause, it was their calamity to feel the iron rod of war with peculiar severity. The contending armies frequently traversed the county from one extremity to the other, levying contributions, and committing excesses equally destructive to the great body of the people, whether the troops in possession marched under the banners of the king, or of the parliament.

This county exhibits considerable variety of aspect. In its southern division, an alternation of hill and dale is productive of many pleasing displays of pictorial scenery. The Chiltern Hills, partly clothed with wood, and sometimes arable almost to their summits, possess a rich diversity of appearance. The middle district of the county is destitute of this inequality of surface, so favourable to beauty, but it is well wooded and highly fertile. In proceeding more to the north, the same flatness prevails; and, as the fields are generally inclosed by stone fences, the eye "is often fatigued by a rude and frigid monotony of scene." Here also the air is generally cold and piercing during the greater part of the year, and excessively hot in the summer-months. It is cold also throughout the whole Chiltern districts, especially on the poor chalk-lands, at the foot of the hills, where it is remarked that the frost will take effect sooner, and continue longer, than on the deeper lands in the vicinity. In warm seasons, the same district is usually moist, owing to the fogs, which are more frequent on the hills and woods than in the vales.

No county is more plentifully supplied with rivers. Dr. Plot says there are no less than seventy distinct streams, which either take their rise in this county or flow through it; nor do we believe the number is at all exaggerated, though at the same time it must be admitted that only a few of them are entitled to the denomination of considerable rivers. The principal of these are, the Thame, the Isis, the Charwell, the Evenlode, the Glym, the Ray, and the Windrush. The whole of these rivers unite with

each other at different points of the county, and eventually constitute the Thames, or *Thamisis*. The chief branch of this river enters Oxfordshire, under the denomination of the *Isis*, at Kilmescot, and proceeds in an irregular channel by Tynesham, Godflow, Oxford, and Abingdon in Berkshire; to Dorchester, where it is joined by the Thame, and is then called the *Thames*. Thence it continues its course by Wallingford, Goring, Whitchurch, and Caversham, to Henley, near which town it passes into Buckinghamshire. Throughout the whole of its current by Oxfordshire, this river forms the boundary between it and the county of Berks, and exhibits in the scenery of its banks much variety and beauty of aspect.

From the number of its rivers, Oxfordshire abounds in meadows and pastures; but these are no longer, as in the time of Gibson, the "greatest glory" of the county, being much circumscribed by the encroachments of arable cultivation. A large tract of meadow-land, on the banks of the Charwell, has been greatly injured by the construction of the canal from Oxford to Banbury. At Water Eaton is the best grass-land in the county. It is under-dairies which indeed constitute the appropriation of most of the meadow and pasture-grounds in Oxfordshire. Butter is the chief article here, only a small proportion of cheese being made for sale. The long-horned breed of cows is that generally preferred here. In the middle parts of the county a few oxen, cows, and sheep, are fattened; and a number of calves are suckled for the London market. No watered meadows are found in Oxfordshire, though many places are extremely well adapted for their formation.

Oxfordshire is said by Camden to have been anciently famous for its woods; and, even at present, except in the more northerly parts, it is better supplied with trees than most other counties of England. The only forest, however, within its boundaries, is that of Whichwood, which comprehends 6720 acres, 1 rood, and 39 poles. In this forest, the oak, the ash, the beech, and the elm, are intermixed; but the oak is most abundant and thriving; and, in the course of half a century's growth, will be perfectly fitted for naval purposes. The Chiltern district is profusely covered with beech, produced almost entirely by the falling of the beech-mast, very little being permitted to grow on the old stools. The other principal woodlands in this county are those at Stanton-St.-John, called the *Quarters*, and at Blenheim, the seat of the duke of Marlborough. Smaller plantations are numerous; almost every gentleman's seat in Oxfordshire being more or less surrounded with trees of different ages and sorts.

The only tracts of waste land, of any very considerable extent, are those situated in the parishes of Whichwood-forest, and the deanery-district, termed *Ottmoor*, which lies in the vicinity of Islip. The last, which contains about 4000 acres, is commonable to eight adjoining townships. The whole of it is extremely flat and wet, and consequently unwholesome to cattle, as well as prejudicial to the neighbourhood. The soil, however, is good; and, if drained, (which might be easily effected,) and inclosed, would undoubtedly prove highly amenable to the purposes of agriculture. The value of the grounds would thereby increase to probably ten times their present amount. The same may be said of the waste lands of Whichwood, and of the small commons in the northern district; but those in the Chiltern division are not susceptible of much culture.

The only canal yet cut through any portion of Oxfordshire is that which enters the county at its northern extremity, between Claydon and the Three-Shire-Stone. Approaching the vicinage of the river Charwell at Cropredy, it proceeds at a small distance from the banks of that river to the city of Oxford, (whence it is called the Oxford Canal,) where its channel terminates, and is succeeded by the navigation of the Isis. The probable advantages which will accrue from this cut are very great, as a direct water-communication has been thereby opened between



OXFORDSHIRE.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1820.



between the interior of the county, and Birmingham, Liverpool, Manchester, and the Wednesbury-colleries, as well as with the cities of London and Bristol.

Oxfordshire is divided into fourteen hundreds, which, together, contain 1 city, 12 market-towns, and 207 townships and parishes, all of them in the diocese of Oxford, and province of Canterbury. According to the parliamentary returns of 1811, the number of houses in the whole county was 23,217, and the number of inhabitants 119,191. In 1801, the houses were estimated at 20,599, and the population at 109,620 persons. Oxfordshire is represented in parliament by nine members; two knights of the shire, two citizens for Oxford, two representatives for the University, two burgesses for Woodstock, and one for Banbury. This county was formerly under one sheriff with Berkshire. It was summoned on the 22d of Edward I. and from that time has returned members to parliament. In the 22d of Edward I. the sheriff returned two knights of the shire, and two burgesses for Oxon; and, in the 28th year of that reign, to this county the sheriff added the knights for Berks, though not directed by his writ; and in the 18th of Edward III. he returned for both counties in one indenture.

This county is remarkable for having had the last great contest between the whig and tory parties, which happened at the general election in 1754, and first brought the famous Mr. Charles Jenkinson, who afterwards became earl of Liverpool, into court-favour and public notice; and procured him, at first, the humble situation of a clerk in the treasury; from whence he rose, by a regular gradation, in 1762 to be private secretary to lord Bute, in 1763 to be secretary to the treasury in the administration of Mr. George Grenville, grandfather to the present marquis of Buckingham; in 1766, a lord of the admiralty, under the administration of the duke of Grafton; in 1767, a lord of the treasury; in 1778, secretary at war, under lord North; in 1786 created lord Hawkesbury, and made chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster by Mr. Pitt; in 1790, first lord of trade and plantations; in 1796, earl of Liverpool, besides holding, for many years, the sinecure place of collector of the customs in the port of London, worth 6000*l.* per annum; and at last retired from office with the addition of an enormous pension for life. "All this accumulation of wealth, fortune, and favoritism, originated (says Mr. Oldfield) in his being what is commonly called squib-writer to the court-candidates at this memorable election. Lord-viscount Parker, and sir Edward Turner, were the whig-candidates, supported by the duke of Marlborough, earl of Guildford, earl Harcourt, and earl of Macclesfield, and by the administration of that day, the whigs being then in place; and it was lord Parker who first introduced Mr. Jenkinson to the duke of Newcastle, at that time minister, and procured for him the first appointment he obtained. Lord-viscount Wenman and sir James Dashwood were supported by the tory and opposition interest, and by the earl of Abingdon, and earl of Lichfield; and, after a most violent and expensive contest, this election ended in a double return of all four candidates; and, on the 23d of April, 1755, the house of commons declared that lord Parker and sir Edward Turner were duly elected, and ought to have been returned. At the ensuing general election in 1761, the duke of Marlborough nominated one member, and the tory-party the other, and they have continued to do the same ever since." Oldfield's Representative Hist. 1816.—The present members are, John Fane and W. H. Ashurst, esqrs.

Oxfordshire has little claim to be ranked among the number of the manufacturing counties. Witney blankets, indeed, were formerly much noted; but this branch of trade is now declined, and the town is reduced to a comparatively poor and destitute condition. At Woodstock is a small manufacture of polished steel articles, which was introduced by a Mr. Medcalf, and was at one time in a very flourishing state. Here is likewise a manufacture of

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leather breeches and of gloves, which employs about 70 men, and 1400 or 1500 women and girls. The wages of the men are from one guinea to 30*s.* weekly, and those of the women from 8*s.* to 12*s.* per week. A small quantity of lace is made in the town and neighbourhood of Thame; and at Bloxham and Banbury a coarse sort of velvet is produced. Henley has, for several centuries, been one of the London depots for malt.

Oxfordshire does not offer such a field for antiquarian research as many other counties; but, nevertheless, it affords some materials in this branch of inquiry, by no means unworthy of attention. Several very curious British coins have been found within its limits; and there are numerous barrows and other monuments here, which, we presume, may properly be referred to an era antecedent to the records of history. Of this description is the Druidical monument called *Rollrich* or *Rowbright Stones*, which were originally 60 in number, (though only 22 of them are now standing,) and formed a circle nearly equal in diameter to the outer one at Stonehenge. The sizes of these stones, however, are trifling, compared to the immense masses of the Wiltshire temple, few of them exceeding four feet in height, and sixteen inches in breadth. One only, in the northern part of the circle, is seven feet high, and five and a half broad; but, detached, is another, measuring eight feet in height, and seven in breadth. This last is denominated the King-stone, from a tradition that some ancient monarch and his court were converted into stones on this spot. Contiguous to it is a large long barrow, supposed to contain the ashes of an arch-druid; and near it is a square entrenchment, with a double ditch and vallum, having some remains of stone-work in its interior. These Dr. Stukeley calls Druid-courts, or houses. Several other barrows, with the apparent foundations of buildings close to them, are discovered in the vicinity of this temple; and about 300 paces from it was formerly a kistvaen of six stones, which have been lately removed.

Of the four principal Roman roads intersecting the island, one only passes through Oxfordshire. This is the Ikenild-street, which enters the county at the parish of Goring, and crosses it in a direction from south-west to north-east by Ippden, Ewelme, Watlington, and Crowell, to Chinnor, where it enters Buckinghamshire. Vicinal ways, however, are abundant. The Akeman-street stretches itself throughout the broadest part of the county, entering it near Holywell, and leaving near Ambroden, in the vicinity of the station Alcester. From this street many minor roads branch off in different directions. Two of these are traced near Kirklington, a third within Blenheim-park, and a fourth to the south of Bicester. Between Mongewell and Nuffield is a vallum, or high ridge-way, called Grimes's Dyke, or Devil's Ditch, also numbered by Dr. Plot among the Roman vicinal ways; but we are inclined to refer it to a more remote era.

OX'HANGER, a small island on the east side of the Gulf Bothnia. Lat. 63. 19. N. lon. 21. 58. E.

OXIA'NA, in ancient geography, a town of Asia, in Sogdiana, near the Oxus, or JIHON; which see.

OXIA'NA PA'LUS, a marsh of Sogdiana, called by Pliny *Oxus*, from the name of the river of which it is the source.

OXIB'II, a people of the Maritime Alps, between the river Argens and Antibes. These people were powerful, and signalized themselves against the Romans when they undertook the conquest of the Gauls. They leagued with the Deciales, for attacking the towns of Nice and Antibes. Steph. Byz. assigns to them a town called *Oribium*. Strabo mentions a port named *Oribus* as belonging to them, supposed to be the same with the maritime town called by Polybius *Egytna*.

OX'NA, a small island on the east coast of Shetland. Lat. 60. 8. N. lon. 1. 42. W.

OX'NEY, a river-island of England, in the county of Kent, formed by the divided streams of the Rother, about seven miles long, and three broad. It contains three parishes, and gives name to a hundred.

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OX'TER,

OXTER, *f.* [oxtan, Sax. probably from the Lat. *axilla*.] The arm-pit. *Common in the North of England.*

OX'US. See JIHON, vol. x.

OX'WICH, a seaport and parish in the hundred of Swansea, and county of Glamorgan, South Wales, is situated on a small promontory, to which it gives name, on the north coast of the Bristol Channel, at the distance of thirteen miles from Swansea. A considerable trade in limestone is carried on here, and gives employment to a number of people in the vicinity. The sea has made great encroachments on this parish; and is even supposed to have inundated the whole of the original village, as the old church and parsonage-house stand close to the shore, and the present village is built at some distance inland. Here are the remains of a large mansion, called Oxwich-castle, which was erected by Sir Rice Mansel, about the reign of Henry VIII. This edifice never appears to have been intended for the purposes of defence, but it may not unlikely have been built on the site of an ancient fortress, as, only a few yards from it, there are still to be seen the remains of a watch-tower of much older and stronger construction. Part of this castle was converted, many years ago, into a farm-house. Lobsters and crabs are caught in great plenty along the whole coast of this parish, which, according to the parliamentary returns of 1811, contains 50 houses, and 236 inhabitants.

Penrice-castle stands about three miles from Oxwich. It derived its name from the family of the Penrices, who settled here in the reign of Edward I. but is now the property of the Talbots. This demesne has lately been amazingly improved, and exhibits a diversity and richness of scenery altogether unexpected from the dreary appearance of the surrounding country. In the avenue to the gardens is a fine tomb of one of the emperors, which was brought from Italy. The village of Penrice has a good harbour for shipping. North from this place, upon a mountain called Com-Bryn, is a table-like monument, or cromlech, called *Arthur's Stone*. It consists of six or seven stones, about five feet in height, supporting a large flat stone, supposed to weigh nearly twenty tons. A spring issues from beneath, which ebbs and flows with the tide, and is celebrated as *Ffynnon Vair*, or my Lady's Well.

OX'WICH POINT, a cape on the south coast of Wales, in the Bristol Channel. It forms the eastern boundary of a bay called *Oxwich Bay*. Lat. 51. 27. N. lon. 4. 6. W.

OXYACANTHA, *f.* in botany. See BERBERIS, CRATÆGUS, and MESPILUS.

OXYBAPHUS, *f.* [from the Gr. *ὄξύς*, acid, and *βαφύς*, a dyer, or *βαφύς*, a colour used in dyeing.] UMBRELLA-WORT; in botany, a genus of the class triandria, order monogynia, natural order nyctagines, *Juss.* Generic characters—Calyx: perianthium inferior, of one leaf, bell-shaped, with five folds, and five broad, equal, shallow segments, permanent, sometimes three-flowered. Corolla: of one petal, funnel-shaped; tube about the length of the calyx; limb spreading, in five equal notched lobes; nectary fleshy, surrounding the base of the germen. Stamina: filaments three, inserted into the nectary, thread-shaped, declining, rather unequal, various in length; antheræ roundish, ascending. Pistillum: germen somewhat stalked, superior, roundish, furrowed; style thread-shaped, the length and position of the stamens; stigma globose, ascending. Pericarpium: none, except the permanent hardened base of the corolla. Seed: solitary, ovate, with five angles, standing upon the dilated, spreading; permanent, calyx.—*Essential Character*. Calyx five-cleft, bell-shaped; corolla funnel-shaped; seed solitary, coated, standing on the spreading permanent calyx. There are six species in this genus, which has been separated from MIRABILIS, on account of its short tube, lobed limb, three instead of five stamens, and calyx much dilated after flowering.

1. *Oxybaphus viscosus*, or viscid umbrella-wort: downy and viscid; leaves heart-shaped; panicle racemose; stamens longer than the corolla. Native of Peru, from

whence it was sent, about twenty-five years ago, to the royal garden at Madrid, and thence communicated to various other collections. Root perennial, but usually treated as annual: the whole plant covered with jointed glandular viscid hairs. Stem two feet, or much more, in height, erect, with opposite spreading branches. Leaves wavy, bluntly-pointed, thickish, but soft and pliant, like those of *Mirabilis longiflora*. Panicle branched, viscid, many-flowered, its branches beset with whorls and short clusters of small purplish flowers, the lobes of whose corolla are inversely heart-shaped, and much shorter than the stamens and style. Calyx of the fruit pendulous, membranous, pallid, reticulated with veins. Seed less than a grain of wheat, with five tuberculated angles, dropping out of the calyx when ripe.

2. *Oxybaphus glabrifolius*, or smooth-leaved umbrella-wort: leaves heart-shaped, glaucous, smooth; panicle corymbose. Flowers in terminal tufts; stamens shorter than the corolla. Native of Peru and New Spain. Cultivated at Madrid. Ortega describes this as a glaucous plant, with the acrid flavour of a *Sedum*; glandular and villous when young, but nearly smooth when full-grown. Leaves acute, entire, rough, with reversed hairs at the edges. Flowers small, purple, in tufts at the top of each branch of the panicle; calyx tipped with red.

3. *Oxybaphus ovatus*, or ovate umbrella-wort: hairy and viscid; leaves ovate; flower-stalks terminal, forked; stamens nearly as long as the corolla; stem erect. Native of elevated spots in Peru. Stem three feet high, clothed with jointed, glandular, viscid, hairs. Corolla red, twice as large as the calyx, till the latter becomes dilated and membranous as the fruit advances. This and the two next are known only from the Flora Peruviana, where the genus is called *Calyxhymenia*.

4. *Oxybaphus prostratus*, or prostrate umbrella-wort: leaves ovate or heart-shaped, downy; flowers axillary and terminal, somewhat corymbose; stem prostrate. Native of hills in Peru. Stem three feet long, striated, slightly downy; branches alternate, forked in the upper part. Flower-stalks from the forks of the branches, bearing from three to eight flowers on little partial stalks; corolla purple.

5. *Oxybaphus expansus*, or spreading umbrella-wort: leaves ovate, smooth; flower-stalks terminal, forked; stamens the length of the corolla; stem erect. Found on very dry hills in Lima. Stem six feet high, striated. Flower-stalks terminal, forked in a corymbose manner, bearing from six to eleven flowers, on unequal partial stalks, which are but slightly viscid; calyx downy and glutinous; corolla purple, somewhat bell-shaped.

6. *Oxybaphus aggregatus*, or three-flowered umbrella-wort: leaves lanceolate; flower-stalks axillary, solitary; calyx with about three flowers. Native of New Spain: it flowered in 1798 at Madrid. Stem a foot high or more, branched from the very base, striated, leafy. Leaves nearly sessile, about two inches long, opposite, lanceolate, thickish, wavy, smooth, rough-edged. Flower-stalks axillary, sometimes from the forks of the branches, solitary, short, drooping when in fruit; calyx bell-shaped, with unequal ovate segments, containing usually three flowers, rarely two or four, which are sessile, without any other perianthium; corolla reddish.

OXYCA'NI, in ancient geography, a people of India, who occupied the territory now called Hajykan, a circar or division of Sindy.

OXYCE'DRUS, *f.* in botany. See JUNIPERUS.

OXYCOC'CUS. See VACCINIUM.

OXYCRATE, *f.* [formed of the Gr. *ὄξύς*, sharp, sour, and *κραννύμι*, I mix.] A mixture of water and vinegar. The usual proportion is one spoonful of vinegar to five or six of water.—*Oxycrate* is proper to assuage, cool, and refresh. They make fomentations of *oxycrate*, clysters of *oxycrate*, &c. *Chambers*.—Apply a mixture of the same powder, with a compress prest out of *oxycrate*, and a suitable bandage. *Wifeman*.

OXYCRO'CEUM, *f.* [from the Gr. *ὄξύς*, sharp, sour, and *κροκος*, saffron.] A preparation used in plasters, for fractures,

fractures, and to form calluses; composed chiefly of saffron, with gums dissolved in vinegar.

OX'YD, or **OXIDE**, *f.* The term used in chemistry, to denote a very numerous class of bodies formed by the union of certain bases with a smaller proportion of oxygen than what is necessary for their conversion into acids. The most remarkable of these bodies are what were formerly called *metallic calces*, and have for their base some metallic substance. It is in this state that metals are often contained in the ores, from which they are extracted, and converted into the metallic form, by the process called *reduction*. Metals are converted into oxyds by combustion, and by solution in acids; and many of them assume this form from the action of the atmosphere alone, but more readily when this is assisted by moisture. See the article **CHEMISTRY**, vol. iv. p. 165. and **MINERALOGY**, vol. xv. p. 478.

OXYDA'TION, or **OXIDATION**, *f.* The process by which bodies are converted into oxyds.

OXYDER'CIA, *f.* [from the Gr. *ὀξύς*, sharp, and *δερμα*, to see.] Medicines to help the sight.

OXYDRA'CÆ, in ancient geography, a people of India, who inhabited the district now called Ouch, near the confluence of the Acesines (Chunaub) with the Indus.

OXYGA'LA, *f.* [from the Gr. *ὀξύς*, sharp, four, and *γάλα*, milk.] Sour milk. The Turks use this as a popular drink, and call it *igur*. Vigenere says, they drink four milk diluted with water; which is found to cool and nourish better than the milk alone.

OXYGAR'UM, *f.* A word used by the ancients to express a mixture of vinegar and *garum*, which is a pickle for preserving fish, or a simple mixture of sea-salt and water.

OX'YGEN, *f.* [Greek.] A principle existing in the air, of which it forms the respirable part, and which is also necessary to combustion.—*Oxygen*, by combining with bodies, makes them acid; whence its name, signifying “generator of acids.” *Todd*.

It appears, by M. Klaproth's extracts from a Chinese book written in the year of our era 756, that the Chinese had some faint notions of oxygen. They called it “the impure part” of air; and said that it combined with sulphur, charcoal, and metals; that it may be extracted from saltpetre by means of heat, and from the black stone called *he-tan-ché*. They seem to have thought likewise that it was a constituent of water.

OXYGEN GAS is the *dephlogisticated air* of Dr. Priestley, the first discoverer of it; the *vital air* of others. Under the article **CHEMISTRY**, vol. iv. p. 193, 4. we have given the various processes for obtaining it in a pure state. In this state it exhibits the following characteristic properties. It is permanently elastic at all known temperatures; colourless, transparent, and without smell and taste. It is respirable, and may be breathed for some time without inconvenience. Its specific gravity, compared to atmospheric air, is as 1111 to 1000; to hydrogen as 15 to 1. At a mean temperature and pressure, 100 cubic inches weigh 33·888 grains.

This important *element* is very generally diffused throughout nature. It exists in the atmosphere, and in water; it is often found in combination with metallic bases, and it constitutes one of the ultimate principles of almost all animal and vegetable matter. It is essential to the respiration of animals, and is frequently absorbed by plants, contributing to the healthy performance of some of their most intricate functions. Dr. Davy (Lect. at the Royal Institution, Mar. 7, 1812.) has demonstrated, that oxygen-gas forms one-fifth of the air of the atmosphere, and is the principle necessary for combustion and respiration. In its pure form it produces a number of brilliant results, by acting upon inflammable bodies; the metals burn in it brilliantly and absorb it, and it is a constituent part of most acids and alkalies. Mr. Davy shewed a beautiful experiment, in which the same oxygen, by being combined with sulphur, formed an acid, and, by being ab-

stracted from the sulphur by potassium, which took place with vivid combustion, formed an alkali. Mr. Davy entered into some general views respecting the manner in which the oxygen of the atmosphere, and that dissolved in waters, were renovated. Oxygen is absorbed, and carbonic acid is produced, in the respirations of animals, in combustion and in fermentation; vegetables, in the sunshine, absorb carbonic acid, and evolve oxygen. Mr. Davy combated the idea that this function of vegetable life was not sufficient to supply oxygen equivalent to that consumed. There is no other mode known in which carbonic acid is decomposed in the processes of nature; and, did not vegetables absorb it, it must be constantly accumulating, which is known not to be the case. A great part of the solid surface of the globe is covered with plants, and light is essential to their healthy growth, and therefore great quantities of oxygen are produced in countries where there is little animal life. Fishes, he stated, will live in confined portions of water containing aquatic plants; and the oxygen they absorb is compensated for by the plants, which decompose the carbonic acid afforded in their respiration. This view of the connection of plants and animals in their action upon air, is not only supported by many proofs, but is likewise, says Mr. Davy, conformable to the analogy of nature; it proves to us that the meanest weed, the most poisonous plant, is not without its uses in the economy of things. The different parts of the atmosphere are mingled by winds; the carbonic acid not consumed by sound plants is carried into the waters, dissolved by rain, mists, and dews; the sea is kept in agitation by waves and tides, and its influence upon the air constantly exerted; the storm and the whirlwind assist in this beneficent ministration; and the harmony displayed in such diversified combinations, offer a striking instance of the wisdom and perfection of the arrangements connected with the preservation of life in the system of the globe.

It will create no surprise, therefore, in our readers, when they are told that the inhalation of this gas, emphatically called *vital air*, has been recommended in cases of catalepsy, epilepsy, and consumption. Many cures have been effected by it within our own knowledge; but it may become a dangerous engine in the hands of unskilful persons: it is a remedy not to be trifled with.

Mr. Thenard has recently been able to combine oxygen with acids to an almost-unlimited extent, chiefly by means of the peroxyd of barium. His general method was, to dissolve the peroxyd in the acid intended to be oxygenized, and afterwards to separate the barytes by means of sulphuric acid; the oxygen was thus transferred from the peroxyd of barium to the acid; and, by repeating the operation, he found that additional doses could be added. In this way he oxygenized the nitric, muriatic, phosphoric, and other, acids; and, by taking advantage of its other properties, the muriatic acid in particular, was oxygenized even so far as to contain 64 atoms of oxygen to 1 of muriatic acid. These oxygenized acids combine with the different bases, and neutralize them; but they are by no means permanent, giving off their superfluous oxygen by the application of heat, &c. By similar methods M. Thenard has been able to combine additional doses of oxygen with many of the metallic oxyds. *Annales de Chimie*, tome ix.

OXYGENATED MURIATIC ACID, or **OXYMURIATIC ACID**. See the article **CHEMISTRY**, vol. iv. p. 218. It is now called **CHLORINE**, (from *χλωρός*, Gr. green,) in consequence of some new properties discovered in it, and the absence of others it was supposed to possess.

Sir Humphry Davy, in his Chemical Lectures at the Royal Institution, divides all substances not yet decomposed, into two great classes; supporters of combustion, and combustible bodies; and, in the first class, he says, there are only two substances as yet known; oxygen, and *chlorine*, hitherto called oxy muriatic acid.

Sir H. Davy's new theory is the following: That oxy-

muriatic acid is a substance hitherto undecomposed, and therefore must at present be considered as an *element*; that it contains no oxygen, at least none has ever been extracted from it; that it unites with most metals and salifiable bases, forming the *muriats*, which therefore are not (like the sulphats, nitrats, &c.) compounds of an *oxydated* base and an acid, but are composed merely of the base and of oxymuriatic acid. Thus, for example, common salt, or muriat of soda, when perfectly dry, is, according to this hypothesis, composed, not of soda and muriatic acid, but of sodium and oxymuriatic acid, and so of the rest. Oxymuriatic acid will, however, unite with oxygen, forming a very singular compound, whose properties have been discovered by sir H. Davy. This eminent chemist therefore gives the name of *chlorine* to oxymuriatic acid, and of *euchlorine* to the compound of, oxymuriatic acid and oxygen, which will be presently described.

Chlorine has the following properties: Its colour is, as its name imports, greenish-yellow. It has a peculiar suffocating odour, and, when respired, is instantly fatal: even when largely diluted with atmospheric air, it produces highly deleterious effects, such as cough, catarrhal affection, and great irritation of the lungs. These are circumstances which render much caution necessary in collecting and examining the gas. One hundred cubic inches of chlorine, at a mean temperature and pressure, weigh 76 grains. At the temperature of 60° Fahrenheit, one volume of water dissolves about two of chlorine: the solution has the odour and colour of the gas: its taste is nauseous and astringent. By means of Wolfe's apparatus, water may be conveniently saturated with this gas: the contents of the first bottle should be rejected as containing a portion of muriatic acid, which passes over during the distillation. When a burning wax-taper is plunged into a bottle of chlorine, the brilliancy of its flame is greatly impaired; it exhibits a dull red light, and throws off a large quantity of charcoal.

The attraction of chlorine for the metals is in most instances extremely energetic; when copper-leaf, or antimony, or arsenic in powder, are thrown into the gas, they immediately enter into vivid combustion, and form binary compounds; and, if the oxyds of these and many other metals be heated in chlorine, oxygen is expelled, and similar compounds of the metal and chlorine result.

The metallic *chlorats* may be formed by dissolving the oxyds of the different metals in chlorine acid. They do not possess any very remarkable properties, except those common to all the chlorats, or muriats, viz. of giving out oxygen when heated, and of detonating when thrown on burning coals. The chlorat of silver, mixed with a little sulphur, and struck slightly, detonates with considerable violence.

From the action of chlorine, or oxymuriatic acid gas, on ammonia under peculiar circumstances, a very singular product, exceeding all others in detonating quality, is obtained. This compound, now called *detonating oil*, was discovered by Dulong, a French chemist; and an extensive series of experiments has been made upon it by Messrs. Porret, Wilson, and Kirk. To obtain it, fill a small jar with chlorine, and transfer it into a basin containing a solution of nitrat or muriat of ammonia a little warmed; the gas will slowly become condensed, and the liquor rise up in the jar; an oily-like film will form on its surface, which increases and collects into globules, which at length fall through the liquor: this is the explosive compound. It explodes violently at 212° Fahrenheit; the most violent explosions, however, are produced from it when it is touched cold with inflammable bodies: a portion of it, for example, the size of a pin's-head, being brought in contact with olive-oil, the vessel is broken into fragments by the violence of the explosion; its effects are indeed so violent, as to have given rise to severe accidents; hence the propriety of wearing a mask and gloves, and of taking care that the vessel in which it is formed, or the instrument by which it is removed, shall be perfectly clean and

free from combustible matter. It is singular, that a number of inflammable substances do not cause this curious substance to explode, such as charcoal, alcohol, or ether; and, among the inflammable bodies which either do or do not cause it to explode, it does not appear that any analogy can be traced. From a series of analytic experiments made by Messrs. Porret, Wilson, and Kirk, it appears that this compound consists of chlorine, nitrogen, and hydrogen: the hydrogen, they suppose, by its affinities to the other elements, serves as the medium of union; and the great explosive power of the compound they conceive owing to the action of oxymuriatic acid condensed in the combination, but at the same time retained only by a weak affinity. It is not improbable that it may be a hyper-oxymuriate of ammonia. The preparation of this compound is extremely hazardous, and requires the greatest precaution.

It has been found, by experiment, that all seeds vegetate most rapidly when steeped in oxymuriatic acid. One instance will suffice. The seeds of *Lepidum sativum* germinated after six or seven hours when put into oxymuriatic acid, whereas, when lying in common water, they required from thirty-six to thirty-eight hours. Seeds twenty or thirty years old, brought from the Bahama Islands, Madagascar, &c. which constantly refused to germinate, very readily in this way vegetated, and produced plants which grew up very successfully. As every gardener cannot obtain this acid, Mr. Humboldt proposes a very easy method to procure it without difficulty. He took a cubic inch of water, a tea-spoonful of common muriatic acid, two tea-spoonfuls of oxyd of manganese; mixed it, and placed the seeds in them. The whole was allowed to digest with a heat of 18—30° of Reaumur. In this the seeds germinated excellently; but it is necessary to take the seeds out as soon as the corkle appears. That the seeds are not injured by the acid, is proved by the many plants which have been treated in this way under the inspection of Mr. Jacquin, and in which vegetation went on extremely well.

It was in the year 1811 that sir H. Davy discovered the gaseous compound of chlorine and oxygen. Its colour is more intense than that of chlorine; a circumstance which induced him to call it *euchlorine*, from *eu* and *χλωρος*. To obtain this gas, some oxymuriate of potash should be introduced into a very small glass retort, and a mixture of equal parts of muriatic acid and water poured upon it. Twenty grains of the crystallized oxymuriate to half an ounce of the dilute acid, are good proportions. On the cautious application of a very gentle heat, the euchlorine passes over, and must be collected in the mercurio-pneumatic apparatus. The smell of this gas differs from, and is much less disagreeable than, that of chlorine; but it is unrespirable. Water takes up eight times its volume of euchlorine, and forms a lemon-yellow solution. Its weight, compared with that of hydrogen, is as 33 to 1. One hundred cubic inches weigh seventy-five grains. When heated to a temperature between 100° and 150°, it expands with explosion, and is resolved into its constituent parts; viz. two volumes of chlorine and one of oxygen. It exerts no action upon those metals which inflame in, and energetically combine with, chlorine. If copper leaf, for instance, be introduced into pure euchlorine, it is not even tarnished; but, if heat be applied so as to decompose the gas, the metal is instantly ignited, and burns as in a mixture of two parts of chlorine and one of oxygen. Phosphorus an inflamed taper, and sulphur in a state of combustion, immediately decompose euchlorine, and exhibit the same phenomena as when burned in an artificial mixture of its elementary gases. The term *chlorine* should now supersede that of *oxymuriatic acid*, not merely on account of its brevity and propriety, but as founded upon an obvious and unalterable character of the body it represents, namely, its colour; besides, it would be absurd to call a body *oxymuriatic acid* which exhibits no acid characters, and in which neither oxygen nor muriatic

matic acid have hitherto been proved to exist. See Willdenow's Principles of Botany and Vegetable Physiology, Edinb. 1811. Davy's Lectures at the Royal Institute, 1812. Aikin's Account of recent Discoveries in Chemistry, 1814. Accum's Chemical Amusements, 3d edit. 1818.

OXYGON, *f.* [from the Gr. *ὄξυς*, sharp, and *γωνία*, a corner.] In geometry, a triangle having three acute angles.

OXYGO'NIAL, or **OXYG'ONOUS**, *adj.* Belonging to an oxygen; having three acute angles.

OXYLAP'ATHUM, *f.* in botany. See **RUMEX**.

OXYLOBIUM, *f.* [from the Gr. *ὄξυς*, sharp, and *λόβος*, a pod or legume; alluding to the sharp point or beak of that part.] In botany, a genus of the class decandria, order monogynia, natural order papilionaceæ, *Linn.* (leguminosæ, *Juss.*) Generic characters—Calyx: perianthium inferior, somewhat two-lipped, in five deep segments, without appendages; the three lower ones rather more deeply serrated. Corolla: papilionaceous, of five petals; standard roundish, broad, with a short claw; wings obovate, a little shorter than the standard, oblique at the base, with short linear claws; keel compressed, as long as the wings, of two heart-shaped petals cohering at their summits, with two short, linear, distinct, claws. Stamina: filaments ten, awl-shaped, ascending, all enclosed in the keel; antheræ roundish. Pistillum: germen ovate; style awl-shaped, ascending, permanent, and finally hardened; stigma simple. Pericarpium: legume ovate, turgid, acute, of one cell. Seeds: several, roundish, kidney-shaped, inserted into the margin of each valve at the dorsal suture.

—*Essential Character.* Calyx deeply five-cleft, somewhat two-lipped; corolla papilionaceous; keel compressed, nearly as long as the spreading standard; style ascending; stigma simple; legume ovate, inflated, pointed, of one cell, with several seeds. There are three species.

1. *Oxylobium arborescens*, or tall oxylobium: leaves linear-lanceolate; bractes permanent, at the top of the flower-stalk; corymbs dense; legume scarcely longer than the calyx. Found by Mr. Brown in Van Diemen's Land; brought to Kew-garden in 1805, where it flowers from April to June, and is kept in the green-house. The stem is shrubby or arborescent.

2. *Oxylobium ellipticum*, or oval-leaved oxylobium: leaves elliptic-oblong; bractes below the top of the flower-stalk, deciduous; corymbs dense; legumes twice the length of the calyx. Discovered first by the late Mr. David Nelson, in Van Diemen's Land, from whence it was brought to Kew by Mr. Brown in 1805. It is kept in the green-house, and flowers most part of the summer. From the plate and description of Labillardiere, the stem is shrubby, nine feet high, with upright silky branches that are sometimes whorled. Leaves imperfectly-whorled, near an inch long, elliptical, silky beneath, tipped with a small point. Flowers numerous, in dense short silky corymbs. We presume the corolla is yellow; but Labillardiere, having described from his dried specimens only, generally omits that particular. The legume is clothed with dense twisted yellowish hairs, which are very sensible hygrometers.

3. *Oxylobium cordifolium*, or heart-leaved oxylobium: leaves ovate, somewhat heart-shaped, loosely hairy; umbels terminal, sessile, of few flowers. Discovered in New South Wales by Sir Joseph Banks, in the course of his celebrated voyage. Seeds were imported by Mr. Loddige, who raised plants from them about 1804 or 1807. This shrub is kept in the green-house, and blossoms throughout the summer, producing plenty of seeds, by which, or by cuttings, it is readily increased. It is of humble growth, with numerous, partly-whorled, round, hairy, purplish, leafy branches. Flowers of a rich deep-orange, verging towards scarlet, from three to six in each close terminal umbel. *Brown in Ait. Hort. Kew*, vol. iii.

OXYMEL, [from the Gr. *ὄξυς*, sour, and *μέλι*, honey.] A mixture of honey and vinegar boiled to the consistence of a syrup:—In fevers, the aliments prescribed

by Hippocrates, were ptisans and decoctions of some vegetables, with *oxymel*, or the mixture of honey and vinegar. *Arbuthnot*.

Simple Oxymel is composed of two pounds of clarified honey, and a pint (lb.) of acetic acid (distilled vinegar), boiled in a glass vessel by a gentle heat into the consistence of a syrup. Simple oxymel dissolved in barley-water, forms a pleasant and cooling beverage in fevers and inflammatory affections. It is often added to gargles in cynanche tonsillaris, and is a common article with other remedies in catarrhal complaints.

Oxymel of Squills is prepared by boiling three pounds of clarified honey in two pints of vinegar of squill in a glass vessel, over a gentle fire, to a proper consistence. This is principally employed as an expectorant, and, as such, is very useful in humoral asthma, and chronic coughs. It is generally given in some aromatic distilled water, to prevent the nausea which it is apt to induce; in large doses it is given to excite vomiting, and at the same time to clear the chest, in hooping-cough.

Oxymel of Verdigris, consists, according to the Dublin College, of the following ingredients: Prepared verdigris, one ounce; wine vinegar, seven fluid ounces; and clarified honey, fourteen ounces. Dissolve the verdigris in the vinegar, and strain it through a linen cloth; add the honey, and boil the mixture to a proper thickness. This preparation is detergent and escharotic. In the above state it is used for taking down fungous flesh; and, considerably diluted, it is an useful stimulant to foul ulcers, which it clears, and excites to a more healthy action.

OXYMO'RON, *f.* [Greek.] A rhetorical figure which seems to imply a contradiction; as when Ovid (viii. 47) says of Althea, *Impietate pia est*.—Some elegant figures and tropes of rhetoric, biting sarcasms, sly ironies, strong metaphors, lofty hyperboles, paranomases, *oxymorons*, lie very near upon the confines of jocularity. *Barrow*.

OXYOIDES, *f.* in botany. See **OXALIS**.

OXYO'PIA, *f.* [from the Gr. *ὄξυς*, sharp, and *ὀψις*, vision.] A peculiar acuteness of sight sometimes observed in fair persons.

OXYPET'ALUM, *f.* [from *ὄξυς*, sharp, and *πέταλον*, a petal.] In botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order digynia, natural order contortæ, *Linn.* (apocynæ, *Juss.* aclepiadæ, *Brown*).—*Essential Character.* Corolla with a short inflated tube; the limb in five deep segments, each with a ligulate appendage above; crown of the stamens of five roundish, simple, fleshy, leaves; antheræ tipped with a membrane; masses of pollen linear, pendulous, attached to the curvature of the processes, which are subsequently turned upwards; stigma with an elongated deeply-divided point.

Oxypetalum fragrans, the only species, discovered by Sir Joseph Banks, in 1768, near Rio Janeiro. A twining shrub, with opposite heart-shaped leaves. Umbels between the footstalks, somewhat corymbose. Flowers sweet-scented. *Brown in Wern. Transf.* vol. i. p. 41.

OXYRIN'CHITES, in ancient geography, a nome of Egypt, in Heptanomia, to the left of the Nile, on the borders of Libya.

OXYRIN'CHUS, a town of Egypt, the capital of the preceding nome, took its name from a fish, called by the Greeks *ὀξύρυγχος*, which was an object of worship to the Egyptians, and which had a temple in this nome. This city became episcopal, and was much celebrated in the earlier ages of the church. Baillet says that it contained 20,000 nuns and 10,000 monks, whence we may infer that the remaining population was very numerous; but this establishment contributed in process of time to the diminution of the inhabitants and the decline of the place. Nothing remains of this city in the village called Benesch, built on its ruins, but some fragments of stone pillars, marble columns in the mosques, and a single column left standing, along with its capital, and parts of the entablature, which show that it is the fragment of a

X x

portico

portico of the Composite order. "Thus, Oxyrinchus, once a metropolis, surrounded by a fertile plain, two leagues off the Lybian range of hills, has disappeared beneath the sand; and the new town has been obliged to retreat from this desolating invasion, leaving to its ravages house after house; and the inhabitants must at last be driven beyond the canal Jusuf, on the border of which they will be still menaced." Denon's Travels in Egypt, vol. i.

OXYRRHODINE, *f.* [from the Gr. *οξύς*, sour, and *ῥόδον*, rose.] A mixture of two parts of oil of roses and one part of vinegar, stirred together for some time. To these are sometimes added distilled waters. It is used for inflammations, and to dry up tetters. Scultetus prescribes it as follows: Two whites of eggs beaten, one ounce and a half of vinegar of roses, four ounces of rose-water, and two ounces of oil of roses.—The spirits, opiates, and cool things, readily compose *oxyrrhodines*. *Floyer on the Humours*.

OXY'S, *f.* in botany. See **OXALIS**.

OXYSACCHARUM, *f.* [from the Gr. *οξύς*, sour, and *σάκχαρον*, sugar.] A liquid medicine, composed of sugar and vinegar. The name is more peculiarly given to a syrup prepared with vinegar, the juice of four pomegranates, and sugar; used to cool, refresh, and resist the malignity of peccant humours.

OXYSTELMA, *f.* in botany. See **PERIPLOCA**.

OXYTROPIS, *f.* [from the Gr. *οξύς*, sharp, and *τροπή*, carina, or keel.] In botany, a genus of plants instituted by Monf. A. P. Decandole, in his History of the Astragali, &c. 1802. The species of this genus are furnished with a mucronated keel, and a legume divided into two compartments by a partition originating in the upper suture. Of these several have been removed from **ASTRAGALUS**, several which Pallas had described under **PHACA**, and some not formerly published; in all thirty-three species. See those articles.

OYACA/CHA, a town of South America, in the province of Quito: twenty-five miles east of Quito.

OYAMBRE. See **CAPE OYAMBRE**, vol. iii.

OYAPOOK, a river of Guiana, which runs into the Atlantic near Cape Orange.

OYE, a town of France, in the department of the Straits of Calais, situated on a river, a branch of the Aa, to which it gives name; formerly in possession of the English: five miles west of Gravelines, and seven east-north-east of Calais.

O'YE, (Norder and Sander,) two small islands of Denmark, in the North Sea, two and three miles north of Nordstrand.

OYER, a town of Norway: eighty-eight miles north of Christiania.

OYER, *f.* [Fr. to hear.] A word which seems to have been anciently used for what we call *assises*. Hence,

OYER AND TERMINER is a commission directed to the judges and other gentlemen of the county to which it is issued, by virtue whereof they are empowered to *hear and determine* treasons, and all manner of felonies and trespasses. See **ASSISES**, vol. ii. and **JUSTICE**, vol. xi. p. 558, 60.

OYES, *f.* [*oyez*, hear ye, Fr.] The introduction to any proclamation or advertisement given by the public criers both in England and Scotland. It is often thrice repeated:

Fairies, black, grey, green, and white,
Attend your office and your quality.
Crier hobgoblin, make the fairy *O Yes*. *Shakespeare*.

The crier of a court.—Good faith! he looks like an *O Yes*. *Suckling's Goblins*.

O'YEST. See **UYSTE**.

OYL CREEK, a river of Pennsylvania, which runs into the Alleghany in lat. 41. 26. N. lon. 72. 43. W.

OYLET-HOLE, *f.* [from *oillet*, Fr. but *EYELET* is better, as being English. See that word.]

Distinguish'd flashes deck the great,
As each excels in birth or state;
His *oylet-holes* are more and ampler;
The king's own body was a fampler.

Prior.

OY'ON, a town of Spain, in the province of Alava: twenty-two miles south-south-east of Vittoria.

OYONNAX, a town of France, in the department of the Ain: seven miles north of Nantua, and twelve south-west of St. Claude.

OY'SSEL, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine: seven miles south of Rouen.

OY'STER, *f.* [*οστρα*, *οστρε*, Sax. *oystre*, old Fr.] A bivalve testaceous fish.—There may be many ranks of beings in the invisible world as superior to us as we are superior to all the ranks of being in this visible world; though we descend below the *oyster* to the least animated atoms discovered by microscopes. *Watts's Improv. of the Mind*.—The world's mine *oyster*, which I with sword will open. *Shakespeare's M. Wives of Windsor*.—Rich honesty dwells like your miser, sir, in a poor house; as your pearl in your foul *oyster*. *Shakespeare*.

For sundry curious particulars on the subject of oysters, see the article **OSTREA**, p. 32, 3, 4. The oyster-fishery, in the river Medway, is regulated by stat. 2 Geo. II. c. 19. and a court is kept for that purpose at Rochester yearly, where, by a jury of free dredger-men of the oyster-fishery, the same is to be inquired into; and they may make rules and orders when oysters shall be taken, what quantities in a day, and to preserve the brood of oysters, &c. and may impose penalties not exceeding 5*l*. Also water-bailiffs shall be appointed to examine boats, &c. By stat. 31 Geo. III. c. 51. amended by 48 Geo. III. c. 144. for regulating oyster-fishing in general, fine and imprisonment may be inflicted on persons unlawfully fishing for oysters. And those who steal them are punishable as felons, by seven years transportation.

FOSSILE OYSTERS. See the article **CONCHOLOGY**, vol. v. p. 31.

OYSTER BA'Y, a township of New-York, situated in Queen's county, Long-island, extending from the sound south to the Atlantic Ocean, and including Lloyd's Neck, or Queen's-village, and Hog-island. It contains 4548 inhabitants, of whom 134 are slaves.

OYSTER BA'Y, a harbour for small vessels, in the south-west limits of Barnstable, Massachusetts. It derives its name from its excellent oysters.

OYSTER CREEK, a river of North Carolina, which runs into the Atlantic in lat. 34. 50. N. lon. 76. 45. W.

OYSTER CREEK, a river of New Jersey, which runs into the Atlantic in lat. 39. 44. N. lon. 74. 20. W.

OYSTER HARBOUR, a bay on the south-west coast of New Holland, and north-part of King George the Third's Sound, discovered by Capt. Vancouver in the year 1791; and so called from the plenty of oysters found there. Oyster Harbour is rendered admissible alone for vessels of a middle size, by the shallowness of the water on the bar, extending from shore to shore, on which were found seventeen feet water only, although the depth increased from five to seven fathoms on each side. The deep water within the harbour did not seem of any great extent. In both these harbours the communication with the country is rendered unpleasant, by the shallow depth of water in most places extending to a great distance from the shore. This inconvenience could be easily remedied, should it ever be an object so to do, by wharfs. Lat. 34. 52*°* S. lon. 118. 15. E.

OYSTER HAVEN, a harbour on the south coast of Ireland: three miles east of Kinsale Harbour.

OYSTER I'SLAND, in the bay of Bengal, near the coast of Aracan. Lat. 30. 11. N. lon. 92. 43. E.

OYSTER I'SLAND, a small island near the west coast of Ireland, in Sligo Bay: four miles west-south-west of Sligo.

OYSTER

OYSTER ISLAND HARBOUR, a bay or harbour on the Atlantic, on the coast of Massachusetts. Lat. 41. 35. N. lon. 70. 24. W.

OYSTER RIVER, a sandy bay, just within the south head of Mercury Bay, in New Zealand.

OYSTER RIVER, a branch of the Piscataqua, in New Hampshire.

OYSTER-SHELL, *f.* The hard substance that encloses the oyster.—Another mass held a kind of *oyster-shell*, and other bivalves. *Woodward*.—For the properties of oyster-shells, see the article *OSTREA*, p. 34 of this volume.

OYSTER-TUB, *f.* A tub to contain oysters:

Where *oyster-tubs* in rows

Are rang'd beside the posts, there stay thy haste. *Gay*.

OYSTER-WENCH, **OYSTER-WIFE**, or **OYSTER-WOMAN**, *f.* A woman whose business is to sell oysters. Proverbially, a low woman.—Off goes his bonnet to an *oyster-wench*. *Shakespeare*.

Who can despair to see another thrive

By loan of fixpence to an *oyster-wife*? *Bp. Hall*, *Sat.* iv.

The *oyster-women* lock'd their fish up

And trudg'd away, to cry No bishop.

Hudibras.

OYSTER-WORM. See *OSTREA*, p. 32.

OYSTERMOUTH, a seaport and parish in the hundred of Swansea, and county of Glamorgan, South Wales, is situated on a small promontory, which forms the western boundary of Swansea-bay, in the Bristol Channel. The eastern extremity of the parish is called Mumble Point, opposite to which, at a short distance from the shore, a light-house has been lately erected. This place might be made an excellent station for shipping at a very trifling expense, either by walling-in the sounds between the Mumble Head and the shore, or by running a pier out under the east point of Mumble Hill. Vessels bound for Falmouth with coals from Swansea generally lie here when waiting for wind and convoy, frequently to the number of a hundred and fifty sail at one time. Along the shore hence to Swansea, a railway has been constructed, by which coals and manure are brought down, and lime returned from the limestone quarries, which are situated close to the village of the Mumbles, and where several lime-kilns are established. In digging the stone of these quarries many human bones of large dimensions have been discovered; and tradition says this spot was formerly the site of a chapel, but no vestiges of it now remain. The existence of such a building, however, is not improbable, as the sea has made great encroachments on this part of the bay. A large wood called Crow's Wood, frequently mentioned in ancient records, has been submerged, and traces of it are still evident in the sand at low-water. Vast quantities of shell-fish, but particularly oysters, are caught, or dragged, on the coast here: hence the origin of the term Oyster-mouth as the designation of the parish, which, according to the parliamentary returns of 1811, contains 200 houses and 761 inhabitants.

On a knoll or eminence east from the church stand the ruins of Oystermouth-castle, supposed to have been erected by the Norman Beaumonts, who conquered Gowerland. It has suffered less from the ravages of time than any ruin in this part of the country, the principal walls being as yet in good condition, and most of the apartments entire. The general figure is polygonal, and the ramparts are conspicuously lofty; but there are no flanking-towers except on each side of the entrance-gateway. Here, according to tradition, the chancery-court for the seignory of Gower was anciently held. This edifice is now the property of the duke of Beaufort, as lord of the seignory; and it is much resorted to by parties of pleasure from Swansea and the neighbourhood. In one of the dungeons of the castle is a circular stone pillar, into which almost every visitor sticks a pin, conformably to an

old custom, practised from time immemorial. The whole ruin is covered with a profusion of ivy.

Westward from Oystermouth is the parish of Pen-Arth, part of which is conjectured to have been anciently the site of a considerable town, as many foundations of houses are dug up among the sands, and there is still a village to the south of them, called South-gate, and also a farm-house to the north, called Norton or North-town. Here are also very extensive remains of a castle situated near the mouth of a small rivulet, which divides the parish of Pen-Arth from that of Pen-Maen. The gateway is almost entire, and is a very fine specimen of ancient architecture. Between this fortress and the sea, on the sands, is a rock called "The Three Cliffs," from the resemblance to three sugar loaves placed in a line. In the centre of this rock is a curiously-formed arch, supposed to have been excavated by the sea; and not far from hence is a singular cavern in the cliff, called "Bacon's Hole." This cavern is situated nearly midway between the water and the summit of the rock, and is inaccessible from below in any state of the tide; but there is a narrow and very steep path leading down to it from above, by which, though the attempt is fraught with the utmost danger, many persons descend. *Topographical Dictionary of Wales*, 1811.

OZABA'LA, a town of Japan, in the island of Nippon: thirty-six miles north of Meaco.

OZÆ'NA, *f.* [from *ὄζη*, Gr. a fetid smell.] A foul ulcer situated within the cavity of the nose, and frequently accompanied with caries.

OZAMA, a river of Hispaniola, which runs into the sea below St. Domingo. See *ISABELLA RIVER*, vol. xi. p. 394.

OZANAM (James), an eminent French mathematician, was descended from a family of Jewish extraction which had been long converted to the Christian faith, and some branches of which had held different offices in the parliament of Provence. He was born in the sovereignty of Dombes, in the year 1640. Being a younger son, his father designed him for the church, that he might enjoy some small benefices which belonged to the family. In the course of his education, some mathematical books happening to fall into his hands, at first excited his curiosity, and then inspired him with a love for that science; and, though he had no master to instruct him, he made so great a progress in it, that, at the age of fifteen, he wrote a treatise of the mathematical kind, which was never printed, but contained things which he thought proper to insert in the works that were afterwards published by him. Out of obedience to his father, rather than from inclination, he studied divinity four years; but, upon the death of that parent, he gave up his theological pursuits, and devoted himself entirely to the mathematics. Afterwards he went to Lyons, where he commenced mathematical tutor for his support, and acquired many pupils, and a considerable share of reputation. Here he was seduced into a passion for gaming, which was increased by the success he met with; yet his love of play did not originate in avaricious principles, and he displayed, upon many occasions, a remarkable generosity of temper. Fortunately, M. Daguesseau, father of the chancellor, invited M. Ozanam to Paris, with a promise of his countenance and recommendation. Such a flattering patronage M. Ozanam eagerly accepted, and set out without delay for the capital. On his journey thither, he fell into company with an unknown gentleman, who became an admirer of his scientific accomplishments, and also accidentally discovered his fondness for gaming; upon which he remonstrated freely with him on the ruinous consequences of such a habit, assuring him, that, by the proper exercise of his talents and qualifications, he might not only rise to high reputation, but make a fortune, at Paris. In that city he was received with strong marks of esteem; and he soon afterwards married a young lady, with little or no fortune, but who had inspired him with a passion

a passion by her modesty, virtue, and sweet temper. With her he enjoyed an uncommon degree of domestic happiness so long as she lived; and he had twelve children by her, the greatest part of whom died young.

For several years M. Ozanam derived a considerable income from teaching the mathematics at Paris, principally to young foreigners; and he lived happy in the acquaintance and esteem of men of character and literature. In the year 1701 he sustained an irreparable loss by the death of his wife; and this misfortune did not come alone: for, about the same time, the breaking-out of the war, on account of the Spanish succession, proved the occasion of depriving him of almost all his pupils, who were obliged to quit Paris. These accumulated distressing circumstances reduced him to a melancholy state; under which, however, he received some relief and amusement from the honour of being admitted, in the same year, an *élève* of the Royal Academy of Sciences. Afterwards, when solicited to receive under his instructions some foreign noblemen, he refused to engage with them, being possessed of a persuasion that he should not live long enough to go through their intended course. He died of a stroke of apoplexy in 1717, at the age of seventy-seven.

M. Ozanam was distinguished by a mild and calm disposition, a cheerful temper under his greatest distresses, and a generosity almost unparalleled. His manners were simple and irreproachable; and he was sincerely pious, and zealously devout; but with theological controversies he studiously avoided to meddle; and was accustomed to say, "that it was the business of the Sorbonne to discuss, of the pope to decide, and of a mathematician to go to heaven in a right line." He published a great number of useful books: such as, 1. *Practical Geometry*, containing the Theory and Practice of Trigonometry, Longimetry, &c. 1684, 12mo. 2. *Tables of Sines, Tangents, and Secants, and the Logarithms of Sines and Tangents, and of Numbers from Ten to Ten Thousand*, &c. 1685, 8vo. 3. *A Treatise of Lines of the first Order; of the Construction of Equations; and of Geometrical Places*, &c. 1687, 4to. 4. *The Use of the Compasses of Proportion*, &c. with a Treatise on the Division of Lands; 1688, 8vo. 5. *The Use of an universal Instrument, or the easy and exact Resolution of Problems in practical Geometry without any Calculations*, 1688, 12mo. 6. *A General Method for Drawing Dials*, &c. 1693, 12mo. 7. *A Course of Mathematics, comprehending all the most useful and necessary Branches of this science*, 1693, in five volumes, 8vo. 8. *A Treatise on Fortification, containing the ancient and modern Methods of the Construction and Defence of Places*, &c. 1694, 4to. 9. *Mathematical and Philosophical Recreations, containing numerous useful and pleasing Problems in Arithmetic, Geometry, Optics*, &c. 1694, 2 vols. 8vo. reprinted with additions by Montucla, in 4 vols. 8vo. and translated into English by Dr. Hutton, 1803. M. Ozanam was also the author of various papers in the *Journals des Sçavans*, the *Memoires de Trevoux*, and the *Memoires of the Academy of Sciences*, which are particularized in *Hutton's Math. Dict.*

O'ZAR, a town of Persia, in Segestan: 186 miles south-east of Zareng.

O'ZAS, a town of Italy: five miles west of Carmagnola, and ten south of Turin.

OZELL (John), a writer to whose industry, if not to his genius, the world lies under considerable obligations, received the first rudiments of his education from Mr. Shaw, an excellent grammarian, and master of the free-school at Ashby de la Zouch, in Leicestershire. He afterwards completed his grammatical studies under the Rev. Mr. Mountford, of Christ's Hospital, where, having attained a great degree of perfection in the dead languages, viz. the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, it was next the intention of his friends to have sent him to the university of Cambridge, there to finish his studies, with a view to

his being admitted into holy orders. But Mr. Ozell, averse to the confinement of a college-life, and perhaps disinclined to the clerical profession, solicited and obtained an employment in a public office of accounts, with a view to which he had taken previous care to qualify himself by a most perfect knowledge of arithmetic in all its branches, and a great degree of excellence in writing all the necessary hands. He still, however, retained an inclination for polite literature; and, by entering into conversation with foreigners abroad, and a close application to reading at home, he made himself master of most of the living languages, more especially the French, Italian, and Spanish; from all which, as well as from the Latin and Greek, he has favoured the world with many valuable translations. He gave a complete English version of the dramatic pieces of that justly-celebrated French writer, Moliere; besides some others from Corneille, Racine, &c. the titles of which are to be found in the *Biographia Dramatica*.

Mr. Ozell had the good fortune to escape all those vicissitudes and anxieties in regard to pecuniary circumstances, which too frequently attend on men of literary abilities; for, besides that he was, from his earliest setting out in life, constantly in the possession of very good places, having been for some years auditor-general of the city and bridge accounts; and, to the time of his decease, auditor of the accounts of St. Paul's cathedral, and St. Thomas's Hospital, all of them posts of considerable emolument; a gentleman, who was a native of the same county with him, who had known him from a school-boy, and it is said lay under particular obligations to his family, dying when Mr. Ozell was in the very prime of life, left him such a fortune as would have been a competent support for him, if he should at any time have chosen to retire from business entirely, which however it does not appear that he ever did. Our author died October 15, 1743, and was buried in a vault of St. Mary, Aldermanbury; but what year he was born in, and consequently his age at the time of his death, are particulars that we do not find on record.

Mr. Ozell seems to have had a more exalted idea of his own abilities than the world was willing to allow them; for, on his being introduced by Mr. Pope into the *Dunciad*, he published a very extraordinary advertisement, signed with his name, in a paper called *The Weekly Medley*, Sept. 1729, in which he expresses his resentment, and at the same time draws a comparison, *in his own favour*, between Mr. Pope and himself, with respect both to learning and to poetical genius. The advertisement at length may be seen in the notes to the *Dunciad*. "But though (says his biographer) we cannot readily subscribe to this self-assumed preference, yet, as Mr. Coxeter informs us that his conversation was surprisingly agreeable, and his knowledge of men and things considerable, and as it is probable that, with an understanding somewhat above the common rank, he possessed a great share of good-nature, we will readily allow, that a person of this character might be much more amiable than one of a greater brilliancy of parts, if deficient of these good qualities." *Biog. Dram.*

O'ZEM, [Heb. one that fasteth.] A man's name. *Judith* vi.-x.

O'ZEMAN, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, between Amasieh and Tocat.

OZENE, in ancient geography, a name given in the "Periplus of the Ærythrean Sea," as well as in Ptolemy, to the city now called OUGËIN; which see.

OZERNAI'A, a fortress of Russia, in the government of Upa, on the Ural: sixty-four miles east of Orenburg. — Another, forty miles west of Orenburg.

OZERNOV'SKOI, a cape of Russia, on the eastern coast of Kamtschatka: thirty-two miles north-east of Ukinskoi.

OZI'AS, [Heb. strength from the Lord.] A man's name. OZIG'INA,

OZIG'INA, an ostrog of Russia, on the Indigirda: 144 miles north-north-east of Zashiverik. Lat. 69. 30. N. lon. 142. 22. E.

OZINO, a town of Japan, in the island of Nippon: twenty-five miles north of Meaco.

OZINOV'SKOI, a town of Russia, in the government of Perm, on the Kama: sixteen miles north-north-east of Oia.

O'ZLEWORTH, a village in Gloucestershire, three miles south-east from Dursley, and eighteen south from Gloucester, is very remarkable for the number of foxes killed in one year in the reign of queen Elizabeth, which amounted to two hundred and thirty-one. *England's Gaz.*

OZ'MA, a town of Bulgaria, on a river of the same name: twenty-one miles south of Nicopoli.

OZ'NI, *f.* [Heb.] A man's name.

OZ'NITE, *f.* A descendant of Ozni.

OZOHOW'K, a town of Poland, in Volhynia: fourteen miles south-south-east of Kreminiek.

OZ'OLÆ, or **OZOLI**, a people who inhabited the eastern parts of Ætolia, anciently called *Ozolca*. This tract of territory lay at the north of the bay of Corinth, and extended about twelve miles northward. They received their name from the bad stench (ὀζῆ) of their bodies, or of their clothing, which was the raw hides of wild beasts; though some derive it from the stench of the stagnated water in the neighbouring lakes and marshes. The name of Ozolæ, on account of its indelicate signification, highly displeased the inhabitants, and they exchanged it soon for that of Ætolians. *Herodotus*.

OZOLA'VA, one of the larger Navigator's Islands, in the South Pacific Ocean. The inhabitants greatly resemble those of Maoua. Lat. 14. S. lon. 171. 25. W.

OZOPHYLLUM, *f.* [named by Schreber, from the Gr. ὀζω, to stink, and φύλλον, a leaf; in allusion to the unpleasant scent of its foliage when bruised.] In botany, a genus of the class monadelphia, order pentandria, natural order of trihilatæ, (melizæ, *Juss.*) Generic characters—Calyx: perianthium one-leafed, five-toothed,

acute, very small. Corolla: petals five, with long claws converging in form of a tube; borders oblong, blunt, spreading. Stamina: filaments cylindrical, sheathing the style, five-toothed at top; antheræ five, oblong, erect. Pistillum: germ five-lobed, surrounded by a gland; style filiform, higher than the corolla; stigma capitate. Pericarpium: five-celled. — *Essential Character*. One-styled; calyx five-toothed; petals five, long; filaments sheathing the style, five-toothed at top; teeth antheriferous; stigma one; capsule five-celled.

Ozophyllum foetidum, a solitary species. It is a shrub of ten feet high or more, and often four or six inches in diameter. The bark is green, and smooth; the wood white, tender, and fragile. The branches garnished with alternate leaves; each leaf is digitated, having three large lobes, and growing on a footstalk of five or six inches long; the lobes of the leaves are green, smooth, soft, and oval, and terminate in a long point; the middle lobe is larger than the rest, being sometimes more than a foot long, and four inches wide; each lobe is divided by a longitudinal nerve, which is prominent beneath. The flowers spring from the bosoms of the leaves, at the extremity of the twigs and branches; their common footstalk is more than a foot long, and divides at its summit into several smaller ones, on each of which are placed alternate, sessile, flowers: calyx green; corolla white, each petal being about an inch long, and as it were glued or united to each other longitudinally by their borders, so as to form a kind of tubular figure, with the upper part spreading: these petals cover a white membranaceous tube, which on its upper part divides into five short filaments supporting at their points the anthers. This shrub is a native of the forests of Guiana; flowering in February. The leaves, when bruised, emit a disagreeable smell, much resembling that of Stramonium.

OZUNIC'ZE, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: thirty miles south-south-east of Bresslaw.

OZ'ZEK. See **OSCHATZ**.

P.

P IS the fifteenth letter and eleventh consonant of the English alphabet. It is a labial consonant, formed by a slight compression of the anterior part of the lips; as *pull, pelt, &c.*

P and B are so like each other, that Quintilian declares, that, in the word *obtinuit*, his reason required him to put a *b*, but that his ears could hear nothing but a *p*, *optinuit*: hence in ancient inscriptions, and old glossaries, it appears that these two letters have often been confounded. Several nations still pronounce one for the other, the Welch and Germans particularly, who say, *ponum vinum*, for *bonum vinum*. Plutarch observes, it was usual for those of Delphi to say βαλειν for πάλειν, βιγγον for πιγγον; and, among the Latins, as often as an *f* followed, the *b* was changed into a *p*, as *seribo, scripsi*.

When *p* stands before *t* or *f*, its sound is lost; as in the words *psalms, psychology, ptolemaic, ptisan, account, &c.* When placed before *h*, they both together have the sound of *f*; as in *philosophy, physics, &c.* and this is generally the case in words derived from the Greek. In the transition of words from one tongue to another, P, Ph, F, B, and V, often glide one into the other, on account of their great labial affinity: hence Scaliger says, happy are they to whom *vivere* and *bibere* are the same thing. See also the beginning of the letter B, vol. ii. p. 590.

St. Jerome observes on Daniel, that the Hebrews had no *p*; but that the *ph* served them instead thereof; adding, that there is but one word in the whole Bible read with a *p*, viz. *apaduo*.

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P was used among the ancients as a numeral letter, signifying the same with the G, viz. 100; according to the verse of Ugutio, "P similem cum G numerum monstratur habere." Though Baronius thinks it rather stood for 7. When a dash was added at top of P, it stood for 400,000. The Greek π stood for 80.

This letter is very often used by the Latins as an abbreviation: thus, P stands for Publius, pondo, &c. P. C. for Patres Conscripti; P. R. for Populus Romanus; P.R.S. for Prætoris Sententia, &c.

Among physicians, P stands for *pugil*, or the eighth part of an handful; P. Æ. *partes æquales*, or equal parts of the ingredients; otherwise denoted by ā or ana. P. P. signifies *Pulvis Patrum*, that is, Jesuit's Powder, or the Cortex Peruvianus in powder; which is so called, because first brought into Europe by those fathers; and *pp. t præparatus*, prepared.

P, in music, is the initial of *piano*, (Ital.) soft, for which it stands; and *pp*, for *pianissimo*, very soft. P, on French coins, denotes those struck at Dijon.

P is the Greek form of the letter R. Constantine first displayed this Greek monogram , and subsequently

this  on a shield in the imperial arms, expressive of the figure of the cross, and exhibiting at the same time the two first letters of the word ΧΡΙΣΤΟΣ, CHRIST. This device he had impressed on his helmet, in which St. Helena had caused some of the true nails of the cross to be enclosed,

Y y

enclosed, and on the shields of his soldiers; and, so early as the commencement of the fourth century, the standard of Rome wholly gave place to the Labarum, or banner of the cross.

PA, a city of China, of the second rank, in Se-tchuen: 695 miles south of Pekin. Lat. 31. 31. N. lon. 106. 24. E.

PA, a city and fortress of China, of the second rank, in Pe-tche-li: forty-five miles east-north-east of Paoting, and fifty south of Pekin.

PA, a town of Thibet: 450 miles east of Lassa. Lat. 28. 18. N. lon. 98. 34. E.

PA DEL ZOC'CO, a cape on the coast of Inner Carniola: two miles west-south-west of Trieste.

PA'A, a town of the island of Ceram, and capital of a district, abounding in sago.

PA'AGE, *f.* [old Fr. from the low Lat. *paagium*.] A toll for passage through the grounds of another person. *Obsolete*.—Trade was restrained, or the privilege granted on the payment of tolls, passages, *paages*, pontages, and innumerable other vexatious imposts, of which only the barbarous and almost unintelligible names subsist at this day. *Burke's Abridg. of Eng. Hist.*

PAAKO'LA, a town of Sweden, in the government of Ulea: six miles north of Kemi.

PAALAVAN'KA, a town of Hindoostan, in Golconda: thirty miles north-west of Damapetta.

PAAR'AI, [Heb. *opeu*.] A man's name.

PAAR'DEBERG, (or the HORSE MOUNTAIN, so called from the number of wild horses, or zebras, that formerly frequented it.) A mountain of the Drakenstein district, in Southern Africa, which is a continuation of Paarl Mountain to the northward.

PAAR'L, a village in the district of Drakenstein, in Southern Africa, situated at the foot of a hill that shuts in the valley of Drakenstein on the west side. It consists of about thirty habitations, disposed in a line; but so far detached from each other, with intermediate orchards, gardens, and vineyards, as to form a street from half a mile to a mile in length. About the middle of this street, on the east side, stands the church, a neat octagonal building, covered with thatch; and at the upper end is a parsonage-house, with garden, vineyard, and fruit-groves, and a large tract of very fine land. The village is overhung by blocks of granite, the paarl, and the diamond. *Barrow's Africa*, vol. ii.

PAA'TIS, a town of Sweden, in the government of Abo: ten miles north of Abo.

PAA'TOCK WA'TER, a river of Scotland, which runs from Loch Paatock to Loch Laagan, in the county of Inverness.

PAATPASSAR, a small cirar of Bengal, watered by the Ganges, between Dacca and Booshnah.

PAAVO'LA, a town of Sweden, in the government of Ulea: twenty miles east of Braksted.

PAAW (Peter), a physician and anatomist, was born at Amsterdam in 1564. When he had finished his scholastic education, he was sent to Leyden at the age of sixteen, where he attended the medical courses for the space of four years, and thence proceeded to Paris for farther improvement. He afterwards commenced his travels for the purpose of visiting other celebrated schools; and, after spending some time in Denmark, and at Rostock, where he received the degree of doctor in 1587, he repaired to Padua, and attended the dissections of Fabricius ab Aquapendente. Paaw was naturally of a grave and serious disposition: he possessed an acute and retentive memory, and was therefore well able to profit by these advantages of education; and, accordingly, his great acquirements were soon acknowledged, on his return to Leyden, by an appointment to a medical professorship in that university in 1589. His whole ambition was centred in the prospect of supporting the dignity and utility of this professorship, and he obtained the approbation and esteem both of the public and his colleagues. He died, universally regretted, in August 1617, at the age of fifty-four. Anatomy and

botany were the departments which he most ardently cultivated, and Leyden owes to him the establishment of its botanic garden.

Paaw left the following works: 1. *Tractatus de Exercitiis, Lacticiniis, et Bellariis*; Rost. 2. *Notæ in Galenum, de Cibis boni et mali succi*; ibid. These two pieces appear to have been his inaugural exercises. 3. *Hortus publicus Academiae Lugduno-Batavæ, ejus Ichnographia, Descriptio, Usus, &c.* Lugd. Bat. 1601. 4. *Primitiæ Anatomicae de humani corporis ossibus*, ibid. 1615. 5. *Succenturiatus Anatomicus, continens Commentaria in Hippocratem de Capitis Vulneribus. Additæ sunt Annotationes in aliquot Capita Libri 8vi C. Celsi*; ibid. 1616. 6. *Notæ et Commentarii in Epitomen Anatomicum Andree Vesalii*; ibid. 1616. The following appeared after his death: 7. *De Valvulâ Intestini Epistolæ duæ*; Oppenheim, 1619; together with the first century of the Epistles of Fabricius Haldanus. 8. *De Peste Tractatus, cum Henrici Florentii additamentis*; Lug. Bat. 1636. 9. *Anatomicae Observationes selectiores*; Hafniæ, 1657, inserted in the third and fourth centuries of the Anatomical and Medical Histories of T. Bartholin. He also left in manuscript a "*Methodus Anatomica*," which was in the library of M. de Vick of Amsterdam. *Eloy Dict. Hist. de la Médecine*.

PABBA'Y, or PAPAY, one of the Bishop's Islands, among the Hebrides. Lat. 56. 50. N. lon. 7. 32. W.

PABBA'Y, one of Western Islands of Scotland, about nine miles in circumference; and five miles north from North Uist. Lat. 57. 55. N. lon. 7. 12. W.

PABBA'Y, one of the Small Hebrides, near the west coast of Lewis. Lat. 58. 11. N. lon. 6. 45. W.

PABIAN'ICE, a town of the duchy of Warfaw: thirty-two miles east-north-east of Siradia.

PAB'LO (St.), a lake in the jurisdiction of Otavalo, in the province of Quito, three leagues in length, and about half a league broad. Its waters are discharged into Rio Blanco.—A town of Mexico, in New Navarre: 170 miles west of Casa Grande.—A town of New Mexico: seventy miles east of Sumas.—A town of South America, in the province of Moxas: 140 miles north-west of Trinidad.—A town of Mexico, in the province of New Biscay: 130 miles south-west of Pairal.—A town of Mexico, in the province of Veraguas: twenty-two miles south-west of Remedios.

PABNEIKIR'CHEN, a town of Austria: four miles north-west of Grein.

PABOON, an island of Africa, in the river Gambia, nine miles in length, belonging to the kingdom of Yani.

PABOU', a town of Canada, on the north coast of Chaleur Bay: twenty miles south-west of Cape Gaspe.

PAB'ULAR, *adj.* [*pubulum*, Lat.] Affording aliment or provender.

PABULA'TION, *f.* [*pubulum*, Lat.] The act of feeding, or procuring provender. *Cockeram*.

PABULATORY, *adj.* Affording aliment; belonging to provender. *Bailey*.

PAB'ULOUS, *adj.* [*pubulum*, Lat.] Alimential; affording aliment.—We doubt the air is the *pubulous* supply of fire, much less that flame is properly air kindled. *Brown's Vulg. Err*.

PAB'ULUM, *f.* [Latin.] Food; support. *A technical word*.—Which seems the sole use of oil, air, or any other thing that vulgarly passeth for a *pubulum* or food of that element, [fire.] *Bp. Berkeley's Siris*.

PA'CAL, *adj.* [from the Lat. *pax*, *pacis*, peace.] Bringing peace. *Bailey*.

PACA'LIA, *f.* in Roman antiquity, the festivals celebrated in honour of the supposed goddess or patroness of peace.

PACALON'GA, a town on the north coast of the island of Java. A merchant belonging to the Dutch East India Company resides here to purchase sugar: thirty miles west of Samarang.

PACA'JES, or PACAX'ES, a town of Peru, and capital of

of a jurisdiction in the diocese of La Paz, containing some rich silver-mines. The air is sometimes temperate, sometimes cold, and rarely hot; the pastures are good, and cattle form the principal riches and commerce. It is eighty miles south-west of La Paz.

PACAMORES, a nation of Indians in South America, on the banks of the river Amazon.

PACATED, *adj.* [*pacatus*, Lat.] Appeased; pacified.

PACATIANUS (Titus Julius Marinus), an usurper, who excited the Gauls to revolt in his favour, in the reign of the emperor Philip; but he was defeated and put to death in the year 249 by the troops which raised Decius to the throne. There are medals of Pacatianus still existing. See **ROME**.

PACATION, *f.* [from *paco*, Lat.] The act of appeasing. *Not in use.*

PACATUS (Latinus Drepanius), a Latin poet and orator, who flourished in the fourth century, was a native of Drepanum, in Aquitania. He was in habits of intimacy with Ausonius, who consulted him on his own writings, and has addressed several pieces to him. When Theodosius the Great visited Rome, in the year 388, after the defeat of Maximus, Pacatus was deputed from Gaul to congratulate him on his victory. On this occasion he pronounced a panegyric oration before the emperor and senate, which is extant, and in the course of which he said, that, if the elder Brutus could be permitted to revisit the earth, the stern republican would abjure, at the feet of Theodosius, his hatred of kings, and ingenuously confess that such a monarch was the most faithful guardian of the happiness and dignity of the Roman people. Pacatus was afterwards created a proconsul, and in 393 was appointed superintendent of the imperial domain. The orator Symmachus addressed several letters to him, and Sidonius Apollinaris mentioned him with applause. He was probably a Pagan. None of his poems remain; his Panegyric on Theodosius was printed in 1651, separately, and it is contained in the *Panegyrici Veteres*. It is reckoned eloquent for the age in which it was written; more characterised by force of expression and imagination than by taste and purity of style, and its best passages bearing some resemblance to the manner of Tacitus. *Moreri. Gibbon.*

PACAUDIÈRE (La), a town of France, in the department of the Rhône and Loire: twelve miles north-west of Roanne, and twelve west of Charlieu.

PACCHIONI (Antonio), a learned physician and anatomist, was born at Reggio in 1644. He received his first education in his native city; and, having embraced the medical profession, he went to Rome, where he attended upon the celebrated Malpighi, and was introduced by him to practice. Through the recommendation of that physician he settled at Tivoli, where he practised with reputation for six years. He was then invited to Rome, and was associated by Lancisi in his explanation of the plates of Eustachius. In this city he devoted himself to anatomical enquiries, and was much occupied in dissections. In 1701 he published a work of temporary celebrity, "*De Duræ Meningis Fabrica et Ufa*;" Romæ, 8vo. In this treatise he advanced an hypothesis concerning the muscular and contractile nature of the dura mater, which he supposed, by means of its connection with the tentoria, to act by alternate compression upon the brain and cerebellum. In 1705 he published an "*Epistolary Dissertation*," addressed to Lucas Schroëckius, concerning the conglobate glands of the dura mater, and the lymphatics proceeding from them. His opinions involved him in controversies with other anatomists, and produced other publications of his own. In his "*Disertationes Physico-anatomicæ, novis Experimentis et Lucubrationibus auctæ et illustratæ*," Romæ, 1721, 8vo. he has given his final notions on his favourite subject, and continues to maintain the muscular nature and action of the dura mater. Though his opinions have not been received by later anatomists, they are supported with ingenuity, and his

enquiries contributed to a more accurate knowledge of the parts concerned. Pacchioni died at Rome in 1726. He was a member of the academies of Bologna and Sienna, and of the society *Naturæ Curiosorum*. An edition of all his works, printed and manuscript, with figures, was published at Rome in 1741, 4to. *Eloy Dict. Halleri Bibl. Anatom.*

PACCIAU'DI (Paolo Maria), an historian and antiquary, was born at Turin in 1710. He entered into the order of Theatines, and became librarian to Philip duke of Parma. After a studious and retired life, occupied solely in the duties of his station, he died of an apoplexy in 1785. He was a correspondent of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres. The works of this learned man are, 1. *De Cultu S. Joannis Bapt. Antiquitates Christianæ*, 4to. 1755. 2. *Monumenta Peloponnesiaca*, 2 vols. 4to. 1761. 3. *Memorie de' Gran Maestri dell ordine Gerofolimitano*, 3 vols. 4to. and several dissertations on particular objects of antiquity. *Gen. Biog.*

PACE, *f.* [*pas*, Fr.] Step; single change of the foot in walking:

Behind her Death,

Close following *pace* for *pace*, not mounted yet

On his pale horse.

Milton's P. L.

Gait; manner of walk.—He himself went but a kind of languishing *pace*, with his eyes sometimes cast up to heaven, as though his fancies strove to mount higher. *Sidney.*

He saw Menalcas come with heavy *pace*;

Wet were his eyes, and cheerless was his face. *Addison.*

Degree of celerity. To *keep pace*, is not to be left behind.—Hudibras applied his spur to one side of his horse, as not doubting but the other would keep *pace* with it. *Addison.*

To-morrow, and to-morrow, and to-morrow,
Creeps in this petty *pace* from day to day,
To the last syllable of recorded time;
And all our yesterdays have lighted fools
The way to dusky death.

Shakespeare's Macbeth.

The beggar sings ev'n when he sees the place

Beset with thieves, and never mends his *pace*. *Dryden.*

Marcia could answer thee in sighs, keep *pace*

With all thy woes, and count out tear for tear. *Addison.*

Step; gradation of business. *A gallicism*.—The first *pace* necessary for his majesty to make, is to fall into confidence with Spain. *Temple*.—A measure of five feet. The quantity supposed to be measured by the hinder foot from the place where it is taken up to that where it is set down.—Measuring land by walking over it, they styled a double step; i. e. the space from the elevation of one foot to the same foot set down again, mediated by a step of the other foot, a *pace* equal to five foot; a thousand of which *paces* made a mile. *Holder on Time*.—The violence of tempests never moves the sea above six *paces* deep. *Wilkins's Math. Magick*.—The motion or progression of a horse.—The most common *paces*, and those which are natural to the horse, are the walk, the trot, and the gallop. There is likewise another *pace* which is acquired by horses, called the *amble*, but which in some appears to be almost natural to them. In some cases it is not uncommon for horses to mix their different *paces*, and by this means to go in a sort of shuffle betwixt the walk, trot, amble, and gallop; but, where the horse has a good and proper *pace*, he moves with steadiness in these several modes of progression without mixing them in any degree whatever. *Chambers.*

They rode, but authors having not

Determin'd whether *pace* or trot;

That's to say, whether tollutation,

As they do term it, or succussion.

Hudibras.

To **PACE**, *v. n.* To move on slowly.—The moon rose in

in the clearest sky I ever saw, by whose solemn light I
paced on slowly without interruption. *Pope.*

He soft arrived on the grassy plain,
And fairly *paced* forth with easy pain.

Spenser.

The nymph, obedient to divine command,
To seek Ulysses, *pac'd* along the sand.

Pope.

To move:

Remember well, with speed so *pace*,
To speak of Perdita. *Shakespeare's Wint. Tale.*

To PACE, *v. a.* To measure by steps:

Where is the horse that doth untread again
His tedious measures with th' unbated fire
That he did *pace* them first? *Shakespeare.*

To direct to go; to regulate in motion:

If you can, *pace* your wisdom
In that good path that I would wish it go,
And you shall have your bosom on this wretch. *Shakespeare.*

PACE, or PAICE (Richard), a learned English priest and eminent statesman, was born about the year 1482, at or near the city of Winchester, as is generally supposed. He was educated at the expense of Thomas Langton, bishop of that diocese, who employed him, while yet a youth, in the capacity of his amanuensis. By the proficiency which Pace made in learning, and the genius which he discovered for music, he recommended himself to the good graces of his patron, who generously determined to afford him the best advantages for literary improvement. For this purpose he sent him to the university of Padua, at that time the most famous seminary of literature in Europe, with a handsome allowance to defray his expenses. In this place he was much assisted in the prosecution of his studies by Cuthbert Tunstall, afterwards bishop of Durham, and by William Latimer. After his return to England, he went to Queen's College, Oxford, of which his patron, bishop Langton, had been provost; and he was there soon taken into the service of Dr. Bainbridge, the successor of Langton in the provostship. This patron, who was promoted to the archbishopric of York, and made a cardinal, he accompanied to Italy, where Bainbridge was poisoned by a priest, out of revenge for having received a blow from him in the moment of passion. Of the manner of the cardinal's death, and of the measures which were taken to discover those who were concerned in it, Pace transmitted to king Henry VIII. a particular account. Upon his return home, he was sent for to court, where his talents and accomplishments recommended him so powerfully to the king, that he appointed him secretary of state, and employed him in various important negotiations, and foreign embassies. His being engaged in state-affairs, however, did not prevent him from entering into holy orders; and, in the year 1514, he was first made prebendary of York, and afterwards archdeacon of Dorset. In 1515, Henry VIII. being alarmed at the progress which the arms of Francis I. king of France, were making in Italy, sent Pace on an embassy to the court of Vienna, for the purpose of engaging the emperor Maximilian, by the payment of considerable sums of money, to attempt the expulsion of the French from the duchy of Milan. Having prevailed upon him to embark in that undertaking, Pace went into Switzerland, where, by the same means of persuasion he induced some of the cantons to furnish Maximilian with troops. After the failure of this expedition, and the conclusion of peace between the French king and the emperor, the latter, who was very necessitous, made a proposal of resigning the imperial crown in Henry's favour; but Pace, who was perfectly acquainted with the emperor's motives and character, gave the king timely warning that the sole view of that prince in making such a liberal offer, was to draw money from him. In the year 1519, upon the death of the emperor, when the kings of France and Spain declared themselves candidates for the

imperial throne, Henry determined to become their competitor, and sent Pace his ambassador into Germany, to watch over his interests at the diet of the empire. On this occasion he was loaded with caresses by the German princes and the pope's nuncio; but he was soon sensible that he could hope for no success in a claim which he had been so late in preferring; and Henry's vanity led him to console himself for his disappointment, by imputing it to that circumstance alone. Pace's services were rewarded in the same year with the deanery of St. Paul's, London, in succession to Dr. Colet; and about the same time he was made dean of Exeter.

In the year 1521, our author was presented to a prebendal stall in the church of Sarum; and, upon the death of pope Leo X. towards the close of that year, cardinal Wolsey sent him with proper instructions to Rome, believing that he had a favourable opportunity of offering himself a candidate for the papal chair. Before Pace's arrival at Rome, however, the election had taken place; and Adrian bishop of Tortosa, formerly preceptor to the emperor Charles V. had been chosen pope. Upon the death of that pontiff, in 1523, Pace was employed to negotiate a second time on Wolsey's behalf; but with no better success than before, the suffrages of the conclave being given to Clement VII. Unable to obtain the grand object of his ambition, the cardinal employed Pace in soliciting from the pope an enlargement of his legatine powers, which his holiness deemed it good policy to grant. Afterwards, Pace was sent ambassador to Venice, where he acquitted himself with great ability and success, so "that it is hard to say," observes Wood, "whether he procured more commendation or admiration among the Venetians, both for dexterity of his wit, and especially for the singular promptness in the Italian tongue." But, notwithstanding the abilities with which he sustained his character as ambassador, Wolsey conceived a displeasure against him, of which he experienced the bitter effects. For two years the ambassador received no instructions from the king or council relative to the objects of his appointments, nor any remittances for the support of his expenses, notwithstanding the repeated applications which he made to England. Pace also received private instructions from his friends at home, that the cardinal had become inveterately hostile to him. This usage and intelligence had such an effect upon Pace, that he fell sick, and lost his intellects. Information of his condition having been brought to the king, he immediately gave directions for his being brought home; where he was so carefully attended by physicians, at the king's command, that his faculties were in a considerable degree restored, and he was able to direct his attention to literary pursuits. Soon after this, while the cardinal was absent from court, Pace's friends found means to introduce him to the king, then residing at Richmond; who expressed much satisfaction at his recovery, and admitted him to a private audience, in which he took the opportunity of remonstrating against the cardinal's unjust treatment of him. Wolsey, being called upon by Henry to vindicate himself against this charge, well knew how to manage his influence, so as to obtain an easy victory over the humble complainant. He summoned Pace before him; and, "sitting in judgment," says Wood, "with the duke of Norfolk, and other states of the realm, not as a defendant, but as a judge in his own cause, did so bear out himself, and weigh down Pace, that he was forthwith commanded to the Tower of London as prisoner; where he continuing for the space of two years, or thereabout, was at length by the king's command discharged." Pace's malady was so much increased by the cruel and unjust treatment which he met with, that, during the time of his imprisonment, and after his release, he never recovered his senses, excepting at intervals. He resigned his deaneries of St. Paul and Exeter a little before his death; and, retiring to Stepney, breathed his last there in 1532, when he was not quite fifty years of age.

Pace was held in high esteem by the learned men of his time, particularly sir Thomas More and Erasmus, the latter of whom styles him "utriusque literaturæ calen-tissimus," and addressed more letters to him than to any one of his learned friends and correspondents. Stow, in his *Annales*, under the year 1521, calls him "A right-worthy man, and one that gave in counsel faithful advice; learned he was also, and endowed with many excellent parts and gifts of nature; courteous, pleasant, and delighting in music; highly in the king's favour, and well heard in matters of weight." Pace learned languages with extraordinary facility; and not only spoke several of the modern tongues, but understood Latin, Greek, Hebrew, Chaldee, and Arabic. Camden, in his *Remains*, under the head of "Wife Speeches," relates the following anecdote of him: "A noble man of this time, in contempt of learning, said, that it was for noble men's sons enough to wind their horn, and carry their hawk fair, and to leave study and learning to the children of mean men. To whom the forefaid Richard Pace replied, Then you and other noblemen must be content that your children may wind their horns, and keep their hawks, while the children of mean men do manage matters of estate." The first work which he published treats of the benefits which are derived from learning, under the title of "*De Fructu qui ex Doctrina percipitur Liber*," 1517, 4to. and dedicated to dean Colet. This book was written by our author at Constance, while he was ambassador in Swisserland; and, since he took the opportunity of inveighing against drunkenness as a great obstacle to the attainment of knowledge, the people of that place, who were too much addicted to that practice, considered it intended to reflect upon them; they therefore procured a keen answer to it to be written, apologizing for themselves, and their customs in drinking. Our author's next printed work, in order of time, was "*Oratio Pace nuper-ime composita et Fœdere percussio inter Henricum Angliæ Regem, et Francorum Regem Christianissimum, in Æde Pauli Londini habita*," 1518, 4to. This was followed by, 3. *Epistolæ ad Edvardum Leem, et ad Erasmus Rot.* 1520, 4to. 4. *Præfatio in Ecclesiasticen recognitum ad Hebraicam Veritatem, et Collatum cum Translatione LXX. Interpretum, et Manifesta Explicatione Causarum Erroris ubique incidit*, 4to. 5. *Exemplum Litterarum ad regem Henricum VIII.* An. 1526; inserted in Robert Wakefield's *Syntagma de Hebræorum Codicum In corruptione*. 6. A treatise, in 1527, against the unlawfulness of the king's marriage with the widow of his brother prince Arthur, in which he very honestly delivered his opinion relating to the divorce, without any apprehension of giving offence. Pace was also the author of several translations, and, among others, one from English into Latin of the Sermon of Fisher bishop of Rochester, preached on the day when the writings of Luther were publicly burnt, printed at Cambridge, 1521, 4to. and a translation from Greek into Latin of Plutarch's piece *De Commodis ex Inimicis capiendis*. *Pitæus de Illust. Ang. Script.* *Wood's Athen. Oxon.* vol. i.

PA'CED, *adj.* Having a particular gait:

Revenge is sure, though sometimes slowly *pac'd*;
Awake, awake, or sleeping, sleep thy last. *Dryden.*

Perfect in paces; spoken of horses, and thence applied to persons, but generally in a bad sense, as *thorough-paced*.—She's not *paced* yet; you must take some pains to work her to your manage. *Shakespeare's Pericles.*

PA'CEM, a town on the north coast of the island of Sumatra, the capital of a kingdom of the same name, dependent on Acheen. It contains about 500 families: 120 miles south-east of Acheen.

PA'CER, *f.* One that paces.—A horse that is perfect in his paces.—His horse too, which was a *pacier*, was adorned after the same airy manner, and seemed to share in the vanity of the rider. *Spectator*, N° 104.

PACH'A. See BASHAW, vol. ii.

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PACHACA'MA, or PACHACAMAC, a town of Peru, in the audience and jurisdiction of Lima, situated in a valley of the same name. This valley is about twelve miles south from Lima, and was celebrated before the conquest of Peru, on account of a temple dedicated to the Sovereign Creator of all things, whom the yncas called *Pachacamac*. Pizarro is said to have taken from this temple an immense quantity of gold, besides what the soldiers had pillaged. It is thirty miles south-south-east of Lima. Lat. 12. 30. S.

PACHAMAC'LI, a town of European Turkey, in Romania: forty miles south of Filippopoli.

PACHE'A, a small island in the Bay of Panama.

PACHE'CO (Francisco), a Spanish painter, who owes his celebrity more to the ingenuity and talents of his scholars Cano and Velasquez, and to his theory and writing, than to his superiority as an artist. He was the pupil of Luis Fernandez; but, though partial to the great style, does not appear to have studied it in Italy. With sufficient correctness of outline, judgment in composition, dignity of character, propriety of costume, observance of chiaroscuro, and perspective, Pacheco displeases by want of colour, timidity of execution, and dryness of style. Seville possesses the best of his historic performances; of his numerous portraits, those of his Wife and Miguel Cervantes were the most praised. As a man of literature, he possesses considerable erudition, and wit and humour as a writer of epigrams. *Fuseli's Pilkington.*

PACHE'QUE, a small island on the south-west side of the Bay of Panama.

PACHER'RY, a town of Meckley: ninety miles south-south-east of Munnypour.

PACHE'TE, a circar of Bengal, bounded on the north by Curruckdeah; on the east by Burwan and Bishunpour; on the south by Midnapour, and on the west by Sillee, Tomar, and Ramgur: about seventy miles long, and from twelve to forty broad. Rogonatpour is the capital.

PACHE'TE, a fort of Bengal, which gave name to the above circar: six miles north-east of Rogonatpour. Lon. 86. 55. E.

PA'CHI, or PA'GI-HOU'TOC, a town of Thibet: seventy miles south-east of Hami.

PACHI'CA, a town of Peru, in the government of Buenos Ayres, on the coast: 100 miles west of Lipas. Lat. 22. S.

PACHI'NUS, or PACHYNUS, now *Passaro*, a promontory of Sicily, projecting about two miles into the sea, in the form of a peninsula, at the south-east corner of the island, with a small harbour of the same name.

PACHI'RA, a town of Peru, in the diocese of Truxillo, six miles north of Payta.

PACHI'RA, *f.* in botany. See CAROLINEA.

PACHITE'A, a river of South America, which joins the Maranon at 3° 26', and is esteemed the most beautiful of all its tributary streams. It rises in 10° 46', first running east, then north, and in the early part of its progress it is called the *Pozuzu*, especially at its confluence with the Mayro, where it forms a noted haven, from which there is an open navigation to the Maranon.

PACHIUT'LA, a town of Mexico, in the province of Tlascala.

PACHO'MIUS, a saint in the calendars of the Greek and Latin churches, and the institutor of the cenobitic life in the fourth century, was a native of Thebais, or Upper Egypt, and born of Gentile parents, who educated him in their religion. When he was twenty years of age, he was forced to bear arms in the war of Constantine against Maxentius, and by that means had the first opportunity of meeting with many Christians, whose extraordinary hospitality and kindness to himself and some of his fellow-soldiers in distress, made a powerful impression upon his mind. No sooner, therefore, was the war at an end, than he made it his business to enquire particularly concerning the principles and manners of this sect; with which he was so well satisfied, that he became

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a convert

a convert to the Christian faith; and, after having been instructed as a catechumen, was admitted within the Christian pale by baptism. Afterwards he became the disciple of a solitary named Palemon, from whose example he practised all the austerities of that unnatural system of superstition of which St. Anthony had lately proved the parent. Having formed the design of establishing a community of persons subject to the same rules of an ascetic life, he fixed his abode at Tabenna in Upper Egypt, on the banks of the Nile, where he built a monastery, and established rules of discipline, which, it was seriously believed in the dark ages, were dictated to him by an angel. In a short time, the fame of his sanctity drew to him such numbers of disciples, that his house overflowed, and he was obliged to erect new ones, from time to time, till the Upper Thebais was filled with monasteries of his order. Various are the accounts of the numbers of persons who embraced his rule, and some of them, no doubt, are highly exaggerated; but, upon a moderate computation, he had peopled his cells with not fewer than seven thousand of these useless and pernicious drones; and his monastery at Tabenna alone contained fourteen hundred of them. Pachomius died in the year 350, or, according to others, in 360. In his life, written by an ancient Greek author, and translated into Latin by Dennis le Petit, the reader who delights in tales of wonder may meet with food for his credulity in the accounts which it relates of the miracles wrought by this saint. Among other things we are told, that, when he had occasion to cross the Nile, the crocodiles attended, in obedience to his summons, and carried him from one bank to the other. In Benedict of Aniana's *Codex Regularum*, there are preserved eleven "Letters" of Pachomius, written with great simplicity, and addressed, as Gennadius observes, to the superiors of the monasteries founded by him. In his life, mentioned above, may be seen his rules of discipline, pretended to have been divinely communicated to him; and in the fourth volume of the *Bibl. Patr.* a larger collection of rules, concerning the habits, the diet, the employment, and the discipline, of monks, which is commonly said to have been translated from Pachomius's original, in the Egyptian language, into Greek, and from Greek into Latin by St. Jerome. To this Egyptian saint are attributed some excellent "Moral Precepts," which were published in Latin by Gerard Vossius, in the appendix to his edition of the works of Gregory Thaumaturgus, and are also inserted in the fourth volume of the *Bibl. Patr. Fabricii Bibl. Eccl. Cave's Hist. Lit.* vol. i.

PACHO'RE, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Gohud: ten miles north-north-east of Ahar.

PACH'SU, a small island in the Mediterranean Sea, near the coast of Epirus, and in European Turkey. It lies south of Corfu, and was subject to Venice.

PACHU'CO, a town of Mexico. It is famous for silver-mines: Gemelli says, that in the space of six leagues there are not less than a thousand. One of them, called Trinity, is supposed to be as rich as any in Mexico; there having been taken from it, in ten years time only, above forty millions of silver. It is forty-five miles north-north-east of Mexico. Lat. 20. 45. N. Lon. 100. 42. W.

PACHYMER (George), a Greek historian of the fourteenth century, was born at Nicæa, of a Constantinopolitan family. He entered into the church, in which, as well as in the state, he bore offices of importance under the emperors Michael Palæologus and Andronicus the elder. At the age of nineteen he accompanied the former when he took possession of Constantinople, in 1261. He is supposed to have died about 1310. Pachymer composed in thirteen books a portion of Byzantine History, containing the reign of Michael, and that of Andronicus down to his twenty-third year. It usefully fills the space from the narratives of Nicetas and Acropolites to that of Cantacuzenus; and, being composed by one who was a witness to what he records, is considered as a work of authority. This history was published with a Latin ver-

sion by father Poussines at Rome in 1666-69, in folio; and was translated into French by the president Cousin. To Pachymer is also attributed a Paraphrase on the Epistles of Dionysius the Areopagite, and a Treatise on the Procession of the Holy Ghost. A Compendium of Aristotelic Philosophy was published from his MS. at Oxford in 1666. *Vossii Hist. Græc. Gen. Biog.*

PACHYPHYLLA, *f.* in botany. See NICOTIANA.

PACHYSANDRA, *f.* [so named by Michaux from the Gr. *παχυς*, thick or clumsy, and *ανδρ*, a man; in allusion to the thickness of the stamens.] In botany, a genus of the class monoecia, order tetrandria, natural order tricocca, *Lin.* (euphorbia, *Juss.*) Generic characters—*I.* Male. Calyx: perianthium of three oval concave upright leaves, one of them external, and rather the smallest. Corolla: petals two, oval, concave, rather larger than the calyx. Stamina: filaments four, erect, thrice as long as the petals, very thick, compressed, and somewhat club-shaped; antheræ incumbent, oblong, of two cells, finally curved. *II.* Female. Calyx: perianthium of three close-pressed oblong acute leaves, one of them external. Corolla: petals four, smaller than in the male, closely pressed to the germen. Pistillum: germen superior, rather globose, with three furrows; styles three, recurved, with a longitudinal furrow above; stigmas linear, flattish. Pericarpium: capsule nearly globular, three-lobed, crowned with three spreading horns from the permanent styles, of three cells. Seeds two in each cell, oblong, smooth, pendulous from the summit of the cell.—*Essential Character.* Male: Calyx of three leaves; petals two; stamens thrice as long as the petals. Female: Calyx of three leaves; petals four; styles three; capsule with three horns, and three cells; seeds two in each cell.

Pachysandra procumbens, the only species. It was gathered by Michaux on the western side of the Alleghany mountains, in North America. The root is fibrous and perennial. Stem herbaceous, procumbent in the lower part, then ascending, round, smooth, leafy above, about a span high, scarcely branched. Leaves alternate, stalked, ovate, about two inches long, smooth, veiny, and ribbed; entire at the base, bluntly and broadly toothed in the upper part. Spike simple, solitary; from the base of the stem erect, rather lax, two inches long, composed of about two female flowers, and four times as many male ones above them. Corolla finely fringed; capsule somewhat downy. Michaux remarks, that the character of this genus is almost the same as that of *Buxus*, but the habit totally different. *Boreali-Amer.* ii. 177. t. 45.

PA'CIAN, a saint in the Roman calendar, and bishop of Barcelona, was descended from a noble Spanish family, and flourished about the year 370. He had been a married man; and left a son, who will be noticed at the end of this article. St. Jerome says of Pacian, that "he was no less famous for the sanctity of his life, than for the eloquence of his discourse; and that he wrote many books, among which there is one, entitled *Cervus*, or the Stag, and some treatises against the Novatians." He died at an advanced age, under the reign of the emperor Theodosius the Great, and before the year 390. With respect to his book entitled *Cervus*, it appears to have been a satirical piece, written against the Pagans, and abounding in wit and eloquence; but no remains of it have reached modern times. There are still extant, attributed to Pacian; 2. Three Letters to Sempronian, a Novatian, which are probably the treatises mentioned by Jerome. 3. An Exhortation to Repentance. 4. A Discourse concerning Baptism, addressed to Catechumens; though doubts are entertained respecting the genuineness of the last-mentioned piece. They were edited by John de Tilly, at Paris, in 1538, 4to. by Paul Manutius at Rome, in 1564, folio; and they are inserted in the fourth volume of the *Bibl. Patr.* A more correct edition of the whole, (excepting the Discourse on Baptism,) collated with a manuscript of about the year 800, was afterwards given in the second volume of the Collect. Max. Concl. Hispan.

Hispan. illustrated with numerous learned notes. Dupin thus characterizes the writings of Pacian: "His exhortations are lively and persuasive; his thoughts well weighed; his proofs solid; his manner of writing pleasant; his style elegant, and the periods short. In a word, these little tracts may pass for master-pieces in their kind; and the two exhortations, or discourses, may be looked upon as perfect models of popular preaching."

Pacian's son, named FLAVIUS DEXTER, was the person to whom Jerome inscribed his Catalogue, and at whose request it was drawn up. He filled several high offices in the empire, and for some time was prefect of the prætorium. He had a place in Jerome's catalogue, as an ecclesiastical writer; though it is not universally allowed that the work mentioned by that father is now extant. *Fabrizii Bibl. Eccles. Cave's Hist. Lit.* vol. i. *Lardner's Cred.* part ii.

PACIFEROUS, *adj.* [from the Lat. *pax*, *pacis*, peace, and *fero*, to bring.] Producing peace. *Cole.*

PACIFIC, *adj.* Peace-making; mild; gentle; appeasing.—God now in his gracious *pacifick* manner comes to treat with them. *Hammond on Fundamentals.*

Returning, in his bill
An olive-leaf he brings, *pacific* sign! *Milton.*

PACIFIC O'CEAN, or SOUTH SEA, that vast ocean which separates Asia from America. It is called *Pacific*, from the moderate weather which the first mariners who sailed in it met with between the tropics; and it was called the *South Sea*, because the Spaniards crossed the Isthmus of Darien from north to south. It is properly the Western Ocean, with regard to America.

This ocean fills the grandest concavity of the globe, occupying nearly half of its surface, from the eastern shores of New Holland to the western coast of America; and it is diversified with several groups of islands, which seem, as it were, the summits of vast mountains emerging from the waves. Separately considered, this immense concavity receives but few rivers; the chief being the Amur from Tartary, and the Hoan-ho and Kian-ku from China, while the principal American rivers run towards the east. This ocean, considered as the boundary of the Russian empire, washes the shores of the government of Irkutsk, from Tchukotkoy Nofs, or Cook's Straits, to the frontiers of China; or, in other words, from the mouth of the river Aimakan, that is, from 65° to 45° N. lat. It is divided into two great parts. That lying eastwards from Kamtskatka, between Siberia and America, is eminently styled the *Eastern* or the Pacific Ocean; that on the west side from Kamtskatka, between Siberia, the Chinese Mongoleys, and the Kurilly Islands, is called the Sea of Okhotsk. From the different places it touches, it assumes different names: thus, from the place where the river Anadyr falls into it, it is called the Sea of Anadyr; about Kamtskatka, the Sea of Kamtskatka; and the bay between the districts of Okhotsk and Kamtskatka, is called the Sea of Okhotsk, the upper part of which is termed the Penjinskian Sea, as it approaches the mouth of the river Penjina.

PACIFICAL, *adj.* [*pacificus*, Lat.] Mild; gentle; peace-making.—For what sin was I sent hither among soldiers, being by my profession academical, and by my charge *pacifical*? *Sir H. Wotton*, (Lett. 1615.) *Rem.* p. 439.

PACIFICATION, *f.* [Fr. from *pacify*.] The act of making peace.—He sent forthwith to the French king his chaplain, chusing him because he was a churchman, as best sorting with an embassy of *pacification*. *Bacon's Hen. VII.*—The act of appeasing or pacifying.—A world was to be saved by a *pacification* of wrath, through the dignity of that sacrifice which should be offered. *Hooker.*

PACIFICATOR, *f.* Peace-maker.—We have seen England become the *pacifactor* of the continent, and rival monarchs sue for our alliance. *Warburton's Sermons.*

PACIFICATORY, *adj.* Tending to make peace.—

All churches did maintain intercourse and commerce with each other by formed, communicatory, *pacificatory*, commendatory, synodical, epistles. *Barrow's Unity of the Church.*

PACIFICUS, in mythology, an epithet of Jupiter, synonymous with *Salamines* among the Syrians, derived from the Hebrew "Salman," which generally signifies *pacatus fui*.

PACIFICUS MAXIMUS, a Latin poet, was born at Ascoli, of a noble family, in 1409: the time of his death is not known; but his poems were printed at Florence in 1489, under the title of "Heccatelligiam, five Elegiæ. This edition is now very scarce; that of Parma, with his other works, in 1691, is purged of many licentious passages that occur in the former. He mentions the venereal disease in his poems before the discovery of the New World by Columbus.

PACIFIER, *f.* One who pacifies. *Hulock.*

TO PACIFY, *v. a.* [*pacifier*, Fr. *pacifico*, Lat.] To appease; to still resentment; to quiet an angry person; to compose any desire.—The Most High is not *pacified* for sin by the multitude of sacrifices. *Eccles. xxxiv. 19.*—O villain! to have wit at will upon all other occasions, and not one diverting syllable now at a pinch to *pacify* our mistresses. *L'Estrange.*

Nor William's pow'r nor Mary's charms
Could or repel or *pacify* his arms.

Prior.

PACING, *f.* The act of moving slowly and easily.

PACINISCO, a town of Naples, in Lavora: eleven miles east-south-east of Sora.

PA'CIO (Giulio), a distinguished jurist and philosopher, was born at Vicenza in the year 1550. From an early age he was distinguished for his proficiency in letters; and, being destined for the study of the law, he was sent to Padua, where he studied under the ablest masters. On his return to Vicenza, his propensity to enquiry led him to peruse the writings of the Reformers, for which he was accused to the bishop, who gave orders for his apprehension. He therefore took refuge at Geneva, where, being destitute of other means of support, he opened a school for children. In 1578 he was chosen professor of jurisprudence in that city. In 1585 he was invited to a professorship at Heidelberg; and on his acceptance of that office he delivered an oration, "De Juris Civilis Difficultate ac Docendi Methodo," which he afterwards printed, signing himself *Beriga*, from a country-house belonging to his family. He remained at Heidelberg till 1595, when he quitted it for Sedan, where the duke of Bouillon had established an academy: in this he held the logical chair till the war broke out, which obliged him to return to Geneva. Soon after he was elected principal of the college of Nismes: thence he removed to the professorship of civil law at Montpellier, where he had as a domestic pupil the celebrated Peiresc. It was the great object of the pupil to bring back his master to the Catholic faith; and for this purpose he wished to fix him, with a large stipend, at the university of Aix; but for many years the attempts for his conversion and change of abode were continued without effect. At length, however, he rejected a flattering invitation from the university of Leyden, because he had again become a Catholic. In 1616 he removed to Valence in Dauphiné, where he occupied the chair of the celebrated Cujas, with a high salary. About the year 1619, he published a work concerning the dominion of the Adriatic Sea, on account of which he was honoured by the republic of Venice with the order of St. Mark; it also procured him a pressing invitation to a professorship at Padua, which he accepted for a short time; but, after this, in 1621, he returned to Valence, where he continued his professional labours till his death, in 1635.

The works of this writer are numerous, and chiefly on legal or philosophical topics, in both of which sciences he was profoundly versed. He published new and accurate

versions of several of Aristotle's works, which have ranked as models of translations. The great honours and emoluments which he received, and the contests which subsisted among the most famous universities to obtain possession of him, sufficiently prove that he was one of the most considerable scholars of that period. The titles of his most important works are, 1. *De Contractibus*. 2. *Synopsis Juris*. 3. *De Jure Maris Adriatici*. 4. *Corpus Juris Civilis*. He wrote a treatise on arithmetic at the age of thirteen. *Niceron*.

PACIVIRI, *f.* in botany. See **CARINA**.

PACK, *v. n.* [*pack*, Teut. *pacquet*, Fr.] A large bundle of any thing tied up for carriage.—Thémistocles said to the king of Persia, that speech was like cloth of Arras opened and put abroad, whereby the imagery appears in figures; whereas, in thoughts, they lie but as in *packs*. *Bacon*.—A *pack* of wool is a horse's load, containing seventeen stone and two pounds, or 240 pounds weight. *Chambers*.

Our knight did bear no less a *pack*
Of his own buttocks on his back.

Hudibras.

A burden; a load.—But, when they took notice how stupid a beast it was, they loaded it with *packs* and burdens, and set boys upon the back of it. *L'Esrange*.

I rather chose

To cross my friend in his intended drift,
Than, by concealing it, heap on your head
A *pack* of sorrows. *Shakespeare's Two Gent. of Verona*.

A due number of cards.—It is wonderful to see persons of sense passing away a dozen hours together in shuffling and dividing a *pack* of cards. *Addison*.

Women to cards may be compar'd; we play
A round or two; when us'd, we throw away,
Take a fresh *pack*.

Granville.

A number of hounds hunting together.—Two ghosts join their *packs* to hunt her o'er the plain. *Dryden*.

The fury fires the *pack*; they snuff, they vent,
And feed their hungry nostrils with the scent. *Dryden*.

A number of people confederated in any bad design or practice.—You panderly rascals! there's a knot, a gang, a *pack*, a conspiracy, against me. *Shakespeare's M. Wives of Windsor*.—Never such a *pack* of knaves and villains as they who now governed in the parliament. *Clarendon*.—Bickerstaff is more a man of honour than to be an accomplice with a *pack* of rascals that walk the streets on nights. *Swift*.—Any great number, as to quantity and pressure: as, a *pack* of troubles, corrupted by the vulgar into a *peck* of troubles.—A loose or lewd person, [*pæca*, from *pæcan*, Sax. to deceive, by false appearances. *H. Tooke*.] It was probably a cant term.—Some lofsels, some naughty *paches*. *Skellon*.—Young wanton wenches and beguines, nunnies and naughty *paches*. *World of Wonders*.

To **PACK**, *v. a.* [*packen*, Teut.] To bind up for carriage.—What we looked upon as brains, were an heap of strange materials, *packed* up with wonderful art in the skull. *Addison*.

Resolv'd for sea, the slaves thy baggage *pack*,
Each saddled with his burthen on his back.

Dryden.

To send in a hurry:

He cannot live, I hope, and must not die,
Till George be *pack'd* with post-horse up to heav'n.

Shakespeare.

To fort the cards so as that the game shall be iniquitously secured. It is applied to any iniquitous procurement of collusion. [This and the following sense are to be referred, as Mr. H. Tooke has shown, to the Saxon *pæcan*, to counterfeit, to act collusively, so cheat.]—There be that can *pack* cards, and yet cannot play well; so there are some that are good in canvasses and factions, that are otherwise weak men. *Bacon's Essays*.

The judge shall job, the bishop bite the town,
And mighty dukes *pack* cards for half a crown. *Pope*.

To unite picked persons in some bad design.—The expected council was dwindling into a conventicle; a *packed* assembly of Italian bishops, not a free convention of fathers from all quarters. *Atterbury*.

When they have *pack'd* a parliament,
We'll once more try th' expedient:
Who can already muster friends,
To serve for members to our ends.

Hudibras.

To **PACK**, *v. a.* To tie up goods:

The marigold, whose courtier's face
Echoes the sun, and doth unlace
Her at his rise, at his full stop
Packs and shuts up her gaudy shop.

Cleveland.

To go off in a hurry; to remove in haste. *A cant word*.—The wind no sooner came good, but away *pack* the galleys with all the haste they could. *Carew*.—A thief kindled his torch at Jupiter's altar, and then robbed the temple: as he was *packing* away with his sacrilegious burden, a voice pursued him. *L'Esrange*.

Poor Stella must *pack* off to town,
From purling streams and fountains bubbling,
To Liffy's stinking tide at Dublin.

Swift.

To concert bad measures; to confederate in ill; to practise unlawful confederacy or collusion.—Go, *pack* with him. *Titus Andronicus*.—That this so profitable a merchandise riseth not to a proportionable enhancement with other less beneficial commodities, they impute partly to the eastern buyers *packing*, partly to the owners not venting the same. *Carew*.

PACK'-CLOTH, *f.* A cloth in which goods are tied up.

PACK'-HORSE, *f.* A horse of burden; a horse employed in carrying goods.—It is not to be expected that a man, who drudges on in a laborious trade, should be more knowing in the variety of things done in the world, than a *pack-horse*, who is driven constantly forwards and backwards to market, should be skilled in the geography of the country. *Locke*.

Ere you were queen, ay, or your husband king,
I was a *pack-horse* in his great affairs. *Shakespeare*.

PACK'-SADDLE, *f.* A saddle on which burdens are laid.—Your beards deserve not so honourable a grave as to stuff a butcher's cushion, or to be entombed in an ass's *pack-saddle*. *Shakespeare's Coriol*.—The bunch on a camel's back may be instead of a *pack-saddle*, to receive the burthen. *More against Atheism*.

PACK'-STAFF, *f.* A staff by which a pedlar occasionally supports his pack.—It is probable, that the phrase, "as plain as a *pike-staff*," is a corruption of the word before us. Yet none of our lexicographers have noticed *pack-staff*. *Todd*.—A *pack-staffe* epithet, and scorned name. *Marsden's Scourge of Vill*.

Some say, my satires over loosely flow,
Nor hide their gall enough from open show;
Not, riddle like, obscuring their intent;
But, *pack-staffe* plaine, uttering what thing they ment.

Bp. Hall.

PACK'-THREAD, *f.* Strong thread used in tying up parcels.—Girding of the body of the tree about with *pack-thread* restraineth the sap. *Bacon's Nat. Hist*.

About his shelves

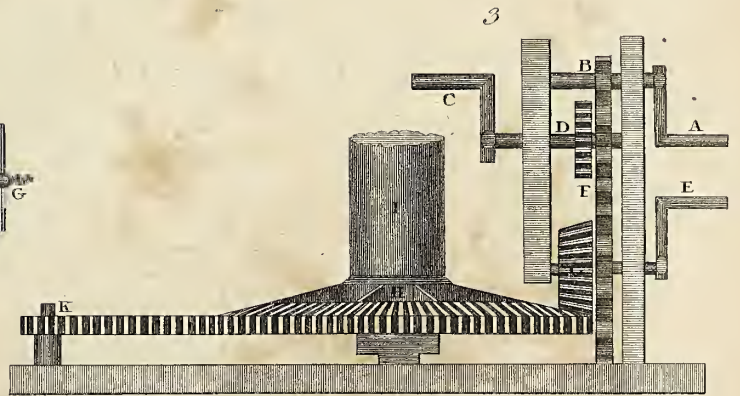
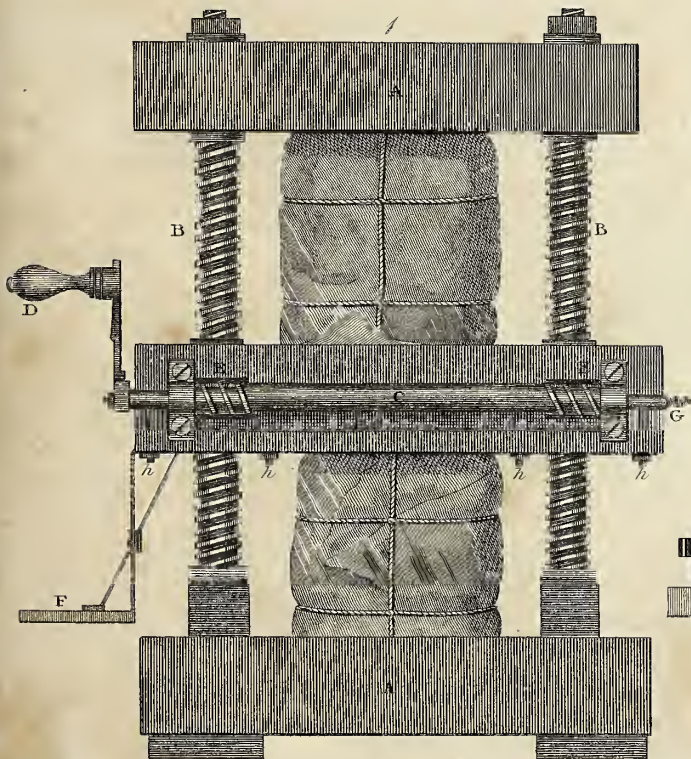
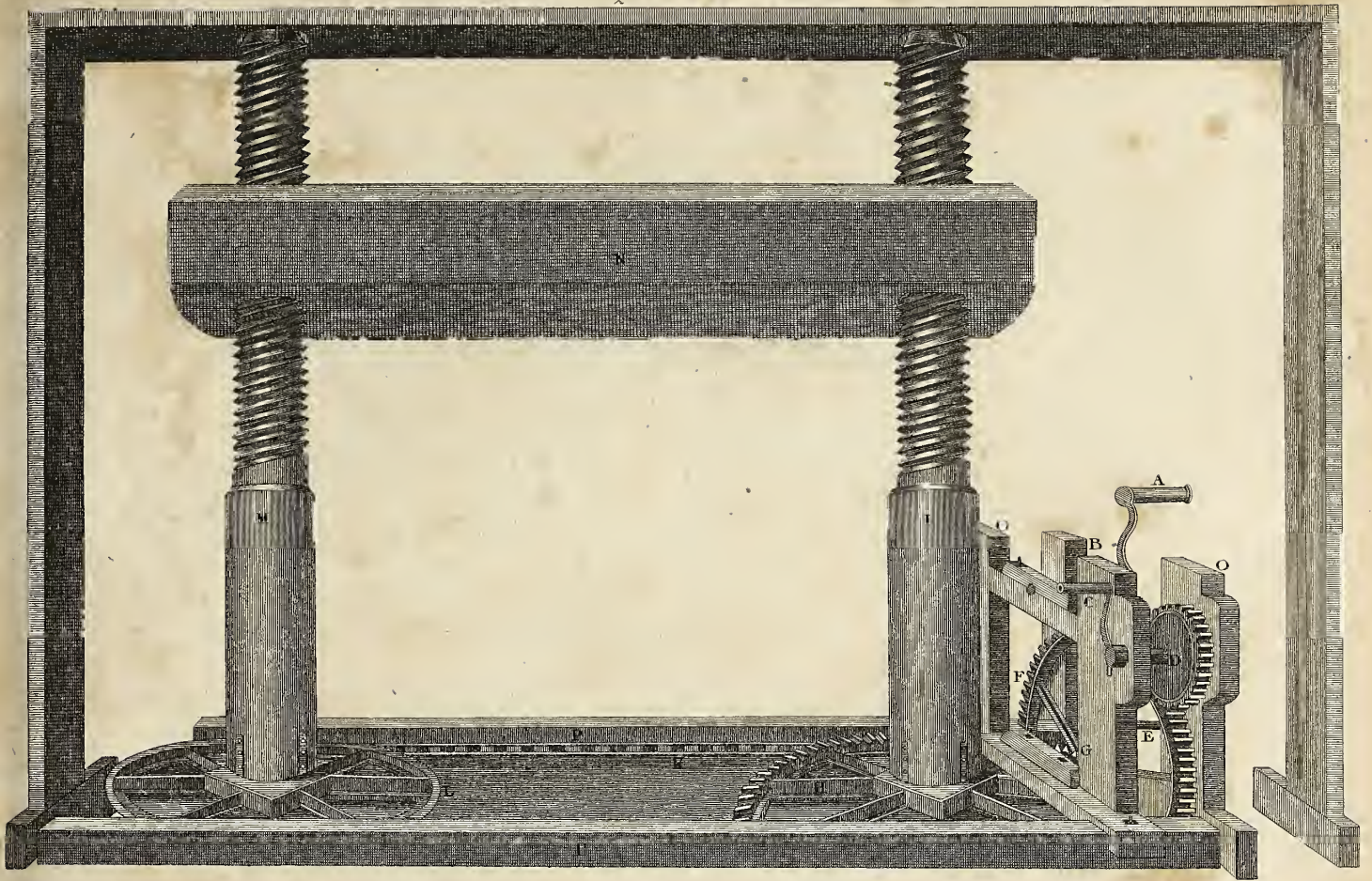
Remnants of *pack-thread*, and old cakes of roses
Were thinly scatter'd. *Shakespeare's Rom. and Juliet*.

PACK'-WAX, *f.* [more frequently written *pax-wax*.] Several parts peculiar to brutes are wanting in man, as the strong aponeuroses of the neck called *pack-wax*. *Ray*.—Along each side of the neck of large quadrupeds runs a stiff robust cartilage, which butchers call the *pax-wax*. *Paley's Nat. Theol*.

PACK'AGE,

PACKING-PRESSES.

2



J. Russ. sculp.

1. M. Peck's Packing press. 2, 3. Wheelton and Bowler's Packing press.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis &c.



PACK'AGE, *f.* A duty set and rated in a table taken of goods and merchandises; and all goods not specified in the table, are to pay for package-duties after the rate of one penny in the pound, according as they are valued in the book of rates. *Chambers.*

PACK'ER, *f.* One who binds up bales for carriage.—*Packers* are really, what their title expresses, *packers* as well as pressers of all sorts of bale-goods (intended for exportation) for the great trading-companies and merchants, for which they are answerable, if they should receive any damage through bad package. Besides this, several of them are considerable dealers. *Chambers.*

PACK'ERSFIELD, a township of New Hampshire, Cheshire-county, east of Keene, on the head branches of Ashuelot-river, containing 1076 inhabitants: eighty-six miles west of Portsmouth.

PACK'ET, *f.* [*paquet*, Fr.] A small pack; a mail of letters.—There passed continually *packets* and dispatches between the two kings. *Bacon's Hen. VII.*

Upon your late command
To guard the passages, and search all *packets*,
This to the prince was intercepted. *Denham.*

A small bundle, as of a mountebank's medicines.

PACK'ET, or **PACKET-BOAT**, a vessel appointed by the government to carry the mail of letters, packets, and expresses, from one kingdom to another, by sea, in the most expeditious manner.—People will wonder how the news could come, especially if the wind be fair when the *packet* goes over. *Swift.*—The *packet-boats*, under the direction of the postmaster-general of Great Britain, carry the mails from Dover to Calais, from Falmouth to Lisbon, from Harwich to Helvoetsluys, and from Park-gate to Dublin. *Chambers.*

To **PACK'ET**, *v. a.* To bind up in parcels.—My resolution is to send you all your letters well sealed and *packeted*. *Swift.*

PACK'ING, *f.* The art of the packer; the art of compressing goods into a small compass for the convenience of carriage.

PACK'ING, *f.* [from *to pack*, in the sense of cheating.] A trick; a cheat; a falsehood.—We do hope to find out all your tricks, your plots and *packing*. *Milton on the New Forcers of Conscience.*

What excuse
Can we make to the duke, what mercy hope for,
Our *packing* being laid open? *Massinger.*

PACK'ING-CLOTH, *f.* A coarse kind of cloth for packing goods, &c. Mr. Thomas Winter, of Shacklewell, took out a patent, in the year 1801, for the manufacture of a coarse cloth for packing goods, covering rooms, &c. This cloth consists of waste tan (after it has been used for the purposes of tanning) boiled and bruised; of the waste shreds, parings, or scrapings, of leather, also boiled and bruised to a pulp; and of the short hair of animals, prepared so that it may interweave and unite with the other ingredients. Certain proportions of these are well mixed, adding to the mass a small quantity of refuse tow; and then the whole is well beaten together with stampers and a little water. When well blended, it is conveyed into vats, and warm water (made glutinous by previously boiling in it pieces of skin) added by degrees. It is then moulded in frames like those of paper-makers; and, when dried, is fit for use. *Rep. of Arts*, vol. xvi.

PACK'ING-PRESS, or **PACKER'S PRESS**, *f.* The presses used by packers for bringing their goods into a manageable shape, previous to packing them for conveyance or stowing away, are of various kinds, and have been for many years in a progressive state of improvement. The two following we shall select, as being well suited to the purpose.

Mr. John Peck, of the New Road, near the Adam and Eve, produced a press, about the year 1795, which was considered to be so ingenious by the Society of Arts in the Adelphi, that, upon his giving up the invention to

the public, by declining to take out a patent, they voted him a reward of thirty guineas. This press appears to render the operation of packing much less laborious, and to expedite the business very much. One very considerable improvement is, that much time will be saved by its being a double-press; for it will very readily be perceived, that when the lower package has been sufficiently pressed, as the bed or presser is raised, (another package being thereon,) the upper package begins to be pressed as that one underneath is relieved, and so, alternately, during the whole operation. On the annexed Plate, at fig. 1. A A is the frame of the press. B, B, the large screws, which, in this press, contrary to those in common use, are fixed and immovable. C, a circular iron bar, extending beyond the sides of the press, and having thereon two worms or endless screws, E, E, which work in two toothed wheels fixed to the nuts. By turning the winch D, the nuts and bed are driven up and down the screws, as may be found necessary. F, a stage, suspended from the bed, and on which the men stand who work the press; such a stage may, if found necessary, be fixed at the other end of the bar, another winch being put upon the square shoulder, G. The bed of this press must be formed of two pieces of strong wood, which are held together by screws and nuts, passed through them, as shown at h, h, h, h.

Messrs. Wheildon and Bowler, of Throgmorton-street, and of Bear-lane, near Blackfriars-bridge, London, took out a patent for a packing-press in April 1796. "The principle on which our invention is founded (say the patentees) is the applying of a chain, cog, or any other kind of wheel or wheels, of various forms and sizes, and placed in various situations, (to be worked by a handle or handles,) which may be affixed or annexed to any kind of press or presses, for the purpose of power in pressure, which has the advantage of compressing any substance capable of pressure into less compass, with less labour, than the presses now in use. Their component parts may be made of wood, iron, brass, or any other substance or substances capable of being brought to the shape and uses hereafter described." Fig. 2. represents a perspective view of this press. A is a handle that gives motion to the machinery, by turning the pinion B. C is another handle, for a quicker motion, which is annexed to the axis of a larger pinion D; and E is another handle, which is occasionally fixed to the axis of the spur-wheel F, to be worked by a man standing in a hole beneath it; and on the same axis is a pinion G, which acts in a tooth and cog-wheel H, and which is fixed to the bottom of the screw I. K is a chain, which is connected with the cogs of the wheel H, and to the cogs of the wheel L, which turns the other screw M, (which screws rest on pivots,) and which causes the nut N to come down exactly level upon the substance to be pressed or packed with an astonishing power of pressure; and, by turning the handle or handles the contrary way, it causes the nut N to rise to its proper station. O O is a frame, with the multiplying wheels fixed therein, which is annexed to an end of the press; or it may be carried to its side, if necessary; and it may be inclosed with a covering or case, to keep it from dirt or injury. P P is a frame for a platform or case, to be fitted to or upon it, which covers the whole of the bottom machinery. Fig. 3. represents a front-view of part of the machinery, (with the screws broken off,) and a cog-wheel applied to the centre, to work instead of the chain, as before specified. A is a handle, as before, that, by turning, gives motion to the pinion B. C is the handle connected with the axis of the pinion D, and is made to shove in and out of the teeth of the spur-wheel F. E is another handle, to be occasionally fixed to the axis of the spur-wheel F, to be worked as before described; and on the same axis is a bevel-pinion G, which acts in a bevel-face wheel H, which is likewise cogged round its edge, and is fixed to the bottom of the screw I, which gives motion to the centre cog-wheel K, which gives motion to the other cog-wheel L, &c. as in fig. 2.

PACK'INGTON MAG'NA, a village in Warwickshire: three miles south of Colehill.

PACK'INGTON PARVA, a village near the above. Here is Packington-hall, a seat of the earl of Aylesford. The house stands on the south side of the road, and the park on the north side. A large arch is turned over the road, wide enough for a carriage to pass over, in order to have a communication between the house and the park without going through the road. The house is modern, and appears to be built in a good taste; but its low situation must deprive it of any extraordinary prospect. The road was turned to the south side of the house, by act of parliament, in 1764.

PAC'MOTE BA'Y, a bay on the east coast of the island of Martinico.

PAC'CO COTIN'GA. See COSTUS.

PAC'CO SERO'CA. See ALFINIA.

PAC'OLET, a small river of America, in South Carolina, which unites with Broad-river, thirty miles above Tyger river, and twenty-four south of the North Carolina line. On this river are the famous Pacolet-springs, seventeen miles above its confluence with Broad-river.

PAC'OLET, a town of Rutland-county, Vermont, containing 2233 inhabitants.

PAC'ORI (Ambrose), a French practical writer, whose works are held in esteem by pious Catholics, was born of obscure parents at Ceaucé in the Lower Maine, about the year 1650. His inclination leading him to the ecclesiastical profession, after receiving the requisite education, he was admitted to deacon's orders, and became president of the college in his native place, where, at the same time, he taught the classics and philology. In this situation, from what motives we are not informed, an attempt was made to poison him by one of his pupils, from which he narrowly escaped; and, thinking his life no longer safe at Ceaucé, he resigned his post, and retired into Anjou. Soon afterwards, cardinal Coislin, bishop of Orleans, appointed him to the presidency of his seminary at Mehun, which he retained for eighteen years, during which he procured the establishment of many seminaries in the diocese of Orleans, for the education of young persons designed for the clerical profession. Upon the death of the cardinal, he was obliged to quit his post; when he withdrew to Paris, where he spent the remainder of his life in retirement, and died in 1730, when he was about eighty years of age. By the purity of his manners he reflected lustre on his learning and abilities, which were very respectable; but so excessive were his modesty and humility, that he could never be persuaded to enter into priest's orders, of the importance of which he entertained a very exalted idea. He was the author of a great number of pious and practical treatises, which, though written in a heavy and prolix style, have had considerable popularity among certain classes of religionists. The principal of them are, 1. Salutary Advice to Parents relative to the proper Education of their Children, 12mo. 2. Dialogues on the sacred Observance of Sundays and Festivals. 3. Christian Directions for an uniformly holy Practice. 4. The Christian's Day Work. 5. Christian Reflections. *Ladvoat's Dict. Hist. et Bibl. portatif.*

PAC'ORUS, the name of two kings of Parthia. Also the name of the eldest of the thirty sons of Orodes king of Parthia, sent against Crassus, whose army he defeated, and whom he took prisoner. He took Syria from the Romans; and supported the republican party of Pompey, and of the murderers of Julius Cæsar. He was killed in a battle by Ventidius Bassus, B. C. 39. on the same day (9th of June) that Crassus had been defeated.

PACOURA, *f.* in botany. See WILLUGHBEIA.

PACOUR'NA, *f.* [one of Aublet's unexplained names, which has since been changed to HAYNEA by Willdenow, in honour of Frederic Theophilus Hayne, a German botanist, author of an elegant work entitled *Termini Botanici*, published by the former at Berlin, in quarto, with coloured plates.] In botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia-æqualis, natural order

of compositæ capitatæ, *Lim.* (cinarocephalæ, *Juss.*) Generic characters—Common calyx globose, imbricated; with numerous, elliptic-oblong, upright, acute, spinous, scales. Corolla compound, tubular, uniform, florets all equal, perfect, fertile, monopetalous, funnel-shaped, with a regular, five-cleft, acute, spreading, limb. Stamina: filaments five, capillary, the length of the tube; antheræ acute, the length of the limb, united into a cylinder. Pistillum: germen obovate; style thread-shaped, the length of the stamens, very slender; stigmas two, acute, reflexed. Pericarpium: none, except the permanent calyx. Seeds solitary, obovate; down simple, sessile, short, spreading. Receptacle: fleshy, chaffy; its scales roundish, concave, longer than the seeds, which they separate from each other.—*Essential Character.* Receptacle fleshy, chaffy; down simple, short; calyx ovate, with imbricated, straight, spinous, scales.

Pacourina edulis: the only species. Found flowering in the month of June, on the banks of a river exposed to the influx of the sea, near Courou, in Guiana, by Aublet, from whose Herbarium specimens were communicated by sir Joseph Banks. No other botanist, as far as we know, has ever gathered this plant. No account is given of the original generic name, which has the appearance of being French, and therefore in honour of some person; but Willdenow thought proper to change it. The specific name, *edulis*, is meant to express that the receptacle is eatable, as well as the whole plant, according to Aublet, but he does not say whether raw or boiled. Its habit is that of a Cnicus or Sonchus. Root perennial. Stems several, somewhat branched, leafy, round, smooth, often zigzag, three feet high. Leaves alternate, large, ovate-oblong, greyish, smooth, veiny, fringed with little irregular spinous teeth, their base running down into a winged footstalk, which embraces the stem. Flowers solitary, opposite to each leaf, sessile, scarcely an inch in diameter, bluish. The young foliage is slightly downy. *Aublet Guian.* p. 800. t. 316.

PACT, *f.* [*pacē*, Fr. from *pactum*, Lat.] A contract; a bargain; a covenant.—The queen, contrary to her *pact* and agreement concerning the marriage of her daughter, delivered her daughters out of sanctuary unto king Richard. *Bacon.*

PACTA VALAM'. See TRICHOSANTHES.

PAC'TION, *f.* [*Fr. pactio*, Lat.] A bargain; a covenant.—The French king sent for Matthew earl of Levenox, to remove the earl of Arraine from the regency of Scotland, and reverse such *pactions* as he had made. *Hayward.*—There never could be any room for contracts or *pactions* between the Supreme Being and his intelligent creatures. *Cheyne.*

PAC'TIONAL, *adj.* By way of bargain or covenant.—The several duties, that by God's ordinance are to be performed by persons that stand in mutual relation either to other, are not *pactional* and conditional; as are the leagues and agreements made between princes; but are absolute and independent: wherein each person is to look to himself, and the performance of the duty that lyeth upon him, though the other party should fail in the performance of his. *Sanderson's Cases of Conscience.*

PACTYTIOUS, *adj.* Settled by covenant.

PACTOLUS, in ancient geography, a river of Asia, which had its rise on Mount Tmolus, in Lydia, watered the plain adjoining to Sardis, traversed that town, and ran into the Hermus, which discharged itself into the gulf of Smyrna. This river is said to have contained a quantity of gold. As to the fable related concerning it, we refer to MIDAS. The kings of Persia obtained possession of the Pactolus and its treasures by Cyrus's conquest of Lydia. Xerxes drew gold from the Pactolus, and this valuable metal was furnished by it in the time of Herodotus; but it afterwards failed, long before the time of Strabo. The gold of the Pactolus was derived from the mines of Mount Tmolus; and, when these were exhausted, the supply of the river was discontinued. This river was, according to Varro and Chrysostom, the chief source of the wealth of Cræsus.

PACU'VIUS (Marcus), a Latin tragic poet, was a native of Brundisium, and is said to have been the sister's son of Ennius. He flourished about B. C. 154. and was the friend and guest of C. Lelius. In the rude state of the Roman theatre he obtained great reputation; and his tragedy of "Orestes" is particularly mentioned by Cicero as having been heard with loud applause. He also composed satires, and had a talent for painting. In advanced age he retired from Rome to Tarentum, where he died, having nearly reached his ninetieth year. A few fragments only of his works are left, which have been published in the *Corpus Poetarum Latinorum* of Vossius.

PA'CY, a town of France, in the department of the Eure, on the Eure, formerly surrounded with walls: eight miles south-west of Vernon, and eleven east of Evreux.

PACZANO'W, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Sandomirz: twenty-eight miles east of Sandomirz.

PAD, *f.* [from *paad*, Sax. whence likewise *paað*, or *path*.] The road; a foot-path.—We have seen this to be the discipline of the state, as well as of the *pad*. *L'Estrange*. The squire of the *pad* and the knight of the post Find their pains no more baulk'd, and their hopes no more croft. *Prior*.

An easy-paced horse.—Let him walk afoot with his *pad* in his hand; but let not them be accounted no poets who mount and shew their horsemanship. *Dryden's Ded. to Juv.*—I would have set you on an easier *pad*, and relieved the wandering knight with a night's lodging. *Pope's Lett.*—A robber that infests the roads on foot.—A low soft saddle; a cushion or bolster; properly, a saddle or bolster stuffed with straw; [from *paja*, Span. straw.] Tremellius was called *seropha*, or fow, because he hid his neighbour's fow under a *pad*, and commanded his wife to lie thereon; he swore that he had no fow but the great fow that lay there, pointing to the *pad* and the fow his wife. *Camden*.

We shall not need to say what lack Of leather was upon his back; For that was hidden under *pad*.

Hudibras.

To **PAD**, *v. n.* To travel gently.—To rob on foot; to lurk about the highways in order to rob.—Sermons, said I; give them me; my boy shall carry them in his portmanteau, and ease you of that luggage. But, said he, suppose your boy should be robbed. That's pleasant, said I; do you think there are parsons *padding* upon the road for sermons? *Dr. Pope's Life of Bp. Ward*, 1697.—To beat a way smooth and level.

PAD'-NAG, *f.* An ambling nag.—An easy *pad-nag* to ride out a mile. *Dr. Pope*.

PA'DA, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Gangpour: thirty miles east of Gangpour, and sixty north-east of Sumbulpour. Lat. 21. 58. N. lon. 84. 39. E.

PA'DAN-A'RAM, [Heb. the Plains of Aram.] Another name for MESOPOTAMIA, which see.—But perhaps *Padan Aram* was only the north-west part of Mesopotamia. *Brown's Dict. Bible*.

PADANG', a seaport town on the west coast of the island of Sumatra. This is the head settlement which the Dutch possess on this island, and is governed by a director and council. The fort is situated within forty yards of the north bank of the river, being a square, with four bastions of stone, and the walls about nine feet high. On the south side of the river are high mountains, which extend to the sea-coast. The water is very good; and cattle and fruit plentiful and cheap. Lat. 0. 40. S. lon. 99. 48. E.

PADANG', a small island in the Eastern Indian Sea, near the west coast of Borneo. Lat. 0. 33. S. lon. 109. 21. E.

PADANG GOO'CHIE, a river of Sumatra, which divides the Lampoon-country, or a portion of the southern extreme of the island, from Passumnah, near the sea-coast.

PAD'AR, *f.* Grouts; coarse flour. *Not used*.—In the bolting and sifting of near fourteen years of such power and favour, all that came out could not be expected to

be pure and fine meal, but must have amongst it *padar* and bran in this lower age of human fragility. *Wotton*.

PADASJO'KI, a town of Sweden, in Tavastland: thirty-six miles north-east of Tavasthus.

PADA'TO, a town of Mexico, in the province of Culiacan: forty miles north-west of Culiacan.

PAD'BERG, a town and citadel of the duchy of Westphalia: four miles south of Stadtberg, and five east of Brilon.

PAD'BURY, a village in Buckinghamshire, three miles south-east of Buckingham, on a river that runs into the Ouse, the bridge over which was erected in 1742, in pursuance of an act of parliament.

PAD'DER, *f.* A robber; a foot-highwayman.—If he advanced himself by a voluntary engaging in unjust quarrels, he has no better pretence to honour than what a resolute and successful *padder* may challenge. *Collier*:

Worse than all the clattering tiles, and worse Than thousand *padders*, is the poet's curse; Rogues that in dog-days cannot rhyme forbear; But without mercy read to make you hear. *Dryden*.

PAD'DER, in geography. See **PUD'DAR**.

PAD'DINGTON, a parish and village in the hundred of Olifinston, and county of Middlesex, is situated at the north-western extremity of London. The parish, which extends about two miles in length, is bounded by Kensington, St Margaret's Westminster, and St George's Hanover-square, on the south; by Wilford on the north; by Marybone on the east; and by Kensington, and a detached part of Chelsea, on the west. According to a survey, its area comprises 1197 acres, 3 roods, and 30 perches, of which about one hundred acres are laid-out as garden-ground, and the remainder is occupied by houses, and appropriated to pasturage.

The village of Paddington stands about a mile to the north of Tyburn-turnpike. Like most of the other villages connected with the metropolis, it has increased greatly in extent of late years; and, since the opening of the canal in 1801, (see vol. xiii. p. 130.) has become a place of considerable commercial importance. This canal, which derives its name from the parish, branches off from the Grand Junction canal near Norwood; and, passing through the parishes of Ealing, Northall, Greenford, Perivale, Harrow, Acton, Fulham, Twyford, and Wilford, as well as the detached parts of Chelsea and Kensington, terminates at this village in a large basin, on the sides of which are convenient wharfs and warehouses, belonging to the Paddington-canal company. The advantages of this cut must be obvious to every one at all acquainted with the inland navigation of this country. By entering the Grand Junction canal, it affords to Paddington, directly or indirectly, a navigable communication with almost every trading or manufacturing town in the kingdom. The Regent's Canal, which connects the Paddington Canal with the river Lea, and consequently with the Thames below London, was opened on the 1st of August last. This canal, which has been nearly seven years in making, unites all the principal canals in the kingdom with the river Thames. From its commencement, to the termination at Limehouse, it extends nearly nine miles, and within that space are comprised 12 locks and 37 bridges. The construction of the former is on so excellent a principle, that only three minutes and a half are occupied in passing each of them. The work was projected by J. Nash, esq. the royal architect, under whose superintendence it has been completed. The tunnel under Islington-hill is about three quarters of a mile in length, and passes beneath the bed of the New River.

Paddington manor in ancient times constituted part of the possessions of Westminster Abbey. At the dissolution it was annexed to the bishopric of Westminster; and, when that see was abolished, which was soon after its establishment, Edward VI. transferred it to Ridley bishop of London, and his successors, along with the advowson of the church, which is supposed to have first become parochial

rochial about the same time. The church, since that period, has been twice erected: first by Sir Joseph Sheldon, lessee of the manor, little more than a century ago; and again in 1791, by the parish, under the authority of an act of parliament. It is a square building, with a projecting wing on each side, and a portico of the Doric order fronting the south. Several persons of note lie buried both in the church and in the surrounding cemetery; among whom are John-Henry marquis of Landown, Dr. Geddes, and the celebrated statuary Banks.

Paddington parish, according to the late parliamentary returns of 1811, contains 935 houses, and a population of 4609 persons. A charity-school, established here in 1802, for thirty boys and the same number of girls, is supported by voluntary contributions; and there are several alms-houses for the accommodation of the poor, the gifts of various benefactors. And Mrs. Wakefield adds, the strange custom is observed, on the Sunday before Christmas-day, of throwing bread from the church-steeple, to be scrambled for by the populace, in consequence of a gift from two maiden ladies.

Craven-hill, near this place, is named from that lord Craven who so nobly exerted himself at the calamitous periods of the plague and the great fire of London. He gave a piece of ground as a burial-place for those who died of the pestilence, which was exchanged for a field on this estate, still liable to the same use, should that awful sickness ever again visit London.

Baywater is a hamlet in this parish. The public tea-gardens here, were the gardens of the late Sir John Hill, who here cultivated his medicinal plants, and prepared from them his tinctures, essences, &c. The reservoir at Baywater was intended for the supply of Kensington palace; and the property was granted to the proprietors of the Chelsea water-works, on their engaging to keep the basin before the palace full. The wheel at Hyde-Park wall, near Knightsbridge-chapel, was made for the conveyance of this water. The conduit at Baywater belongs to the city of London, and supplies the houses in and about Bond-street which stand upon the city-lands. The Queen's Lying-in Hospital, instituted in 1752, for delivering poor women, married or unmarried, was removed here in 1791 from its former situation near Cumberland-street. It is an excellent institution.

Tyburn is another hamlet in this parish; as to which, see the article LONDON, vol. xiii. p. 118 and 576. See also Lyfons's Environs of London, 1795, and Suppl. 1811. Priscilla Wakefield's Perambulations in London; Lambert's London; the Ambulator, &c.

To PAD'DLE, *v. n.* [*patouiller*, Fr.] To row; to beat water as with oars.—*Paddling* ducks the standing lake desire. *Guy*.—To play in the water.—A wolf, lapping at the head of a fountain, spied a lamb *paddling* a good way off. *L'Estrange*.—The brain has a very unpromising aspect for thinking: it looks like an odd sort of bog for fancy to *paddle* in. *Collier*.—To finger.—Or *paddling* in your neck with his damn'd fingers. *Shakespeare's Hamlet*.

To PAD'DLE, *v. a.* To feel; to play with; to toy with:

But to be *paddling* palms and pinching fingers,
As now they are, and making practis'd smiles,
As in a looking-glass: Oh! that is entertainment
My bosom likes not. *Shakespeare's Wint. Tale*.

PAD'DLE, *f.* [*pattal*, Welsh.] An oar, particularly that which is used by a single rower in a boat.—The *paddles* used by the natives of Africa, America, and some of the islands in the South Sea, are made of light wood of various shapes, but mostly shorter and broader in the blade than our oars; and, instead of rowing with them horizontally like an oar, they manage them very dexterously in a perpendicular manner, either for rowing or steering. *Chambers*.—Any thing broad like the end of an oar. A small iron instrument for digging holes in the earth.—Have a *paddle* upon thy weapon. *Deut.* xxiii. 13.

PAD'DLE-STAFF, *f.* A staff headed with broad iron.—Besides the *paddle-staff* and other ceremonies. *Bp. Hall*.

PAD'DLER, *f.* One who paddles:

He may make a *paddler* in the world,
From hand to mouth, but never a brave swimmer.

Beaum. and Fletcher.

PAD'DOCK, *f.* [*parjuc*, Sax. a park.] A small inclosure for deer or other animals.—Delectable country-seats and villas environed with parks, *paddocks*, plantations, &c. *Evelyn*.

PAD'DOCK, *f.* [*pada*, Sax. *padde*, Dutch.] A great frog or toad.—The *paddock*, or frog-*paddock*, breeds on the land; is bony and big, especially the she. *Walton*.

Where I was wont to seek the honey-bee,

Working her formal rooms in waxen frame;

The grisly toad-stool grown there mought I see,

And loathed *paddocks* lording on the same. *Spenser*.

PAD'DOCK-PIPE, *f.* in botany. See *EQUISETUM*.

PAD'DOCK-STOOL, *f.* [from *paddock*, a toad.] A toad-stool; a kind of poisonous mushroom.

PADDY, [Indian.] Rice in the husk, whether dry or green.—More writers than one have made the mistake of considering *paddy* as an inferior kind of rice. It is nothing but the rice in the husk; and it is indeed surprising that such an error should not have been long ago corrected. *Bertolacci's View of Ceylon*, 1818.

PADDY (for Patrick), a familiar term or nick-name, which is given to a native of Ireland; as John Bull is applied to an Englishman, and Sawney (Alexander) to a Scotchman.

PA'DENS, *f.* A sort of bitter almonds from Persia, which are used at Surat for money, about sixty of which pass for one pice, which is less than a halfpenny.

PADEPAT'NAM, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic: thirty-five miles south-south-east of Tanjore.

PA'DER, a river of Westphalia, which rises near Paderborn, and, about three miles from the town, being joined by two other streams, forms the Lippe.

PADERBORN, a duchy of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, has the county of Lippe on the north and west; Hesse-Cassel and Waldeck on the south; and Munster, with the duchy of Westphalia, on the west. Its greatest length from east to west is about forty miles; and its breadth, where widest, thirty: some parts of it yield good pasture, and breed abundance of cattle; but it is not very fruitful in corn. There is a heath called the *Seme* or *Sende*, of great extent, but very barren and desolate. There are, however, good iron-mines in the country, with salt and medicinal springs, plenty of deer and other game; and it is watered with several rivers abounding in fish, as the Weser, the Dimer, the Diver, the Nette, the great Emmer, the Lippe, the Alme, and the Pader. It contains fifty-four parishes, in which are twenty-five market-towns, and sixteen monasteries. The Roman Catholic is the predominant religion of the country, but there are also many Protestants in it. The bishopric was erected by Charlemagne, towards the close of the eighth century, and the cathedral was consecrated by pope Leo in person, anno 796. The bishop was sovereign of the country, a prince of the empire, and suffragan of the archbishop of Mentz. His revenue was about 30,000 pounds a-year, and he was able to raise 3000 men. In 1802, this bishopric was given to the king of Prussia; and, by the peace of Tilsit, 1807, became a province of the new kingdom of Westphalia. In 1815, by the treaty of Vienna, it was given back to the king of Prussia.

PADERBORN, the capital of the above bishopric. It stands forty miles north-west of Cassel, fifty south-east of Munster, and sixty south-west of Hanover; being a large, populous, well-built, and well-fortified, city. Its name is compounded of *pader*, a rivulet, which rises just under the high altar of the cathedral, and *born*, a spring. It was one of the Hanse-towns; and, till 1604, an imperial city. The cathedral is a grand fabric, inferior to few in the empire. There is a gold crucifix in it of sixty pounds weight, presented by Otho II. The university.

of

of which the Jesuits had the direction, was founded in 1592; and the walls were built in the beginning of the eleventh century. In 1530 an attempt was made to introduce Lutheranism; but sixteen of the principal citizens who had embraced it were executed, and the rest obliged to abjure it. Duke Christian of Brunswick carried off from hence, in 1692, the silver images of the twelve apostles, and the silver coffin of St. Lotharius; and had them coined into money, with this inscription, "God's Friend, the Priest's Enemy." The trade of this town, though formerly great, is now inconsiderable; and the inhabitants subsist mostly by agriculture and breeding of cattle. This city was chosen by Charlemagne as a place of abode, when he wished to put an end to the Saxon war of thirty years' duration; accordingly he fixed his camp here, and erected it into a bishopric, which was confirmed by pope Leo. Hence the town became considerable, and several diets were assembled here. At present it has much declined, and its trade is become insignificant. Besides the cathedral, it has a collegiate and two parish churches. Lat. 51.40 N. lon. 8.54 E.

PADERNA, a town of Portugal, in the province of Algarve: nine miles north-east of Silves.

PADEW', a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Sandomirz: thirty-two miles south-west of Sandomirz.

PAD'ICHAM, a township of Lancashire, with 2118 inhabitants, including 965 employed in trade and manufactures: six miles north-east of Blackburn.

PADIL'LA (Lorenzo de), a Spanish antiquarian of great eminence, who was one of the historiographers to the emperor Charles V. He took infinite pains in preserving Roman inscriptions, and ascertaining the classical geography of Spain. His papers upon this subject came into the hands of Florian de Ocampo, who is said to have availed himself of them ungenerously, without acknowledging his obligation. Among other works he left a General History of Spain, in four parts. A few sheets which have accidentally been preserved, prove that it had been committed to the press, though the impression, it cannot now be known why, was never completed. The manuscript exists in the Dominican library of St. Paul, at Cordova. Padilla is also one of the earliest genealogical writers of the Spaniards, having been led to this subject in the course of his antiquarian researches. *Gen. Blog.*

PAD'NUM, now *Bondeno*, a town on the Po, where it begins to branch into different channels.

PAD'LEE, a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat: ten miles south of Durrampour.

PAD'LOCK, *f. [padde, Dut.]* A lock hung on a staple to hold on a link:

Let all her ways be unconfin'd;
And clap your *padlock* on her mind.

Prior.

To PAD'LOCK, *v. a.* To fasten with a padlock.—Let not such an unmerciful and more-than-legal yoke be *padlocked* upon the neck of any Christian. *Milton's Colapserion.*

PAD'MA, or **PEDMA**, in mythology, an attribute of the Hindoo deity Vishnu, which in pictures and statues is generally seen in one of his four hands, in the form of a lotus, for which *lovely aquatic padma* is a Sanscrit name. Pedma is a name of Lechemy, consort of Vishnu, as is also Pedmala, and Pedmalaya. Pedma-devi, meaning "goddess of the lotos," is a name likewise given to Lechemy, and sometimes to Parvati, the consort of Siva. Pedma-nabha, and Pedmachma, denoting "lord or possessor of the pedma, or of Lechemy," are other names of Vishnu. One of the eighteen sacred mythological poems is named Padma Purana. See **PURANA**.

PADO'GI, *f.* A punishment used in Russia. The body of the criminal is stripped to the waist, and then laid upon the ground; one slave holds the head of the person to be punished between his knees, and another the lower part of the body; then rods are applied to the back

till some person gives notice to desist, by crying out, Enough! This punishment is considered in Russia merely as a correction of the police, exercised on the soldier by military discipline, by the nobility on their servants, and by persons in authority over all such as are under their command. After the accession of Elizabeth to the throne of Russia, the punishments were reduced to two kinds, viz. the padogi and the knout.

PADO'LA, a town of Italy, in the Cadorin: twelve miles north-north-east of Cadore.

PADONGMEW', a town of Birmah, on the Irawaddy: six miles south-west of Prone.

PA'DOR, a town of Africa, in Damel, on the Senegal. Lat. 16.40 N. lon. 14.20 W.

PADOUCAS, a western branch of the river Missouri. The Indians inhabiting its banks are called Padoucas, and said to have been of Welsh origin.

PADRA'MA, a small island near the coast of Sardinia. Lat. 40.38 N. lon. 9.53 E.

PAD'LAN BA'Y, a bay on the south-east coast of Cochinchina. Lat. 11.24 N. lon. 108.40 E.

PADRE'AH, a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat: ten miles north of Baroach.

PADRO'ENS, a town of Portugal, in the province of Alentejo: thirteen miles west of Mertola.

PA'DRI, *f.* in botany. See **BIGNONIA**.

PA'DRON (El), a town of Spain, in Galicia, on the Ulla; anciently called *Iria Flavia*: fifteen miles south of Santiago.

PADSHAWPOUR, a town of Hindoostan: thirty miles south of Delhi.

PAD'STOW, or **PETROCKSTOW**, a market and seaport town in the county of Cornwall, is situated on the west side of Padstow haven, near the mouth of the river Camel or Allan, which falls into the Bristol channel. It is distant 243 miles west-south-west from London, and 30 miles west-by-south from Launceston. This town is of considerable antiquity; and is said to be the spot where St. Patrick founded the first religious house in Cornwall, when he arrived from Ireland, in the year 432. It was first called *Petrockslow*, from St. Peter, and afterwards *Adelslow*, from king Athelstan, who, according to tradition, conferred many privileges on the inhabitants. The market is on Saturday; and here are two fairs, April 29, and Oct. 2. The harbour is among the best on the north coast, though much obstructed by sand, except in the middle channel, by which vessels of large burden may enter, and find a commodious anchorage. Padstow is governed by a portreeve, assisted by a certain number of the most respectable inhabitants. Its chief support is derived from the share it possesses in the pilchard-fishery, and the custom of the numerous small vessels which resort to the harbour in the event of contrary winds, or stress of weather. From this port also large quantities of slate are exported and carried coastwise. This place is convenient for sea-bathing; and machines, for the accommodation of the public, are to be had of course.

The church is an ancient gothic structure, dedicated to St. Petroch, or Patrick, from whom the town has its name. Here is also a Sunday-school, well supported; and, lately, a national daily school. This parish, in 1811, contained 237 houses, and 1498 inhabitants.

Humphrey Prideaux, dean of Norwich, the author of the *Connection of the Old and New Testaments*, was a native of Padstow; and Prideaux-castle is, as we believe, still occupied by a descendant of that learned and worthy divine. It is a fine old (manorial) house, beautifully situated near the town, and commanding an extensive view of the harbour, town, and country round.

The country from hence to St. Ives is both fruitful and pleasant, and several other gentlemen's houses are met with; the sands are also very agreeable to the eye, and to travel upon. The hills are fruitful of tin, copper, and lead, all the way on the left hand; the product of which is carried to the other shore, so that we have little

to say of it here. The chief business on this shore is the herring-fishery: the herrings about October come driving up the Severn sea and from the coast of Ireland in prodigious shoals, and beat all upon this coast as high as Bideford and Barnstaple in Devonshire; and are caught in great quantities by the fishermen, chiefly on account of the merchants of Falmouth, Foy, Plymouth, and other ports on the south.

Not far from Padstow lies the respectable and immaculate borough of St. Michael's, which we introduced to the notice of our readers at vol. xv. p. 322. *British Directory*, vol. iv. *Beauties of England*, vol. ii.

PADUA, a city of Italy, and capital of the Paduan, situated on a small river, which runs into the Brenta. The Romans granted the inhabitants the right of citizens, and leave to choose a senate. It was destroyed by Attila, repaired by Narfes, and again destroyed by the Lombards: often ravaged, and as constantly re-established. In 1406, it was taken from the duke of Milan by the Venetians, and, with the territory, annexed to that republic. See PADUAN.

Padua is of large extent, and is intersected by a canal. It is in the form of a triangle, measuring 1735 paces in length and 1450 in breadth, and is surrounded with broad ditches 7000 paces in circumference, with twenty bastions, and walls 6200 paces in contour. The town is besides encircled, at the distance of a mile, with the *spiata*, or esplanade, which was made by the government of Venice, anno 1513, after the war with the emperor Maximilian; but the fortifications were in a very bad condition at the commencement of the French war, and have since undergone some reparation. The houses, which are very high, distinguish themselves but very little in point of architecture, and have on each side low arcades or piazzas, which have hitherto much favoured nocturnal assassinations. The following belong to the principal buildings: The palace della Raggione, or the town-house, represents an oblique quadrangle; it is supported by galleries, resting on 56 large, and 580 small, red-and-white pillars of marble; at the east and west ends are two staircases, 50 steps high, which lead to an arched saloon, without any supporting pillars. This fabric is 256 feet in length, 86 broad, and 75 high, and is the most spacious in the world. As a foundation of this structure, in the year 1132, large piles were driven into the ground, and their interstices filled-up with masonry to a level with its surface. The foundation remained in this state until the year 1209, that it might settle and become firm and compact. In that year the walls were raised up to the windows; and in 1218 they were totally completed. In the year following the saloon was roofed; and in 1306 it was arched with great art, and covered with lead, after the plan of friar John, a monk well skilled in architecture. This saloon contains, besides the elegant bust of the Roman historian Livy, a native of Padua, many inscriptions and busts of celebrated persons; for example, that of Livy Halys, an emancipated slave of Levia, fourth daughter of Livy; that of Redaw; of the philosopher and poet Speroni; of the marchioness of Obizzi, killed, anno 1661, on account of her chastity; of the chaste Paduan lady Bianco de Rossi, murdered on the grave of her husband by the voluptuous Ezzelin; and over the door is an inscription of the celebrated philosopher and physician Peter of Abano. Of peculiar value are the many paintings *al fresco*, of which the uppermost row alone contains 319. Near the town-house is the palace of the *podesta*, or chief-justice of the city, and remarkable on account of its pending saloon of the Doric order in the second story, and of its good paintings. The palace of the commandant, built in the Ionic and Corinthian orders, with a large portal of the Doric order, by Falconetto, is a master-piece of architecture; its front was begun in 1599, by the commandant Auton Priuli, and completed, anno 1605, under Stephen Viario. The turret above the portal contains a clock of curious workmanship, made in the year 1428;

which points out, besides the hour of the day, the days of the month, the motion of the sun through the signs of the zodiac, and the aspects of the moon. The inside of the palace displays great magnificence and convenience; it has fine paintings, and a public library, placed in a large saloon, called the Giant's Hall. At the entrance of the court-yard, near the church-yard of the dome, stands the splendid triumphal arch, erected in honour of the commandant Alvise Valeresio, for having rendered signal services to the city during the plague in the year 1631. It was built by the statuary and architect John Baptist della Scala. Close to the palace of the commandant are the public institutions for advancing money on pledges, which were founded by Vincenzo Datto, a nobleman and mathematician of Padua, and are supposed to be the most ancient in Italy. The front of this edifice was completed in 1618; the portal is adorned with four Doric pillars, and the superior part of the building embellished with as many, but of the Composite order. The above public institutions were erected in 1491, which occasioned twelve pawnbrokers' shops, kept by Jews, to be shut up, since the former demanded only five per cent. interest, while the latter exacted twenty. In the Lord's Square, as it is called, stands the lodge or council-hall, with two staircases of marble; it was begun to be built, 1494, after a model of the architect Alexander Bassano, and the whole was finished in 1761; it contains several good paintings.

The college, or university, built in a noble style by Sansovino and Palladio, during the years 1493 and 1552, at the expense of the Venetian government, goes also by the appellation of *Il Bo*, on account of an inn that stood here formerly with the sign of a bullock; it contains many statues and coats of arms of celebrated persons. This university, which formerly enjoyed great celebrity, was founded by the emperor Frederic II. during his disagreement with the pope. From a *lyceum*, which it was in the year 1020, it enjoyed great repute till 1200; and the said emperor erected it, 1222, into an university, and endowed it with all the privileges formerly enjoyed by the university of Bologna, together with other immunities. In the year 1260, the university became a separate body, entirely distinct from the burghers of the town, and governed itself according to its peculiar statutes; obtaining in 1262 the confirmation of pope Urban IV. and in the year 1345 that of pope Clemens. It is indebted for its rapid progress, during the period from 1308 to 1404, to the prince of Carara, its former sovereign; in the last-mentioned year it came under the Venetian dominion. Its new sovereigns studied unremittingly its welfare, appointing the most celebrated professors, and augmenting the various salaries; so that the university dates its golden age from this period. The number of students frequently amounted to 8000; they formed forty different countrymanships, among which the German, French, English, Polish, and Greek, were the most numerous, and enjoyed peculiar prerogatives, which in part still exist. This university has at all times formed celebrated men; and among its scholars are to be numbered Plutarch, Galileo, and Columbus: we may also mention Gabriel Fallopius, who, in 1551, was professor of anatomy and surgery of this place, well known from the discovery he made of the *tube Fallopiana*. See vol. vii. Since the year 1722 this university has been on the decline; the number of students at present amounts scarcely to 600, among whom are several Jews, Turks, and Greeks, studying physic. The salaries of the professors are rated at from 300 to 2000 silver ducats per annum, and all the lectures are given gratis; it is however to be lamented that the vacations last near six months. The anatomical theatre was built in 1594, in the form of an inverted cone, after the plan of Fra Paolo Sarpi. It may contain 600 persons, seated on benches, placed in the form of an amphitheatre, so that they are able clearly to discern the operations of the professors. The instruments belonging to experimental philosophy, collected by the celebrated mathematician mar-

quis John Polani, are as complete as any in Europe; but the cabinet of natural history, presented to the academy by Valisneri, is of little importance. The school for midwifery, founded by D. Aloysius Calza, of Bologna, which is enriched with all the anatomical preparations, &c. of John Baptist Morgagni, may be classed among the first institutions of that kind. The botanical garden is not very spacious, but situated on an agreeable spot, between the churches del Santo and St. Justina, on a small rivulet. It has a circular form, 250 feet in diameter, and contains a most complete collection of plants, both indigenous and exotic; it was laid-out anno 1545, after a plan of the architect Andrew Riccio, and was the first botanical garden in Europe. An observatory has been lately erected for the benefit of astronomy, on the tower of the *old citadel*, which is 130 feet high, and was formerly the residence of the noted tyrant Ezzelin. Near this observatory is the new school for civil architecture, for the instruction of carpenters, masons, and statuarys, the most diligent and skilful of whom obtained annually from the old government a gold prize-medal of the value of four zechins. The chemical laboratory, with an auditory belonging to it, was established at the expense of the Venetian government, by the learned count Mark Carban, of Cephalonia. A public school of agriculture, with a very extensive garden, situated near the convent of hermits, for the purpose of making new experiments, was instituted in 1761. The academy of sciences, founded as early as the year 1520, was publicly and solemnly confirmed in the year 1779, under the title of *Accademia della Scienze, Lettere, et Arti, di Padova*. The seminary generally known by the name of *Accademia Delia*, is entirely of a military nature: it owes its origin to the commandant of Padua, Peter Duodo. Its emblem is the isle of Delos, with the motto, *Nunc tandem immota*. The academicians must all belong to the nobility of Padua, and their number not exceed sixty; but the academy, at present, is on the decline, and has not even a professor of mathematics and military architecture. The new theatre is remarkable partly on account of its great size and masterly architecture, and partly on account of its excellent and convenient disposition, decorations, and paintings. It was built by the architect John Gloria, and opened for the first time in the year 1751. Operas are most frequently given here in the summer-season; for it is as lively here at this season as it is in winter at Venice, to which place the opulent of Padua resort during the winter. A great number of the rich and principal inhabitants of Upper Italy visit Padua during the fair, which lasts three weeks, beginning on St. Anthony's-day, in the middle of June.

Among the principal buildings, including ninety-six churches, twenty-two monasteries, twenty-three nunneries, sixteen hospitals, and several other public oratories and charitable corporations, the following deserve peculiar notice; viz. The metropolitan church, which, from the year 1524 until 1754 has gradually obtained its present form, contains some good paintings by Giotto (the restorer of the art of painting), by Campagnola, Palma the younger, Bassano, &c. Divine service is performed in this church by twenty-seven noble canons, twelve noble sub-canons, and other inferior ecclesiastics; its revenues amount to upwards of 100,000 scudi. The library of the canons contains a number of rare editions and good manuscripts. The great and rich church of St. Anthony of Padua, commonly called *Il Santo*, was built with from six to eight small domes or cupolas, in the Gothic style, by the celebrated architect Niccolo of Pisa. It is indeed only the second in rank; but, considering its tutelary saint, who is the patron of the city, its riches, its numerous paintings and sculpture, with which it is rather encumbered than adorned, it may be classed among the most magnificent churches, not of this town only, but of all Italy. In the church we notice the chapels del Santissimo, of St. Anthony, and of the apostle Jacob, &c. Farther, the bronze girandole eleven feet high, standing

upon a pedestal of white marble four feet high, and containing a universal collection of sculpture; it was completed in a space of ten years by the architect and sculptor Andrew Riccio, who obtained for it 3720 Venetian liras. It has likewise splendid altars and monuments; and in the church-square stands the statue of the celebrated Venetian general Erasmus de Narni, called Gattamelata, on horseback, and deserves peculiar attention. This statue, which the state caused to be erected in honour of the general for his eminent services, stands on a pedestal of bronze, and is the work of Donatello, an artist of Florence.

The school of St. Anthony, as it is called, contains some elegant paintings *al fresco* by Titian. The next in rank, but superior with regard to architecture, is the church of Santa Justina, which belongs to the nuns of the order of St. Benedict, and was built by Andrew Riccio, properly called Andrew Crispus Brionius. In the year 1501 the old building began to be demolished; and in 1515 the foundation of the present church was laid. Interior magnificence has been united with noble simplicity; and, notwithstanding the brilliancy of its external ornaments of metal, paintings, and sculpture, yet the main purpose of the whole, and the character of a sanctuary of the Divinity, have not been lost sight of; so that at the entrance of this fabric no confusion of objects obstructs a general survey of its structure. It is 368 feet in length, 252 in breadth, and 133 feet high. Exclusively of all this, it possesses a whole well of very profitable jewels, namely, the bones of martyrs who were executed in the square before the church; and of these jewels the French did not think proper to rob them; nor, of course, have their new masters, the Austrians. Among these precious relics are to be reckoned the supposed or pretended corpses of the evangelist Luke and the apostle Matthew. Equally splendid and tasteful are the abbey of the Benedictines, and the convent, with its six court-yards, provided with covered passages and colonnades. This building possesses also paintings of great value. The library contains upwards of 52,000 volumes, and is remarkable for its elegant saloon, and sculpture in wood; yet the monks visit it by far less frequently than they do their cellars, which are filled with the choicest wines. In the above-mentioned church-square, which contains four fields, the fair is kept, together with horse-races and a market for cattle. It is all round adorned with statues of celebrated personages, natives of Padua. The church of the Hermits of St. Austin was the first in Padua; it was roofed with tiles in the year 1306. This church possesses a real treasure in paintings by the greatest masters; viz. by Guido Reni, Femicelli, Treviso, Stephen dall'Arzere, Guariento, Andrea Mantegna, Niccolo Pizzolodi, &c. The monks of this church possess a good library, consisting chiefly of rare manuscripts. The church St. Annunziata nell'Arena was painted entirely *al fresco*, about the year 1306, by Angelotto, under the direction of Dante the poet, who at that time arrived in Padua. In the spacious and oval area before the church stands the elegant palace of the Venetian family Foscari, the outer walls of which are the remains of an ancient amphitheatre. The church of the Dominicans is extremely ill built, but possesses some valuable paintings and sculpture. Farther, the churches of St. Andrew, of St. Giorgio nel Cimiterio di St. Antonio, of St. Sebastian, of St. Battista dalle Nani, of St. Giovanni di Verdara, appertaining to the knights of Malta, of Santa Magdalena, of St. Massino, the church of the seminary Santa Maria di Vanzo, the convent St. Francisko, the church of St. Michael, and that of the association of St. Rocco, all contain valuable remains of excellent paintings. But the house Camillo, in the parish of St. Daniel, possesses the most important collection of paintings in Padua. The library of the Olivetan convent, near St. Benedetto Novello, is remarkable only for having been founded by the poet Tasso.

Of the seven gates of the town, three only, which were built

built at the expense of the republic of Venice, deserve to be noticed, on account of their elegance, and the resemblance they bear to triumphal arches; namely, the gate of St. John, on the road to Vicenza, which was built by the architect John Maria Falconetta, and is adorned externally with four Corinthian pillars, and towards the town with as many pilasters; the Porta Savanarola, by the same, is of the Composite order, has four pillars, and a double attic foundation; and, lastly, the Portello, on the road to Venice, which is the neatest of all, and built by an unknown architect. Its external front consists of eight double-fluted columns of the Composite order.

The number of the inhabitants of this fine city is estimated at 40,000; they are in general poor, from a propensity to indolence and begging. The usual professions are very sluggishly carried on; and the sail-cloth manufacture, which was so celebrated through all Italy for the goodness and strength of its fabric, is at present but very indifferent. Commerce, which, if carried on with more activity, might, on account of the Anthony-fair, become important, is at present of no consideration, and almost entirely in the hands of the Jews. Padua is twenty-two miles west of Venice, and fifty east-north-east of Mantua. Lat. 45. 24. N. lon. 10. 52. E.

PADUAN', a country of Italy, bounded on the north by the Trevisan, on the east by the dogado of Venice, on the south by the Polesino, and on the west by the Vicentin; about thirty-five miles from north to south, and twenty-eight from east to west; and including the above splendid city. The air is wholesome and pure, except the few places situated near the salt-marshes. The greatest part of the soil is flat; and even the mountains bear a closer resemblance to hillocks than mountains, and produce grapes of excellent flavour, oranges, and other fruit. Exclusive of corn, hemp, rice, lemons, oranges, figs, dates, peaches, melons, artichokes, spinach, and all kinds of vegetables; the whole face of the country is chiefly planted with vines; which, according to the Italian custom, wind round the willows, elms, poplars, &c. and are also planted along the walks, reaching in the form of garlands from one tree to another, and serve as borders to the corn-fields. Farther we find here numerous commons for the breeding of cattle, and an abundance of mulberry-trees for the culture of silk, the trade of which is very considerable. In short, this country may with justice be termed a second Paradise, and the garden of Europe. The inhabitants of the Paduan are 300,000 in number; and the four rivers, viz. the Adige, Brenta, Bachiglione, and Musona, notwithstanding their overflowing their banks, subjecting the inhabitants to great losses, yet contribute much to the flourishing condition of this country, as they greatly promote navigation and commerce, and drive a great number of mills. In 1405, this country came under the dominion of Venice; and was afterwards declared, by the peace of Bologna, in 1529, to belong *for ever* to this state. The French republicans, however, unsettled many of these everlasting treaties; and, in 1797, the Paduan was given by them to the emperor, and became a part of Maritime Austria; in the year 1805, this territory was resumed by the French, when Napoleon became Emperor of France and King of Italy. By the late peace, 1815, it has been restored to Austria. The chief places, after Padua, are—Anguillara, Arquà, Campo St. Pietro, Cittadella, Este, and Montefelice. *Oppenheim's Hist. of Maritime Austria*, 1798. *Eustace's Classical Tour in Italy*, 1813.

PADUAN, *f.* Among medalists, a modern medal made in imitation of the antique; or a new medal struck with all the marks and characters of antiquity. The name is taken from *Paduan*, *Paduanus*, a famous Italian, who succeeded so well in the imposture, if it may be so called, that the best judges are at a loss to distinguish his medals from the genuine ones. This Paduan was thus called from the place of his birth, Padua: his proper name was *Giovanni Cavino*; others say, *Louis Le*; he flourished in the seventeenth century. See the article *ΜΕΔΑΛ.* vol. xiv. p. 828.

PADUANINO, an Italian painter, whose real name was DARIO VAROTORI, but he is better known under the one by which we have designated him. He was born at Verona in 1539; and, at first, attached himself to the study of architecture, but afterwards received instructions in painting from Paul Veronese, and became a very skilful artist. His fame rests principally upon the pictures he painted for the churches in Venice and in Padua, whence his name; but there are many very graceful and agreeable productions of his, upon a smaller scale, scattered about, and some few are found in this country. They indicate a lively and brilliant genius; and exhibit the gay effect of the Venetian style, which he adopted in a pleasing manner. He was renowned for his piety as well as for his ingenuity; and, in the act of returning thanks at the shrine of the Virgin, in Padua, for having been miraculously preserved when a scaffold had broken and fell with him, he was smitten with apoplexy, and died at the age of fifty-seven, anno 1596.

He left a son, ALEXANDER VAROTORI, called also *Paduanino*, who was not so successful as his father, though he was not without merit. He died in 1650, at the age of sixty.—A daughter also of Dario's excelled in portraiture. Her name was *Chiari*, and she is highly praised by Rodolfi.

PADUASOY', *f.* [*Padou de soye*, Fr.] A kind of stuff made originally, it is supposed, at Padua, and composed of nearly equal parts of cotton and silk.—He was dressed that day in as high a style as the clerical function will allow; in a *paduasoy* gown, square velvet cap. *Sheridan's Life of Swift*.

PAD'ULA, a town of Naples, in the province of Otranto: four miles north of Nardo.

PAD'ULA, a town of Naples; in the Principato Citra: fourteen miles north of Policastro.

PA'DUS, *f.* in botany. See PRUNUS and SIBEROSYLON. PA'DUS, in ancient geography, a river often called *Eridanus*, especially by the Greeks. It is famous for the fable of Phaeton (Ovid). It rises in Mount Vesulus, in the Alps Cothice, from three springs, dividing the Cisalpine Gaul into the Transpadana and Cispadana, (Strabo); and, swelled by other rivers falling into it, on each side, from the Alps and Appennines, it discharges itself with a course from west to east, at seven mouths, into the Adriatic. The lake through which it discharges itself into the sea, is called by the natives the *Seven Seas*. The origin of the name has been traced by etymologists to a corruption of the Celtic *boden*, whose root is *bod*, or *pot*, and refers to its height and depth. According to Pliny it received thirty rivers; but Cluvier reckons as many as forty; under which number they must have comprehended many torrents which become dry in summer. It is now called the *Po*.

PADU'SA, the most southern mouth of the Po, considered by some writers as the Po itself. It was said to abound in swans; and from it there was a cut to the town of Ravenna. *Lempriere's Classical Dict.*

PADU'TI, a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra: four miles east of Rosano.

PÆ'AN, *f.* [from the Gr. *παῖναι*, to praise, or *παινέω*, to cure.] A hymn in honour of Apollo, either as a song of praise for a victory by his means, or addressed to him as the inventor and patron of the healing art. But the word has been generalized, and applied to any hymn in honour of the gods. The acclamation *Io*, which generally accompanied *Pæan* as the burden of the song, means *Jupiter*, *Io Pater*; an abbreviation of the tetragrammaton *יהוה*, *Jehovah*. *MS. Gleanings in Etymology*, communicated by the Author.

O may I live to hail the glorious day,
And sing loud *pæans* through the crowded way. *Rosecommon.*
See from each clime the learn'd their incense bring;
Hear in all tongues consenting *pæans* ring. *Pope.*

PÆAN, or Pæon, is also a name of a foot in the ancient poetry;

poetry; so called, as commonly supposed, because appropriated to the hymn *Pæan*; though Quintilian derives the name from its inventor *Pæon*, a physician.—There were four kinds of feet called *pæans*. The first consists of four syllables, one of which is long, and the rest short, as *colligere*; the second is composed of a short, a long, and two shorts, as *resolvere*; the third, of two long, a short, and a long, as *communeant*; and the fourth, of three short and one long, as *temeritas*. *Chambers*.

PÆCIIA, *f.* in ichthyology, a name given by Schoeneveldt to the *Cobitis fossilis*.

PÆDARETUS, a Spartan who, on not being elected in the number of the 300 sent on an expedition, &c. declared, that, instead of being mortified, he rejoiced that 300 men better than himself could be found in Sparta. *Plutarch*.

PÆDERIA, *f.* [so called by Linnæus from *pæderos*, an opal, in allusion to the transparency and changeable colour of its berry.] *OPAL-BERRY*; in botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of contortæ, (rubiacæ, *Juss.*) Generic characters—Calyx: perianthium one-leaved, turbinate, five-toothed, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled, funnel-form, hirsute within; border five-parted, small. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, very short, from the middle of the tube; antheræ oblong, shorter than the corolla. Pistillum: germen roundish; style capillary, bifid, the length of the corolla; stigmas simple. Pericarpium: berry brittle, ovate, inflated. Seeds: two, ovate.—*Essential Character*. Contorted; berry void, brittle, two-seeded; style bifid. There are two distinct species.

1. *Pæderia foetida*, or stinking opal-berry: stamens included. Stem twining, filiform, smooth, and even. Leaves opposite, petioled, cordate, acuminate, quite entire, nerved, spreading a little, paler underneath, an inch long, very smooth, and even. When the plant is young the leaves are lanceolate; but, in its more advanced state, they are ovate. Flowers axillary, in brachiate panicles, coming out successively. Calyx superior, smooth; segments acute, erect, several times shorter than the corolla. Tube of the corolla inflated, white-tomentose on the outside, within purple, white-villose at top. Fruit, a berry crowned with the calyx, globular, when unripe green, very smooth and brittle, commonly two-celled, sometimes, but rarely, three-celled. Seeds two or three. Frequently the calyx is seven-leaved, and the corolla seven-cleft; sometimes the calyx is six-leaved. It is now-and-then found with seven stamens. In drying the plant turns black. It is a native of China, the East Indies, and the island of Mauritius. It is a climbing shrub, with long, smooth, slender, twining, compound, leafy branches, spreading to a great extent over the neighbouring bushes and trees. Rumphius says the leaves are very foetid when rubbed, or when the sun shines upon them, insomuch that those who pass by where the plant grows are greatly annoyed with the smell. This plant is said to have been brought to Kew in 1806, but has not yet flowered. One of Linnæus's specimens from China, on which the shining berries, though dried, are very beautiful, has heart-shaped leaves, exactly like Kämpfer's plate, with very downy stalks both to the leaves and flower. Most specimens accord with the figures of Rumphius and Lamarck; yet we do not see sufficient grounds to distinguish theirs, as a species, from that of Kämpfer.

2. *Pæderia fragrans*, or fragrant opal-berry: stamens not included; leaves elliptical; panicles corymbose; germen downy; tube of the corolla smooth. Gathered in woods in the island of Mauritius by Commerçon, who, taking it for a new genus, named it *Danais*, in allusion to the history of the Danaides, who murdered their husbands; "because," says he, "where the flowers of this plant are luxuriant, the male or the female organs are rendered abortive." This is abundantly distinct from the first species, in its more-elliptical and brighter-coloured leaves; but more especially in its corymbose downy panicles.

downy germen and calyx, and longer more-slender corolla, whose tube is quite smooth, even though the limb be sometimes slightly hairy at the back. The flowers are said to have the scent of a Narcissus, but even more delightful; their colour is red.

PÆDEROTA, *f.* [derivation unknown.] In botany, a genus of the class diandria, order monogynia, natural order of perfonatæ, (scrophulariæ, *Juss.*) Generic characters—Calyx: perianthium five-parted; leaflets linear, equal, spreading, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled, somewhat wheel-shaped, four-cleft, blunt; upper lobe wider, generally emarginate. Stamina: filaments two, filiform, ascending, shorter than the corolla; antheræ converging, ovate, acute, two-valved. Pistillum: germen ovate; style awl-shaped, bent down, the length of the stamens, permanent. Pericarpium: capsule ovate, longer than the calyx, two-celled, opening at top. Seeds: very many, roundish.—*Essential Character*. Corolla four-cleft; calyx five-parted; capsule two-celled. There are three species.

1. *Pæderota Ageria*: leaves ovate-acuminate; helmet of the corollas bifid. Stems simple; the lower leaves alternate, dry, wrinkled, not shining; helmet bifid and entire, ascending. Native of Italy and Carniola. It has the trivial name from Agerius, who first found it near Vicenza.

2. *Pæderota Bonarota*: leaves roundish-ovate; helmet of the corollas entire. Root branched, fibrous, perennial. Stems round, simple, villose, erect. Leaves opposite, acutely-serrate. Corolla yellow, four lines in length, with the lip equally trifid. The cells of the capsule separate in such a manner, that they might be taken for two capsules, if it were not for the single receptacle. Seeds rufous, twenty-five at most in a cell.

3. Micheli's No 2. t. 15. f. 2. with a rounder leaf, is a variety of this. Scopoli has given eight varieties. These are natives of the mountains of Austria, Carniola, and Italy. Micheli named these plants *Bonarota*, from Filippo Bonarota, senator of Florence, fellow of the Botanic Academy there, &c.

3. *Pæderota minima*, a doubtful species: leaves oblong, entire, opposite: flowers axillary, opposite; teeth of the calyxes hirsute within. This has the appearance of *Elatine* hydropiper. Stems an inch and a half high, seldom branched, rooting at the base. Leaves blunt, quite entire, naked. Flowers sessile, solitary. Calyx five-cornered, bell-shaped, with the teeth hirsute within. Native of the East Indies, where it was found by Koenig, on whose authority it is placed in this genus.

4. *Pæderota racemosa*. See *HEMIMERIS montana*.

PÆDO-BAPTISM, *f.* [from the Gr. *païs*, *παῖς*, infant, and baptism.] Infant-baptism, or that conferred on children. Hence,

PÆDO-BAPTISTS are those who maintain that baptism should be administered to infants, as practised in the church of England. In support of this opinion, they plead, that if infants, under the Christian dispensation, were excluded from the privilege of baptism, the Christian institution must appear, in this respect, to be less complete and perfect than that of the Jews; and it is not likely, by arguing *a priori*, that God would appoint an external sign of peculiar distinction and benefit for children under the patriarchal and Jewish constitution, without any similar appointment under the Christian dispensation, more especially as the first proselytes to Christianity, and those in particular who were converted from among the Jews, would naturally expect some token of distinction and privilege, comprehending their children, and resembling in its design, though milder in its nature, that which Christianity had abrogated. This expectation was farther encouraged by the very condescending and affectionate manner in which our Lord expresses himself concerning infants; particularly when he says, Mark x. 14. *Of such is the kingdom of God*; which some understand to signify, that the rights and privileges of the Christian church belong to such.

Mr. Wall has endeavoured to show, from the books of

the Jews themselves, and those of others that understood the Jewish customs, and have written concerning them, that it was the custom of the Jews before our Saviour's time, (and, as they affirm, from the beginning of their law,) to baptise as well as circumcise any proselyte that joined them from other nations, and with him, at his desire, his infant children likewise. Moreover, the advocates for infant-baptism urge more directly the argument from circumcision after this manner: The covenant made with Abraham was a covenant of grace, by which spiritual and eternal blessings were promised to him; (see Matt. xxii. 31, 32. Heb. xi. 6. Rom. iv. 11-17. Gal. iii. 6-18, 29.) and, as such, comprehended both Jews and Gentiles, and their seed. Circumcision was instituted by God as a token of that covenant, and, as such, he commanded that it should be administered to the infant offspring of his covenant-people. Gen. xvii. 1-4. And yet, though the covenant endureth, that ancient token of it is abolished; nor is there any external sign or seal of it, under the Christian dispensation, except baptism. We have, therefore, reason to think, that this ordinance was intended to succeed circumcision, as it resembles it in many respects, and seems to be called the *circumcision of Christ*, by the apostle Paul, Col. ii. 11, 12. And, inasmuch as circumcision was administered to infants, in token of this covenant, baptism, being its substitute and antitype, ought to be administered to infants likewise. Consult *Acts* ii. 39. *Rom.* xi. 17, &c.

The Pædo-baptists acknowledge that there is no direct and express command to baptise infants; but, appealing to the history of the administration of baptism, they apprehend, that they have been able to trace such intimations at least of infant-baptism, in the earliest ages of the church, as may, to a high degree of probability, prove it to be an apostolic, and consequently divine, institution.

Tertullian, about one hundred years after the apostles, though he advises parents to defer baptising their children, except when their lives were in danger, speaks of the practice as generally received and observed in his time. Cyprian, about one hundred and fifty years after the apostles, is allowed by all to speak expressly of infant-baptism as generally used in the church; and there are many passages that expressly refer to infant-baptism in the works of Origen, who was born of Christian parents; and, as his father was martyred in the year 202, when he was seventeen years old, the remoter Christians of his family must have been nearly contemporary with the apostles. In the Apostolic Constitutions also, which are allowed to be very ancient, express mention occurs of infant-baptism, as commanded by Christ.

Such are the arguments in favour of infant-baptism. See, on the other side, the article ANABAPTISTS, vol. i. and BAPTISM, and BAPTISTS, vol. ii. See also, on this subject, Wall's History of Infant-Baptism, 4to. Wall's Defence of the History against Gale, &c. 8vo. Towgood's Baptism of Infants, a reasonable Service. Fleming's Plea for Infants, &c.

PÆDO'PEIA, *f.* [from the Gr. *παις*, a child.] That part of physic which prescribes the proper management of children.

PÆDOTHYS'IA, *f.* [Greek.] An inhuman custom, that prevailed amongst the ancient heathens, of sacrificing their children. Thus it is related in the Scriptures, that the king of Moab, being besieged by the Israelites in his capital, and reduced to great straits, took his eldest son, that should have reigned in his stead, and offered him for a burnt-offering upon the wall; on which the siege was raised. 2 *Kings* iii. 27. From Phœnicia this cruel practice passed into Europe and Africa, and spread itself far and wide; and it is reported that the Mexicans are at present guilty of it.

PÆMA'NI, a people of Belgic Gaul, supposed to dwell in the present country at the west of Luxemburg.

PÆ'NA, in ancient geography, an island of the Atlantic Ocean, west of the province of Tingitana.

PÆNO'E, *f.* in botany, the name of a very large tree which grows in Malabar. The resin, discharged from the root, bark, fruit, and other parts of this tree, when boiled with oil, is used either for a hard or liquid pitch; and is, in the Indian sacrifices, sometimes burnt instead of incense. The kernels of the fruit, when bruised, and, in conjunction with warm water, levigated on a marble, strengthen the stomach, remove a nausea and vomiting, and cure the cholera morbus.

PÆN'ULA, or **PEN'ULA**, *f.* Among the ancient Romans, a thick short close-bodied garment, used for a defence against cold and rain.

PÆ'ON, a celebrated physician, who cured the wounds which the gods received during the Trojan war. From him physicians are sometimes called *pæonii*, and herbs serviceable in medicinal processes *pæonia herba*.

PÆO'NIA, *f.* [so named by the ancients, in memory of Pæon the physician, whom Homer records as having cured Pluto with this herb, when he was wounded by Hercules; but, says Dr. Smith, "we presume its virtues are altogether reserved for such august occasions, they having never been made manifest on any other, as far as we can learn."] The *παιωνία* of Dioscorides evidently appears, by his very particular description, to be our *P. officinalis*. What he distinguishes by the appellation of male and female, are now acknowledged to be two species, though Linnæus considered them as varieties of one.] **PÆONY**; in botany, a genus of the class polyandria, order trigynia, natural order of multifloriqueæ, (ranunculaceæ, *Juss.*) Generic characters—Calyx: perianthium five-leaved, small, permanent; leaflets roundish, concave, reflex, unequal in size and situation. Corolla: petals five, roundish, concave, narrower at the base, spreading, very large. Stamina: filaments numerous (about three hundred), capillary, short; antheræ oblong, quadrangular, erect, four-celled, large. Pistillum: germs two to five, ovate, erect; styles none. Stigmas compressed, oblong, blunt, coloured. Pericarpium: capsules as many, ovate-oblong, spreading and reflex, tomentose, one-celled, one-valved, opening longitudinally inwards. Seeds several, oval, shining, coloured, fastened to the opening future.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-leaved; petals five; styles none; capsule many-seeded.

1. *Pæonia albiflora*, or white-flowered peony: leaves ternate; leaflets lobed, shining; germs in threes, smooth. Root brown, composed of a few cylindrical or fusiform tubers, a span in length, united at top; the flesh white, with little taste. Stem from a radical leafless sheath, two feet high, the thickness of a reed, slender, round, with scarcely-conspicuous grooves descending from each petiole down both sides; green tinged with red, naked at bottom. Leaves alternate, on long round petioles, channelled above. The whole plant is very smooth, and shining. The stem is often three-flowered, with the axils of the upper leaves putting forth long fastigate peduncles. The calyx is raised above the floral leaf on a very short thick peduncle, and is four-leaved; the two outer leaflets narrow, green, acuminate; the two inner broad-concave, subacuminate, pale-red. Petals eight, very large, milk-white, oval, concave. Stamens about a hundred and fifty, with the filaments as well as antheræ yellow. Antheræ oblong, erect, four-grooved. Seeds, when ripe, of a yellowish testaceous colour, and oval-globular.

It differs from the common peony (*P. officinalis*) remarkably: 1. in having the stem more slender, rounder, scarcely grooved, more rigid; whereas, in *P. officinalis*, it is torosely six or seven grooved; 2. in having the leaves larger, biternate, with broader smoother leaflets, shining very much on both surfaces, undivided, with the veins scarcely prominent underneath; whereas, in that, the leaves are subtriquinate or triternate, with the primary leaflets bifid, the lateral ones frequently accompanied by a smaller accessory leaflet; 3. in having the floral leaf more remote; 4. in the colour of the flower, and especially the pleasant smell, like that of Narcissus; 5. in the smoothness

smoothness of the germs; and 6. in having the root and herb more inspid. It also flowers later. Native of Siberia; well known among the Daurians and Mongols, on account of the root, which they boil in their broth, and the seeds, which they grind and put into their tea: they call the plant *djehina*; in Russian it is *marjin koren bjehyi*.

Of this species Messrs. Anderson and Sabine, in the Linn. Transf. vol. xii. and the Hort. Transf. vol. ii. have described several varieties.

α. *P. vestalis*. This variety, obtained by Mr. Sabine from Messrs Lee and Kennedy under the name of *albiflora*, perhaps more common among our gardens than any other, is to be distinguished by its white eight-petalous corolla, rarely and slightly tinged with pink at the base. Cymes of two or three flowers; the middle flower is the strongest, the earliest, and always the shortest. This observation indeed applies to most of the species. Leaves broader, more flat and shining: and these and the stem, together with the petioles, are altogether of a darker hue than most of the others. The stigmas are of a dull yellow.

β. *P. candida*. Mr. Sabine found this variety at Mr. Knight's nursery, in the King's Road, Chelsea. He had it from the Liverpool botanic garden under the name of *sibirica*; but it is not the plant which generally gets that name; and it differs from the foregoing in having its leaves and stalks less of a purple hue, in its disposition to have fewer flowers on the cyme, and in the stigmas being flesh-coloured instead of yellow. The plant, too, seems weaker. The flowers of this as well as the foregoing go off white (a florist's term); but this has rather a greater dash of pink in its opening corolla.

γ. *P. Tatarica*. Mr. Sabine got this variety from Mr. Biggs, who cultivated it in the botanic garden of the late Mr. Swainson of Twickenham. Another plant of the same was presented to him by the late Sir Joseph Banks, whose hands were always extended to promote objects of science. The original, we believe, was imported by the late Mr. Bell of Brentford, to whom we are indebted for the introduction of several pæonies, by means of his correspondence with Pallas. It came from Tartary. Its hue, though darker, a good deal resembles that of *vestalis*; but its flowers are larger, with a greater number of petals, which retain a pale pink colour till they drop. The stigmas are of a pink colour, like those of *candida*.

δ. *P. Sibirica*. Raised from seed by Messrs. Loddiges and sons, and said to come from Siberia through Pallas. Leaves yellowish-green, and flowers quite white even in the bud; is altogether divested of that purple taint in the stalks, leaves, and germens, so observable generally in this species. It also bears the largest flowers.

ε. *P. rubescens*. This plant was purchased by Mr. Ronalds, nurseryman, of Brentford, at the sale of the late Mr. Bell's collection. Sir Abraham Hume has the same plant, and we believe from the same source, under the name of *Tatarica*. This is the most diminutive variety, and with flowers of the darkest colour. The leaves are small, obtuse, concave or channelled on the upper surface.

ζ. *P. uniflora*. Messrs Loddiges had seeds of this plant from Pallas. It is to be distinguished from the other varieties by the narrowness of its leaves, and a disposition to produce only one flower on the stalk; in this particular, however, we doubt its constancy. The petals are white, slightly tinged with pink at their base; stigmas dull-yellow.

η. *P. Whitleji*. This beautiful plant was imported in 1808 from China by Mr. Whitley, nurseryman, of Fulham. The stems are full three feet high; leaves rugose, and less shining than is usual in the species; flowers full double, having the outside petals reddish, and the inside ones pale straw-coloured, the whole becoming nearly white before they drop off, emitting a scent somewhat like that of elder-flowers. It flowers about the middle of June.

θ. *P. Humei*. Introduced by Sir Abraham Hume, bart. from China, through the means of Captain Welsford, in 1810. The largest of all the herbaceous pæonies, the stems sometimes exceeding four feet in height; flowers extremely double, reddish in colour, somewhat similar to the following, but larger and almost scentless. Cymes commonly of three flowers; leaflets broader than any other of the species, much pitted, and rugose.

ι. *P. fragrans*. Introduced from China in 1805 by Sir Joseph Banks. This variety is conspicuous in its upright slender stalks, leaves more pale and narrower than those of the other two double ones, scabrous, and obsoletely-ferrated on the margin. It flowers the latter end of June, the latest of all the pæonies, of a pale rose-colour, giving out an agreeable scent similar to that of the rose. The central petals are longer than the others, and erect.

These varieties are hinted at by Loureiro in his *Flora Cochinchensis*. He states that the pæony is found both wild and cultivated over all the Chinese empire, chiefly in the northern provinces; and concludes, "*Sunt alie multae varietates (fortasse species) quas non vidi.*" We may look for an increase to our acquisitions from that quarter.

2. *Pæonia officinalis*, or common peony: leaves doubly-pinnate, sublobed: leaflets oblong, veined underneath. (See BOTANY Plate VI. fig. 8.) The roots of the common or female peony are composed of several roundish thick knobs or tubers, which hang below each other, fastened with strings: the stalks are green, about two feet and a half high; the leaves are composed of several unequal lobes, which are variously cut into many segments; they are of a paler green than those of the male peony, and are hairy on their under side; the flowers are smaller, and of a deeper purple colour. According to Haller, the root is glandular; the leaves firm, shining, pinnate, with the pinnae pinnate in two pairs, and an odd one at the end; the pinnules ovate-lanceolate, also half-lobed and half three-lobed, confluent with the middle nerve. Stem a foot high, branched. According to Scopoli, the leaves are decomposed; the leaflets lanceolate, acuminate, sessile, decurrent, lobed, and simple.

This is certainly the *παιονία θηλεία*, or female pæony, of Dioscorides, so named, of course, without any idea of the real sexual distinctions in the parts of fructification. He celebrates it as useful in promoting natural discharges when deficient, and restraining some of them when too abundant. The flavour of the root is acrid, bitter, and foetid, and its qualities are reported to be narcotic and dangerous, which we can readily believe.

Native of several parts of Europe, as Switzerland, Dauphiné, Carniola, Piedmont, Silesia; also of Mount Ida, China, and Japan. It was cultivated here in 1562, according to Turner.

Several varieties of the female pæony with double flowers, differing in size and colour, are cultivated in the English gardens. These plants also vary much in different countries. Pallas informs us that the native plant of Mount Caucasus differs considerably from that which is cultivated in gardens. Loureiro mentions some varieties in China, and says that there are many others. Such as are well-defined, and worth notice, are now treated as distinct species, which has increased the number from five to eleven; and the farther additions which have been made to this genus in the Linn. Transf. vol. xii. have augmented them to fourteen. We shall here notice the varieties of this (female) species, as set down in the volume referred to.

α. *P. Sabini*. A few years ago no person knew that a plant of the single-flowered *P. officinalis* existed in this country. Mr. Sabine had the good fortune to discover one in the corner of an old garden at Great Berkhamstead in Hertfordshire, where it possibly had remained undisturbed many years. The flowers are precisely of the same colour with those of the common double-red, but the petals expand a few days earlier. The leaves are less waved.

waved. The petals of all the single-flowered varieties are more inflexed than those of the pubescent species, being formed into the shape of a cup contracted at the mouth. An abundant supply of plants of this variety has been imported from Holland since the peace, not differing materially from Mr. Sabine's plant.

β. *P. rosea*. This variety was observed by Mr. Sabine in the Oxford Botanic Garden along with the plant that follows. We cannot obtain any account of their history: they have in all probability been very old tenants of that garden; perhaps since the days of Morrison, in the latter end of the seventeenth century; nor do they seem to have found their way out of it, till Mr. Sabine was obligingly presented with roots of them by Mr. Professor Williams. This has very broad undulated and obtuse leaflets, of a dark hue, tinged with red on the edges, and with a few slight hairs on the ribs of the under surface. Flowers of a pleasant rose-colour; germens densely tomentose, diverging at the apex. Stem erect, as tall as var. α, flowering a fortnight earlier, about the middle of May.

γ. *P. blanda*. Obtained, as before mentioned, from the Oxford garden. The leaflets of this variety are likewise broad, though less so than the preceding; also much less undulated, and of a peculiarly-pale-green colour for a plant of this species: and, like those of the *rosea*, furnished with a few hairs on the back of the leaf. Stalks spreading; petioles reddish; flowers of same colour, and same time of flowering, as the preceding; germens generally three, upright at first, and finally diverging.

δ. *P. rubra*: double red pæony. To this variety we may apply the words of Besler, "vulgatissima est omnium pæoniarum;" and we may add, without exaggeration, "the most splendid of all flowers." Even the fine double pæonies from China, rich and magnificent as they are, cannot be compared for brilliancy with this common inhabitant of almost every cottager's garden in England. Nothing but its extreme vulgarity, and the extraordinary fecundity of its roots, could have brought this beautiful plant into the neglect it has suffered for a century past. The first account given of it is in the edition of Lobel's *Icones*, 1581. Camerarius writes, in 1588, "id est flore pleno quæ ante paucos annos apud nos est cœpta coli;" from which we may conclude that it was at that time a recent discovery. The gardens of Europe have been enriched with it, therefore, upwards of two centuries.

ε. *P. carnescens*, or double flesh-coloured pæony. This beautiful variety is not of so old an introduction as the preceding. Morrison gives us the first account of it, in 1699. The flower opens of a fine rose-colour, and afterwards becomes pale-flesh; it is not so common as the preceding, but nevertheless is too well known among the gardeners to require any further description.

ζ. *P. albicans*, or double white pæony. Tabernæmontanus records this variety in 1590; it therefore must have come into notice nearly about the same period as the double red. The flower of this bursts forth of a pale-pink, and at length becomes almost quite white; is very common along with the double red in most of the old gardens, from which even neglect and bad treatment will not banish them.

3. *Pæonia corallina*, or entire-leaved pæony: leaves twice ternate; leaflets ovate, undivided. Follicles downy, recurved. Native of the south of Europe. Dr. Sibthorp had wild specimens communicated to him by an apothecary of Zante. It was also discovered in a wild state by Francis Bowcher Wright, esq. in the rocky clefts of the island called Steep Holmes, in the Severn, in August 1803; whence this species has found a place in English botany. Gerard says he found it at Southfleet, Kent, which his editor, Johnson, rudely denies. Rustic gardens often abound with this flower, in its proper single state; the seed-vessels being admired, and long preserved for the decoration of the cottage chimney-piece, on account of

their shining pink inside and black polished seeds, contrasted with the red remains of numerous abortive ones, ranged along the edges.

This is the *πæωνία ἄφρη*, or male pæony, of Dioscorides, whose leaves he compares to those of a walnut-tree; a sufficient indication of their ovate undivided simply-pinnate form, by which the species is clearly distinguishable from the last. The qualities of the two plants probably differ but little.

4. *Pæonia humilis*, or dwarf Spanish pæony: leaves twice ternate; leaflets in three deep linear segments, downy beneath. Follicles hairy, nearly erect. Clusius records this as a native of Spain; Gerard speaks of it as known in the English gardens in his time. Retzius describes the stem a foot and half high, simple, smooth, angular, and green. Leaves in very narrow segments, acute; glaucous above; whiter and downy beneath. Petals of a deeper red than those of *P. corallina*.

5. *Pæonia peregrina*, or crimson-flowered small pæony: leaves twice ternate; leaflets elliptic-oblong, decurrent, lobed; glaucous and hairy beneath; follicles erect, downy. Native, probably, of the south of Europe. It is a plant of much humbler growth, and smaller dimensions, than any of this genus that we have hitherto mentioned; and is essentially distinguished, if we mistake not, by its decurrent leaflets, whose main ribs unite far above the base. The flowers are of an elegant, but not very deep or bright, crimson, scarcely three or four inches in diameter, often double, with linear internal petals, like a double anemone. It appears to be rather of recent introduction among us, and we have some suspicion of its having been brought from Siberia. The flowers are produced in May or early in June; and the roots are quite hardy.

6. *Pæonia Daurica*, or glaucous Daurian pæony: leaves pinnate; leaflets elliptical, obtuse, glaucous, somewhat wavy; stem herbaceous. Native of Siberia, from whence it was procured, in 1790, by the late Mr. Bell. This, like the rest, is a hardy perennial, flowering in May or June. Stem about two feet high. Flowers large and handsome, of a purplish rose-colour, with copious yellow stamens, and two pistils. Follicles ovate, divaricated, downy, about an inch and a half long.

7. *Pæonia laciniata*, or jagged-leaved pæony: leaves biternate; leaflets acutely lacinate; germs smooth. Root tuberous, difform, very large, descending by cylindrical processes a span in length, yellowish without, white within, both fresh and dry, having a very strong smell and taste of bitter almonds or peach-kernels. Root-leaves none, but red awnless sheaths; whence rise the stems, which are several, from eighteen to twenty-seven inches in height, the thickness of the little finger, round, very smooth, alternately and frequently leafy above, without any stipules at the petioles. Leaves on a flat petiole channelled above, almost ternate, but with the partial petioles so margined with the leaf running along them, that they may be called tripartite. The upper leaves towards the flower are gradually larger and less gashed; the last are three-cleft, with the middle segment five-cleft. At the calyx itself are two linear leaflets, bifid or trifid at the tip. Flower nodding a little; the calyx has three lanceolate leaflets, equal to the corolla in length, purple at the base, leafy and reflex at the end; and three inner leaflets ovate-acuminate and concave; corolla handsome, spreading a little, deep rose-coloured, with a slightly vio-rose smell, six-petalled, in gardens frequently seven-petalled; stamens about two hundred and fifty: filaments bristle-shaped, weak, twice as long as the antheræ, which are large, erect, oblong, curved a little, longitudinally four-grooved, abounding very much in a pale-yellow pollen. Germs three or four, very frequently five, conical, smooth, green, with a sessile crescent-shaped reflex purple stigma. Native of all Siberia, in mountainous woods. In the gardens at Peterburgh it flowers sooner than the other species, namely, about the end of May.

The

The root dried is used by the Mongols and some Tartars as sauce for their meat; and Boetcher, an army-surgeon, found it to be useful in intermittent fevers.

8. *Pæonia hybrida*, or mule pæony: leaves ternate-multifid; segments linear; germs three, pubescent. This has nearly the stature of the last, and is much taller than the next. Stem the thickness of a finger, obscurely channelled (which is not in *P. laciniata*), more rigid, naked at bottom, as that is, hence up to the flower leafy, rather more copiously than in the preceding. Petioles above concave-channelled, thicker and stiffer than in *P. laciniata*, trifid. Leaves trichotomous-multifid, linear, the middle trifid, divided into 14—24—14; the lateral ones into 14—22—9, or thereabouts; the uppermost leaves smaller, divided into about eighteen clefts; the floral ones five-cleft and ten-cleft. Calyx sessile; green, with the edge and middle purple. Petals seven, large, wide, less oblong than in *P. laciniata*, but of a deeper red colour between that and *P. tenuifolia*, more coriaceous than in that, and of a more globular figure. Stamens thirty to forty or more, with smaller antheræ, commonly shrivelling and destitute of pollen. Germs three, conical-convex, pubescent, with crescent-shaped, very red, stigmata.

This plant is supposed to have originated in the botanic garden at Petersburg, from the seeds of *P. tenuifolia* sown in the same bed with *P. laciniata*; and it is conjectured to be a mule between them, since it has not ever produced ripe seeds. It occurs of a much smaller size in some parts of Siberia.

9. *Pæonia tenuifolia*, or slender-leaved peony: leaflets linear, many-parted; germs two, tomentose. Root creeping, putting forth tuberous fibres, with tubercles the size of a hazel-nut, white, fleshy, of a bitterish taste. Stem scarcely a foot high, and commonly single, but in the garden eighteen inches high, and several from the same root, but fewer than in *P. laciniata*. Root-leaves none, stem round, very-obscurely grooved, smooth, as is the whole plant, naked at bottom, having there only a few sheathing scales. Leaves frequent, alternate, the upper ones gradually less, on a round petiole, channelled above, quinate: leaflets cut into very-many narrow segments. Flower sessile at the uppermost leaf, subglobular, accompanied by two leaflets, one multifid, the other simple, both dilated at the base. Calyx five-leaved; leaflets concave-gibbous, two of them exterior and acuminate. Petals eight, spreading, oval, very-deep red. Stamens about a hundred and twenty, with pale filaments, and erect, oblong, deep-yellow, antheræ. Germs two or three, conical, villose, with a crested, reflex, vertically-flat, rose-coloured, stigma. Capsules, in the wild plant, commonly two, in the gardens three, ovate-oblong, tomentose, red, when they open reflex and spreading, coriaceous. Seeds oblong, first yellow, then brown, about six in number, fastened to the opening suture. Native of Ukraine. Introduced in 1765 by Mr. William Malcolm.

10. *Pæonia moutan*, Chinese tree-pæony, or moutan: stem woody, perennial; leaflets oblong-ovate; glaucous and somewhat hairy beneath; the terminal one three-lobed; germens numerous, distinct. Native of China, where it is one of the most favourite objects of horticulture, as may be seen by the paper-hangings, screens, porcelain, and other ornamental productions of art, brought from that country. It is depicted on such with double blossoms, either of a rose-colour, crimson, purple, white, or even of a golden-yellow. The first only has been introduced into this country, by sir Joseph Banks, in 1789. Collectors who have had means of communication with China, particularly the late Charles Greville, and sir Abraham Hume, have anxiously endeavoured to obtain some of the other varieties, but in vain; except that the gentleman last-mentioned procured a shrubby pæony with a single flower, more beautiful than the double, of which we shall presently speak as a distinct species. The moutan proves tolerably hardy in England, though, like many other plants from the same country which blossom

early in our spring, it requires the protection of a glass frame at that season. The shrubby stem is peculiar to this and the next species, among all those hitherto known, and forms a large bush, spreading several feet in diameter. Leaves on long stalks, alternate, large, and spreading, twice or thrice ternate in an opposite manner, deciduous; their leaflets tapering at the base, acute, entire, occasionally lobed, veiny; glaucous and very sparingly hairy beneath; the terminal ones three-lobed. The scales of the leaf-buds are pale-crimson. Flowers terminating the branches, solitary, six or eight inches broad, known to us in a very double state only, consisting of innumerable jagged rose-coloured petals, with a few stamens, with yellow antheræ, remaining unchanged, and a greater or less number of germens, all separate and distinct. The smell of the flower is generally unpleasant; but a sweet-scented variety, of the same colour, is cultivated by Messrs. Lee and Kennedy.

11. *Pæonia papaveracea*, or poppy-fruited pæony: stem woody, perennial; leaflets oblong-ovate; glaucous and slightly hairy beneath; the terminal one three-lobed; germens about six, closely combined into a globe. This blossomed in 1808 in the fine collection of the late lady Amelia Hume, at Wormleybury, having been introduced a year or two before from China. It differs in no respect as to stem and foliage from the preceding. The flowers however differ, in being nearly single, with scarcely more than five petals, which are very large, white or blush-coloured, with a large purple spot at the base of each, vying with the beauty of a gum cistus. The stamens also are copious and all perfect. But the most remarkable difference exists in the pistil, which consists of six germens, rarely more, all closely compressed together into a globe, like a poppy-head, and even enveloped in one common integument. The appropriate number of stigmas, one to each germen or cell, crowns this globe. Whether this can possibly be a variety, is doubtful. Dr. Sims is induced to consider it, if natural, as amounting to a generic distinction.

12. *Pæonia decora*, or handsome pæony: leaflets tripartite-lacinate, oblong-obtuse, hairy beneath; stigmas bent back. This and the two succeeding species are nearly allied to each other: it is, however, frequently a much easier task to determine a species than to describe it.

Our present plant we do not hesitate to refer to that which Clusius obtained from Constantinople; as the description which he and the succeeding writers give of it agrees with ours, and it also comes from the same quarter. It is remarkable for the elegant stateliness of its habit. Each stalk, accompanied by its horizontal leaves, diminishing as they ascend, and terminated by its flower, (which is rather smaller than is usual in the genus,) supported on a long peduncle, exhibits somewhat of a pyramidal figure. Its leaflets are constantly more or less longitudinally inflexed or concave: in this respect it resembles the *P. humilis*, but differs from it in the leaflets being broad and obtuse. The foliicles are less pubescent than those of the two following species, but more so than those of the preceding; they are very large, and at maturity diverge widely, but do not become so much recurved as those of *P. arietina*. We have only observed two varieties.

α. *P. Pallasii*: leaflets narrow-oblong. Seeds of this plant were received by Messrs. Lee and Kennedy from Pallas, probably from the Crimea, where he spent the latter years of his life. The name he gave it, if any, has been lost; they called it *byzantina*; its flower has a fine deep-rose colour, in shape and appearance not unlike that of *Papaver somniferum*; the seedlings came up without exhibiting any apparent variation.

β. *P. elatior*: leaflets broad-oblong. First observed in the nursery of Messrs. Chandler and Buckingham, who believe they got it from Holland. It differs from the preceding in the leaves being somewhat broader, and the plant altogether more robust and rather more pubescent; unquestionably a mere variety.

13. *Pæonia arietina*, or ram-headed pæony: leaflets trilobated, pinnatifid, decurrent, long-oval, hairy beneath; follicles rough, spreading out. A large species, the stem being from two feet to two feet and a half high. Its distinguishing characters consist in the leaflets being decurrent, often even confluent, and in the germens being arched and frequently recurved, suggesting a resemblance to rams' horns. It seems to have been well known to the old authors, as will appear in describing the varieties.

α. P. Andersonii: flowers rose-colour. Named by Mr. Sabine, owing to his having obtained it from Mr. A. several years ago. Though not common about London, probably having been banished with contempt for its single flower, it is nevertheless still to be seen in remote parts of the country in the gardens of old baronial mansions: in such situations we knew it many years ago in Aberdeenshire, where it is still to be found under the name of the single pæony, and the only species with single flowers we ever observed in those parts. From analogy we presume it to be a native of the Levant. Its flowers are of a bright but deep rose-colour, resembling most those of *Daurica*; and appear very handsome over its abundant, dark, though glaucous, leaves.

β. P. Oxoniensis: flowers pale flesh-colour. This is probably No. 6. *Ger. Em.* p. 981. as to the description; "in our London gardens bearing flowers of a pale whitish colour, very single, resembling the female wilde peony;" although the figure of No. 6 is that of another species (*humilis*). And, from Parkinson's notice of it, we presume it must have been among the gardens in his days, though no-where to be found three years ago in this country but in the Oxford Botanic Garden, where it seems to have existed unnoticed and unknown since the time of Morison, whose description of it is very satisfactory: "*quam in horto alimus, cujus folia latiuscula lanugine alba utrinque obsita sunt; flores simplices primo emergentes subcarnei, deinde in albos transmutantur.*" Mr. Sabine was indebted to the liberality of Mr. Professor Williams for roots of it from the Oxford botanic garden. From Clusius we learn that this is a native of valleys on the highest mountains in Crete; which its habit confirms, having all that woolly-like softness in its young stalks and leaves so peculiar to the plants of that island. This is among the earliest of pæonies; comes out of the ground of a pale glaucous-green colour, destitute of the ruddy taint so common in the genus. Petals of a beautiful pale bluish-colour, crisp, and lacerated in a greater than usual degree. Follicles almost reflexed when ripe, less woolly and of a lighter colour than those of var. *α*. Roots of a pæony have been imported by Messrs. Chandler and Buckingham from Holland which prove to be this plant. It flowers from the middle to the end of May.

14. *Pæonia mollis*, or soft pæony: leaflets ovate-lanceolate, very woolly and soft beneath; follicles erect. This is an entirely-new species. It was raised by Messrs. Loddiges and sons, of Hackney, from seeds obtained from Pallas, and said to be from Siberia; although, from its appearance, we should rather suspect it to have come from the Crimea, where that respected naturalist spent the latter years of his life. From Messrs. Loddiges it has found its way into the gardens of the curious under the mistaken name of *anomala*. We distinguished it three years ago in Mr. Sabine's collection as a truly-distinct species; and it has been reserved for us (says Mr. Anderson) first to describe it. This plant is at first sight distinguishable from its congeners by its short rigid upright stalks, the dark bluish-green colour of its leaves, which are flat, compact, very much divided, the laciniae crowded, overlapping each other, very woolly on the under-side, nowise bordered with red, as in most of the others, and the lateral leaflets being almost sessile, the exterior side of each disposed to be decurrent. It is the most dwarf of all our species, seldom reaching eighteen inches in height, even in our gardens. The stalks, as well as the primary petioles, are

nearly smooth. The flower is small, of a dark dull purplish red, by no means handsome.

The three last species, which are added by Mr. Anderson, we have described nearly in the words of his "Monograph," in the 12th vol. of the *Linn. Trans.* This was almost the last act of that very useful writer's life; for Mr. Sabine says, in his Postscript, "Two days after the preceding account had been brought to its present state by the diligence and industry of my most valued friend, he was accidentally killed by a fall from a carriage. This melancholy event happened on the 10th of January, 1817, near his own house, at West Ham; and the superintendence of this paper, in consequence of that misfortune, has fallen on me alone: thus the gratification I had enjoyed in assisting him in the composition, and which would have been complete had we been able to see the result of our enquiry placed in the pages of the *Transactions* of the Society, was suddenly destroyed; and that, which would have afforded me so much pleasure, has now been a task accompanied with the most painful recollections."

Propagation and Culture. The male peony is chiefly propagated for the roots, which are used in medicine; for the flowers, being single, do not afford near so much pleasure as those with double flowers, nor will they abide near so long in beauty. All the sorts with double flowers are preserved in gardens for the beauty of their flowers; which, when intermixed with other large growing plants, in the borders of large gardens, will add to the variety; and the flowers are very ornamental in basins or flower-pots, when placed in rooms. They are all extremely hardy, and will grow in almost any soil or situation, which renders them more valuable; for they will thrive under the shade of trees, and, in such places, they will continue much longer in beauty.

They are propagated by parting their roots, which multiply very fast. The best season for transplanting them is towards the end of August, or the beginning of September; for, if they are removed after their roots have shot out new fibres, they seldom flower strong the succeeding summer. In parting these roots, always observe to preserve a bud upon the crown of each offset, otherwise they will come to nothing; nor should you divide the roots too small, (especially if you have regard to their blowing the following year;) for, when their offsets are weak, they many times do not flower the succeeding summer, or at least produce but one flower upon each root; but, where you would multiply them in quantities, you may divide them as small as you please, provided there be a bud to each offset; but then they should be planted in a nursery-bed, for a season or two, to get strength, before they are placed in the flower-garden.

The single sorts may be propagated from seeds (which they generally produce in large quantities, where the flowers are permitted to remain), which should be sown in the autumn, soon after they are ripe, upon a bed of light fresh earth, covering them over, about half an inch thick, with the same light earth. The spring following the plants will come up, when they should be carefully cleared from weeds, and, in very dry weather, refreshed with water, which will greatly forward their growth. In this bed they should remain two years before they are transplanted, observing in autumn, when the leaves are decayed, to spread some fresh rich earth over the beds about an inch thick, and constantly to keep them clear from weeds. When you transplant them, (which should be done in September,) you must prepare some beds of fresh light earth, which should be dug, and well cleaned from the roots of all noxious weeds; then plant the roots therein six inches asunder, and about three inches deep. In these beds they may remain until they flower, after which they may be transplanted where you design they should grow. It is very probable there may be some varieties obtained from the seeds of these plants, as is common in most other flowers; so that those which produce beautiful flowers may be placed in the flower-garden, but
such

such as continue single or ill-coloured may be planted in beds, to propagate for medicinal use.

PÆONIDES, a name given to the daughters of Pierus, (who were defeated by the Muses,) because their mother was a native of Pæonia.

PÆONITES, *f.* A name given by some writers to the stone called by others *pæonites*, and esteemed of great use to women in labour. It seems to have been called *pæonites*, from Pæonia, in Macedonia, where it was found.

PAES, a river of Lapland, which runs into the North Sea in lat. 70. N.

PAESIELLO (John), an eminent Italian musician and composer, was born at Tarento, in the kingdom of Naples, on the 9th of May, 1740. He was particularly noticed in his youth by his sovereign, and afterwards patronised by the principal potentates of Europe. Pensioned by more than one sovereign, he enjoyed an ample fortune. Placed above want from the age of thirteen, and free from all domestic cares, he was enabled to execute a great number of works.

From his early youth he gave way to the fire of his invention, which art could hardly restrain, much less confine to rule. His wildness, however, was never grotesque, ungraceful, crude, wild, or offensive to cultivated ears; but consisted of the most happy flights of fancy, pleasing melodies, and new effects of accompaniment. He at first worked at little dramas in the Neapolitan jargon, so different from good Italian, that it is totally unintelligible to the rest of Italy. He composed for the burletta a comic opera in Italian, as early as 1765, *Amore in Ballo*; and, in 1766, *Le Nozze Turbate*. In 1770, (says Dr. Burney,) we heard at Naples his comic opera called *Le Trame per Amore*, in which, though the singing was but indifferent, and out of nine characters there was not one good voice, yet the music pleased us extremely. The symphony, consisting of only one movement, was truly comic, and contained a perpetual succession of pleasing passages. The airs were full of fire and fancy, the ritornels abounding with new passages, and the vocal parts in elegant and simple melody, such as might be remembered and carried away after the first hearing, or be performed in private by a small band, or even without any other instrument than a harpsichord or pianoforte. From that time he continued improving in his style, both in serious and comic operas; and the public all over Europe was not insensible to his transcendent merit, and he was justly regarded at the head of vocal composition, as Haydn of instrumental. In 1770 he was the only composer in Naples who could make head against the high favour in which Piccini then stood, after his *Buona Figliuola*.

He composed twenty-seven grand operas, fifty-one comic operas, eight intermezzos, and an infinite number of cantatas, oratorios, masses, motets, Te Deums, &c. seven symphonies for the emperor Joseph II. several pieces for the piano, for the queen of Spain; and many theatrical pieces for the court of Russia.

It may be said, that Paësiello invented his style particularly for the comic opera. His principal serious operas are, the *Olympiad*, *Pyrrhus*, *Elfreda*, *Dido*, and *Proserpine*. In the magical kind, what can be more affecting and tender than his celebrated duo in the *Olympiad*? Nothing can be more noble or dignified than his *Pyrrhus*: several fragments of his *Proserpine* are chefs-d'œuvre. The scene where one of the nymphs of Ceres loses her speech at the moment of divulging the secret of the gods, or the Rape of Proserpine, is one of the happiest traits of genius. In another style, what can be more natural or touching than his *Nina*, more picturesque than his *Barber of Seville*, more simple or more naïve than his *Molinara*; or, to conclude, what melody more rich than his *Frascatana*, and his celebrated piece of *King Theodore*.

Fertile in invention, correct in his designs, happy in the choice of his chords, judicious in his accompaniments and images, varied in his melodious turns, and contrasted in his details, yet always keeping in view the strictest unity;

this great master observes the strictest propriety, and never commits an excess. Exact without servility, natural without negligence, at once full of art and simplicity, he is always diversified, and always the same.

Paësiello not only showed himself superior in the serious and comic opera, but also in sacred music. He has left in the library of the king's chapel a collection of twenty-six masses, of which several are master-pieces.

Paësiello was not only a great musician, but possessed a great fund of information: he was well versed in the dead languages, and conversant in all the branches of literature, and on terms of friendship with the most distinguished persons of the age. Endowed with a great mind, and which his eminent talents and the great reputation he enjoyed in Europe raised above all the meaner passions of the soul, he knew neither envy nor rivalry. He died at Naples the 5th of June, 1816, aged seventy-six. That city rendered him funeral honours, in causing to be executed a mass for the dead, found amongst his papers. The same evening his *Nina* was performed at the opera; and the king of Naples, and the whole court, deigned to be present, to display the interest they felt for an illustrious composer, who, for half a century, honoured modern Italy. *Eloge delivered at the Royal Institute, by the Chev. le Sueur, Superintendent of Music to the King of France.*

PÆSTUM, in ancient geography, a town of Lucania, called also *Neptunia* and *Posidonia* by the Greeks, where the soil produced roses which blossomed twice a-year. The ancient walls of the town, about three miles in extent, are still standing, and likewise venerable remains of temples and porticoes. The Sinus Pæstanus, on which it stood, is now called the *Gulf of Salerno*.

PAEZ (Pedro), a man deservedly eminent in the history of the Jesuits and of Abyssinia, was a Castilian, born at Toledo, of a noble family. He entered the society; and, having completed his studies, was sent to India in the year 1588. The Portuguese, in Abyssinia, were at this time without a patriarch, or any spiritual assistant, so difficult was it to introduce them into that kingdom, every entrance into which was in possession of the Turks or Moors. To this mission Paez and P. Antonio de Montferrat were appointed. They were made prisoners on their way, and sent to the court of the king of Xael, by whom they were kindly treated; but, being himself tributary to the pacha of Yemen, and bound by treaty to send him all the Portuguese who might fall into his hands, they were sent to Canaan, the capital, where the pacha resided. At first their captivity was easy; but afterwards they were treated with great barbarity, in hopes that he might obtain a very large ransom for their liberty. At length the viceroy of India obtained their deliverance, upon the payment of a thousand crowns; and they returned to India, where Montferrat soon afterwards died.

Paez was more successful in his second attempt: he entered Abyssinia very safely in 1603; and, instead of busying himself with court-intrigues, and seeking court-favour, he remained quietly among his flock, translating into Abyssinian a Compendium of the Christian Doctrine, which had been written by Marcos George. He instructed some children; and the king of the country, hearing of their proficiency, sent for the master and his scholars to exhibit before him: he was delighted with their performance, and became himself a thorough convert to the Roman-catholic faith; but the zeal which he showed in behalf of the new religion, led to his deposition and untimely death. Other revolutions followed: when things, however, were become quiet, Paez undertook to build a palace at Gorgora, a rocky peninsula on the south side of the lake of Dembea. He was himself architect, mason, smith, and carpenter; and produced a building which was the astonishment of those who beheld it. A spring-lock, which he fixed upon one of the doors, saved the king's life, when an attempt was made to assassinate him. The last triumph which Paez enjoyed, was that of seeing the king put away all his wives except one, and receiving

ceiving his general confession. Having done this, he returned to his convent, saying his *Nunc dimittis*. His release was indeed at hand. Immediately on his arrival he was seized with a fever, and died on the 3d of May, 1622. Mr. Southey adds, "Paez died in time to be spared the mortification of witnessing misconduct and violence on the part of the Jesuits which he could not have prevented, and which ruined the cause of Rome and of civilization in Abyssinia." *Gen. Biog.*

PA'GÆ, in ancient geography, a town of the territory of Megara, situated towards the north, on a small gulf formed by an extension of the Gulf of Corinth, and called *Mare Alcyonium*.

PAGAHM', once a magnificent city of the Birman empire, on the Irawaddy; but now its remains are merely numerous mouldering temples, and the vestiges of an old brick fort, the ramparts of which are still to be traced. The town of Neoundah, about four miles to the north, which may be called a continuation of Pagahm, has flourished in proportion as the latter has decayed. Pagahm is said to have been the residence of forty-five successive monarchs, and was abandoned 500 years ago, in consequence, as it is said, of a divine admonition; but, whatever may be its true history, it was certainly once a place of no ordinary splendour. The temple of Pagahm rises upwards with a heavy breadth almost to the top, and then terminates abruptly in a point, which gives to the buildings a clumsy appearance. Many of the most ancient temples at this place are not solid at the bottom; a well-arched dome supports a ponderous superb structure; within, an image of Gaudma sits enshrined. Four Gothic door-ways open into the dome, in one of which was a human figure standing erect, said to have been Gaudma, and another of the same personage, lying on his right side asleep; both of gigantic structure. These, however, are not the usual attitudes of the divinity; as he is generally depicted sitting cross-legged on a pedestal, adorned with representations of the leaf of the sacred lotus carved upon the base; the left hand of the image rests upon his lap, and the right is pendent. Beyond the suburbs there is a part where the inhabitants are employed in expressing oil from the sesamum-seed: the grain is put into a deep wooden trough, in which it is pressed by an upright timber fixed in a frame; the force is increased by a long lever, on the extremity of which a man sits and guides a bullock that moves in a circle, thus turning and pressing the seed at the same time: the machine was simple, and effectually answered the purpose. Of these mills, there were not less than two hundred within a very narrow compass. From the circumstance of the cattle being in good order, it was concluded that they were fed on the seed after the oil was extracted. The land about Pagahm scarcely yields sufficient vegetation to nourish goats. *Symes's Embassy to Ava*, vol. ii.

PAGALO'AN, a town on the north-west coast of Mindanao.

PAGAME'A, *f.* in botany, a genus consisting of only one species, whose fruit was judged by Jussieu to be not sufficiently ascertained; it belongs to the rubiaceæ of that author. Aublet describes the berry as of two cells, with two seeds, convex on one side, flat on the other, one of them frequently abortive. Each of these seeds, when cut across, is found to have two cells, with a kernel in each cell.

Pagamea Guianensis is a shrub seven or eight feet high, growing on the top of the Serpent-mountain, in Guiana, and bearing flowers, as well as fruit, in August. The branches spread every way, and are knotty, leafy at the extremities. Leaves opposite, in pairs, crossing each other, stalked, lanceolate, pointed, entire, about three inches long, single-ribbed and veiny, smooth and pliant. Flowers in short, loose, axillary, stalked, spikes; corolla white, funnel-shaped, equally four-cleft, downy within. No reason is given for the name, nor any thing said about the qualities or uses of the plant; except that the wood

is hard, and of a yellowish colour. The trunk is only five inches in diameter. *Aublet*, p. 112. t. 44.

PA'GAN, *f.* [paganus, Sax. *paganus*, Lat.] A heathen; one not a Christian.

Baronius derives the word *paganus* from *pagus*, a village; because, when Christians became masters of the cities, the heathens were obliged, by the edicts of Constantine and his sons, to go and live in the country villages, &c. and hence it might, in time, extend to all heathens; or the word might come from *pagus*, in regard the peasants were those who adhered longest to the idolatry of the heathens, as being neglected by the first preachers of Christianity.—Religion did first take place in cities; and in that respect was a cause why the name of *paganus*, which properly signifieth a country people, came to be used in common speech for the same that infidels and unbelievers were. *Hooker's Ecc. Pol.*—But this is mere supposition; for, although the principal cities where the apostles converted the heathens, are mentioned in their *Acts*, and other ancient authors, it does not follow that the villages were left in want of instruction. The case seems to be this: the Latin word *paganus* signifies, properly, "any one who does not bear arms," in opposition to *miles*, a soldier; and hence it is concluded, that the primitive Christians metaphorically applied the word *paganus*, pagans, to all those who were not "soldiers of Christ," *qui non militabant sub vexillo Christi*. Etymological Gleanings, MS.

Salmasius will have the word come from *pagus*, considered as originally signifying *gens*, or nation; whence he observes, we say indifferently, pagans, or gentiles.

PA'GAN, *adj.* Heathenish:

The secret ceremonies I conceal,

Uncouth, perhaps unlawful to reveal;

But such they were as *pagan* use required.

Dryden.

PAGAN' (Peter), a distinguished poet of the sixteenth century, was born at Wanfrid, in Hesse; and, being educated with great care, he exhibited, at an early age, much literary taste, and a particular turn for poetry. In the year 1550 he received the degree of bachelor in philosophy; and he became poet to the emperor Ferdinand. To the study of poetry he joined that of history, and was elected professor of both in the university of Marburg. He died at Wanfrid, on the 29th of May, 1576. Besides many pieces of poetry on miscellaneous subjects, he left "*Historia terginorum Romanorum et Albanorum fragmentum*," in verse, which contained the history of the three Horatii and the three Curiatii.

PAGAN' (Blaise-François, Comte de), an eminent military engineer, was born at Avignon in the year 1604. He entered into the army at twelve years of age, and distinguished himself in a variety of actions. He was patronised by his near relation, the constable de Luynes, whom he had the misfortune to lose at the siege of Montauban, at which he was also deprived of the sight of an eye by a musket-shot. At the passage of the Alps, and the barricades of Suza, he placed himself at the head of a determined band, and, having gained the summit of a steep mountain, he cried out "This is the road to glory," and instantly slid down the mountain; and, being imitated by his men, they arrived first at the barricades and carried them. When the king, Louis XIII. laid siege to Nanci in 1633, Pagan had the honour to attend him in drawing the lines and forts of circumvallation. In 1642 he was sent to the service of Portugal, in the post of field-marshal, and there he had the misfortune to lose his other eye. Though disabled from serving his country in the active duties of a warrior, he was intent upon augmenting its glory, by extending the boundaries of military science. Having from his youth closely applied to mathematical studies, with a particular view to the science of fortification, he now employed the whole force of his active mind in speculations of this kind, and in 1645 published his "*Traité des Fortifications*:" this was regarded as the best work that had ever been written on the subject;

and it is said, that whatever improvements have been made since, have been derived chiefly from this treatise, as conclusions from its principles. In 1651 he published his "Theoremes Geometriques," which show an extensive and deep knowledge of all the parts of the mathematics. In 1655 he published an "Historical and Geographical Account of the River Amazons, extracted from different Writers;" and we are assured, that, though blind, he drew the chart of that river and the parts adjacent. His other works, published in 1657 and 1658, were "Theorie des Planetes;" and "Tables Astronomiques." By the former he cleared the system from that multiplicity of eccentric circles and epicycles, which astronomers had invented to explain their motions. His astronomical tables are reckoned succinct, and very plain. Pagan died at Paris, November 18, 1685. He was devoted to judicial astrology; but what he wrote on this subject is the only thing which detracts from his high character. He had an universal genius; and, having applied himself entirely to the art of war, and particularly to the branch of fortification, he made much progress in it. He understood the deeper branches of the mathematics; and had so fine a genius for these abstruse speculations, that he read but little on the subject, his own fertile mind supplying him with almost every thing that he wanted. All his works were collected and printed in 12mo. in the year 1669. *Moreri.*

PAGAN CREEK, a river of Virginia, which runs into James River in lat. 37. 5. N. lon. 76. 37. W.

PAG'ANAL, *f.* A country wake. *Cole.*

PAGANALIA, *f.* [from *pagus*, Lat. a village.] Certain rural feasts among the ancient Romans; and thus called, because celebrated in villages. In the paganalia, the peasants went in solemn procession all round the village, making lustrations to purify it. They had also their sacrifices, wherein they offered cakes on the altars of the gods.—Halicarnassus and St. Jerome refer the institution of the *paganalia* to Servius Tullius. They were held in the month of February. *Chambers.*

PAGANALIAN, *adj.* Belonging to country wakes. *Cole.*

PAGANICA, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Ultra: eight miles north-north-west of Aquila.

PA'GANISH, *adj.* Heathenish.—The peremptory knife of popish, worse than *paganiſh*, pruners. *Bp. King's Vitis Palati.* 1614.—They observed and solemnized their *paganiſh* pastime and worship. *Bourne's Antiq. Comm. People.*—He [Pope Gregory] would not suffer verse to be sung, or rather, perhaps, would not let it be sung as verse, (which his canto firmo, or notes of equal length, would most effectually prevent,) because it was gay and *paganiſh*. *Mason on Church Music.*

PA'GANISM, *f.* The worship and discipline of pagans; the adoration of idols and false gods.—The gods of *paganiſm* were either men, as Jupiter, Hercules, Bacchus, &c. or fictitious persons, as Victory, Fame, Fever, &c. or beasts, as in Egypt, crocodiles, cats, &c. or, finally, inanimate things, as onions, fire, and water, &c. *Chambers.*

To PA'GANIZE, *v. u.* To render heathenish.—God's own people were sometimes so miserably depraved and *paganiſed*, as to sacrifice their sons and daughters unto devils. *Hallywell's Melampyr.* 1681.—This way of *paganiſing* a future state was unavoidable in the plan of Telemachus, as it was also in that of Fontenelle's Dialogues. But it was something to be serious in his paganism. Thus much may be said for the French Homer. *Hurd on Addison's Tatler*, No 156.

To PA'GANIZE, *v. n.* To behave like a pagan.—This was that which made the old Christians *paganiſe*. *Milton's Animad. Rem. Defence.*

PAGAPATE, *f.* in botany. See SONNERATIA.

PAGAR/CHUS, *f.* [Gr. formed of *pagus*, village, and *αρχη*, command.] Among the ancients, a petty magistrate of a *pagus*, or little district, in the country.

PAG'ASA, a town of Magnesia, in Macedonia, with VOL. XVIII. No. 1235,

an harbour and a promontory of the same name. The ship Argo was built there, as some suppose; and, according to Propertius, the Argonauts set sail from that harbour. From that circumstance, not only the ship Argo, but also the Argonauts themselves, were ever after distinguished by the epithet of *Pagaseus*.

PAGE, *f.* [Fr. from *pagina*, Lat.] One side of the leaf of a book.—If a man could have opened one of the *pages* of the divine counsel, and seen the event of Joseph's being sold, he might have dried up the young man's tears. *Bp. Taylor.*—A printer divides a book into sheets, the sheets into *pages*, the *pages* into lines, and the lines into letters. *Watts.*

Thy name to Phœbus and the muses known,
Shall in the front of every page be shewn. *Dryden.*

PAGE, *f.* [Mr. Horne Tooke contends, that "pack, patch, and page, are the past participle *pacch*, (differently pronounced, and therefore differently written with *k*, *ch*, or *ge*,) of the Saxon verb *pæcan*, to deceive by false appearances; and, as servants were contemptuously called harlot, varlet, valet, and knave; so were they contemptuously called *pack*, *patch*, and *PAGE*." Diverſ. of Purley, ii. 369.—This etymon, ingenious as it may seem, is hardly the true one of *page*. Henry Stephens, and others, have derived it from the Greek *παῖς*, as first signifying a boy, afterwards, a servant. Hence perhaps the derivation of it by others, from the Lat. *pagus*, a village; with the remark that, in Languedoc and Gascony, a countryman is called *page*. See this appellation confirmed in Dict. de la Langue Toulousaine, 1638. *Todd.*] A boy-child:

A doughter hadden they betwix them two,
Of twenty yere, without any mo,
Saving a child that was of half-yere age,
In cradle it lay, and was a propre *page*. *Chaucer.*

A boy-servant; a young boy attending, rather in formality than servitude, on a great person.—He had two *pages* of honour, on either hand one. *Bacon.*—Philip of Macedon had a *page* attending in his chamber, to tell him every morning, Remember, O king, that thou art mortal. *Wake's Prep. for Death.*

Pages following him,
Even at the heels, in golden multitudes. *Shakespeare.*
Where is this mankind now? who lives to age
Fit to be made Methusalem his *page*? *Donne.*

To PAGE, *v. a.* To mark the pages of a book.—To attend as a page:

Will these moss'd trees,
That have outliv'd the eagle, *page* thy heels,
And skip when thou point'st out? *Shakespeare.*

PA'GEANT, *f.* [Of this word the etymologists give no satisfactory account. It may perhaps be *payen geant*, a pagan giant, a representation of triumph used at return from holy wars; as we have yet the Saracen's head. *Dr. Johnson.*—Mr. H. Tooke considers *pageant* as merely the present participle *pæceand*, of the Sax. *pæcan*, to deceive; *pacheand*, *pacheant*, *pageant*. Div. of Purl. 370. *Todd.*] A statue in a show.—Any show; a spectacle of entertainment.—The poets contrived the following *pageant* or machine for the pope's entertainment; a huge floating mountain that was split at the top in imitation of Parnassus. *Addison.*

This wide and universal theatre
Presents more woeful *pageants* than the scene
Wherein we play. *Shakespeare's As you Like it.*

It is used in a proverbial and general sense for any thing showy without stability or duration:

Thus unlamented pass the proud away,
The gaze of fools, and *pageant* of a day. *Pope.*

The breath of others raises our renown,
Our own as soon blows the *pageant* down. *Young.*

PA'GEANT, *adj.* Showy; pompous; ostentatious; superficial:

Were the ambitious, she disdain'd to own
The pageant pomp of such a servile throne. *Dryden.*

To PA'GEANT, *v. a.* To exhibit in show; to represent.—That feast of love and heavenly-admitted friendship, the seal of filial grace, became the subject of horror and glouting admiration, *pageanted* about like a dreadful idol. *Milton.*

With ridiculous and awkward action,
Which, slanderer, he imitation calls,
He *pageants* us. *Shakespeare's Troil. and Creff.*

PA'GEANTRY, *f.* Pomp; show.—Inconveniences are consequent to dogmatizing, supposing men in the right; but, if they be in the wrong, what a ridiculous *pageantry* is it to see such a philosophical gravity fet man out a solecism! *Gov. of the Tongue.*

Such *pageantry* be to the people shewn;
There boast thy horse's trappings and thy own. *Dryden.*

PAG'ET's PO'RT, a small harbour within the great sound in Bahama-island, and in the most easterly part of the found.

PAG'HAN, or PAGHANMEW. See PEGONGMEW.

PAGHKATAKAN', a town of New Jersey, on the Papachton. Lat. 42. 8. N. lon. 74. 40. W.

PAG'I (Anthony); a French Franciscan monk, and a very able ecclesiastical historian and chronologer, was born at Rogues, a small town near Aix in Provence, in the year 1624. He embraced the monastic life at Arles, in 1641; and, after going through the usual courses of philosophy and divinity, officiated for some time as preacher, with great acceptability: he was also much occupied in the confessional; and was four times elected provincial of his order. These employments, however, did not prevent him from applying very assiduously to the study of chronology and ecclesiastical history, in which he succeeded so well, as to become one of the most able critics of his time in those branches of learning. In 1682, he published a piece entitled "Disertatio hypatica, seu de Consulibus Cæsareis," 4to. which abounds in curious remarks, and throws considerable light on the chronology of the consulates. But his most considerable work consists of a criticism on the Annals of Baronius, in which he follows that learned cardinal year after year, and rectifies an infinite number of mistakes, both in his chronology and in his facts. It is entitled "Critica Historico-Chronologica in Universos Annales Ecclesiasticos Eminent. et Rev. Cæs. Card. Baronii, in qua rerum narratio defenditur, illustratur, suppletur, Ordo Temporum corrigitur, innovatur, et Periodo Græco-Romana, nunc primum concinnata munitur, &c." 4 vols. folio. This work is distinguished by profound learning, solid and judicious criticism, moderation, and candour; and the simple style in which it is written is well adapted to chronological narration. It extends to the year 1198, where Baronius finishes. In compiling it, father Pagi received considerable assistance from the abbé de Longuerue. The first volume made its appearance at Paris in the year 1689, and the three following were not printed till after the author's death, under the care of his nephew, the subject of the next article, when they were committed to the press at Geneva, in 1705. A new edition of the whole was published at the same place, in 1727. Father Pagi also published an edition of the Sermons of St. Anthony of Padua; in Latin, in 1685; and two answers to criticisms on his Dissertation on the Consulates; one, accompanying that collection of sermons, and the other in the Journal des Sçavans for November 11, 1686. He died at Aix, in 1699, about the age of seventy-five, equally beloved for his amiable manners and respected for his profound learning.

PA'GI (Francis), nephew of the preceding, and a member of the same religious community, was born at

Lambesc in the year 1654. He commenced his studies at Toulon, under the fathers of the oratory, and made so great a proficiency in the belles-lettres, that his uncle was induced to send for him to Aix, where he then resided. Francis applied with such ardour and assiduity to the study of history, under his uncle's instructions, that he was soon able to afford him valuable assistance in his great work, and was properly entrusted with the care of editing the three last volumes of it, as we have seen above. After he had executed this task, he employed himself in writing a work of his own, which he published under the title of "Breviarium Historico-Chronologico-Criticum, Illustriora Pontificum Romanorum Gestæ, Conciliorum generalium Acta, &c. complectens," 4 vols. 4to. The first and second of these volumes made their appearance in 1717, the third in 1718, and the fourth not till after the author's death, when it was published by Anthony Pagi, the second of that name, and nephew to our author. This work, which comprises the history of the popes, and of the general councils, together with numerous details relative to the discipline, the rites, &c. of the church, displays much learned and curious research, and is drawn up in a style that is correct and neat. The author, however, is a zealous advocate for the highest claims of the pretended successors of St. Peter; and maintains so uniformly and steadily the infallibility of the pope, his superiority over councils, the right of appeals to the court of Rome, and the papal power of anathematizing sovereigns, that it should seem that his work was undertaken for the express purpose of defending those opinions. The author died in 1721, in the sixty-seventh year of his age, having passed through the principal offices of trust and honour in his order.

His nephew, ANTHONY PAGI, was born at Martigne in Provence, and entered among the Jesuits, whom he afterwards quitted, and became provost of Cavaillon. He published, 1. A History of the Revolutions of the Low Countries, 1727, 12mo. 2. The History of Young Cyrus, 1736. 12mo. He was a writer not destitute of talents and genius; but his style is diffuse, romantic, and culpably negligent. *Gen. Biog.*

PAGIET'TA, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Citra: five miles south of Langiano.

PAGIEL, [Heb. the prayer of God.] A man's name.

PAG'INA, *f.* [Latin.] In botany, the whole surface of any part of a plant, including the border.

PAG'INAL, *adj.* [pagina, Lat.] Consisting of pages.—An expression proper unto the *paginal* books of our times, but not so agreeable unto volumes or rolling books; in use among the Jews. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

PAG'LESHAM, a village in Essex, on the east side of the Stambidge, is separated by a creek from Wallesea, or Walfleet-island, part of which is in its parish.

PA'GLIA, a river of Italy, which runs into the Tiber a few miles below Orvieto.

PAGLIANEL'LO, a town of Naples, in Lavora: fourteen miles north-east of Capua.

PAGLIA'NO, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Ultra: fifteen miles east-south-east of Aquila.

PAGLIAPO'LI, a town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra: four miles east of Gierace.

PA'GLION, a river of France, which runs into the Mediterranean a little to the east of Nice.

PAGNI'NUS (Sanctes), an Italian Dominican monk, distinguished for his skill in oriental and biblical literature, was descended from a respectable family, and born at Lucca, in the year 1466 or 1470. At the age of sixteen he took the habit in a convent of the Dominican order, and applied with extraordinary diligence to the study of the learned languages, and of divinity. He not only made himself master of the Latin and Greek, but also of the Hebrew, Chaldee, and Arabic, tongues. As he particularly excelled in the knowledge of Hebrew, he was sent by his superior to teach it in a monastery at Lyons, where he spent the greatest part of his life. Here he distinguished

tinguished himself by his zeal in defending the catholic church against the attacks of the reformers; and laboured to prevent the numerous Italian families which had settled in this city from being converted by the emissaries of the Waldenses and Lutherans. But what principally contributed to his celebrity, was the design which he undertook, and accomplished, of making the first modern translation into Latin of the Old Testament from the original Hebrew, and of the New Testament from the Greek. To this design he was led from a firm conviction that the Vulgate translation, as it has descended to modern times, is greatly corrupted from the state in which it was left by St. Jerome. It was his object, therefore, to produce a new translation, in which the Vulgate should be followed whenever fidelity to the originals permitted. No sooner was his intention announced, than it met with the approbation of pope Leo X. who had that confidence in the learning and abilities of Pagninus, that he promised to furnish the necessary expenses for completing his work. From a letter of Francis Picus of Mirandola to the author, it appears, that he commenced his version of the Hebrew Scriptures in 1493; and, after employing five-and-twenty years upon it, finished it in 1518. He then applied to the translation of the Apocryphal Books, and the New Testament, both of which he rendered from the original Greek before the year 1521. At length the whole work was published at Lyons, in 1528, under the title of "Veteris et Novi Testamenti nova Translatio, per Sanctum Pagninum nuper edita, approbante Clemente VII." 4to. accompanied with the licenses of popes Adrian VI. and Clement VII. On this work many high commendations have been bestowed by the most learned rabbis, who have decidedly given it the preference to all other translations of the sacred Hebrew writings; and also by many eminent Christian critics, catholic and protestant; and, among others, by Leusden, Erpenius, Buxtorf, and the learned Huet bishop of Avranches. On the other hand, Genebrard, father Simon, and others, while they agree with later translators and commentators on the scriptures, in acknowledging that Pagninus has given proof in it of great learning and abilities, contest its claims to the superior excellence which the former attribute to it. Father Simon pronounces it to be obscure, barbarous, and full of solecisms; and maintains that it sometimes changes the sense of the text. This version, however, afterwards underwent repeated impressions. In the same year the author published "Liber Interpretationum Hebraeorum, Aramæorum, Græcorumque Nominum, quæ Arcanis sacrisque in Litteris inveniuntur, ordine alphabetico, ut inventu cuncta sint perfacilia," 4to. which has been added to the subsequent editions of that work. Pagninus also published, 3. *Thesaurus Linguae Sanctæ*, 1529, folio; which was reprinted by Robert Stephens, under the title of, *Thesaurus Linguae Sanctæ contrafictior et emendatior*, 1548, 4to. and an abridgment of the same was published at Antwerp in 1616, 8vo. 4. *Isagoges, seu Introductionis ad Sacras Litteras Liber Unus*, 1528, 4to. and reprinted in 1536, folio, with an historical preface by Symphorien Champier. 5. *Hebraicarum Institutionum Libri Quatuor*, Sanc. Pag. Luc. Audt. ex Rabbi David Kimhi priore parte fere transcripti, 1526, 4to. of which an abridgment was printed at Paris by Robert Stephens, in 1546, 4to. 6. *Enchiridion Expositionis Vocabulorum Haruch, Targum et multorum aliorum Librorum, Hebraicæ Linguae, aliisque Libris apprime accommodatum*, &c. 1523, folio. 7. *Isagogæ ad sacras Litteras et ad mysticos Scripturæ Sensus*, &c. being a continuation of the "Isagoges" above-mentioned, and reprinted with the same in 1536, folio. 8. *Catena argentea in Pentateuchum*, in six large volumes, 1536. 9. *Catena argentea in totum Pfalterium, Hebræorum, Græcorum, et Latinorum, continens Commentaria*, in three large volumes. 10. *Annotamenta in totum Vetus Testamentum*. 11. *Isagogæ Græcæ*, &c. 1525, 2 vols. folio; and he left behind him a number of manuscripts. Pagninus died at

Lyons in 1536, at the age of sixty-six; and, when his obsequies were celebrated, a great number of the principal people of the city attended, out of respect to his memory. Buxtorf, who made much use of his *Thesaurus* in forming one of his own, calls him "Vir linguarum orientalium peritissimus." Luther spoke of him with great applause. *Simon's Crit. Hist. Le Long's Biblia Sacra*, vol. i.

PA'GNY SUR MOSEL'LE, a town of France, in the department of the Meurthe: four miles north of Pont à Mousson, and nine south-south-west of Metz.

PA'GO, an island in the Adriatic, near the coast of Dalmatia or Morlachia, about twenty miles long and six broad, with several villages. The ancient geographers have left us no description of it; though (as Fortis observes) its form, extent, and rich produce, unquestionably deserved it. And this is the more unaccountable, as we know the Romans were well acquainted with it; and on the other islands adjoining to it are many vestiges of buildings, inscriptions, tiles, and hewn stones, all sure signs of Roman habitations. Its figure is remarkably irregular, its breadth being in no proportion to its length; for one of the extremities, called *Punta di Lodi*, is above ten miles long, and less than one broad. Almost all the circumference is dismal, without trees or any kind of visible plants or grass, steep, craggy, and uninhabited. On entering the lake through the channel that communicates with the sea, nothing is to be seen either on the right or left but bare hanging rocks, so disfigured on the outside by the violent percussion of the waves, that the stratification is hardly distinguishable. The channel, or inward bay, of Pago, is not a harbour; on the contrary, it is a very dangerous station, and even inaccessible in winter, when the north wind blows with such fury, that the inhabitants of the town dare not stir out of their houses, and much less the few that are scattered over the country. The sky appears always cloudy in that season, by the thick mist that arises from the re-percussion of the waves on that long chain of rough and hollow rocks. One particular circumstance, which distinguishes it from all the other islands of the Adriatic, is a large internal salt-water lake, fifteen miles long from south to north, into which the sea enters by a canal not above a quarter of a mile. This lake is frequented by the tunny-fish, which, when once in, cannot return again to the sea. There are also two smaller lakes on the island: one near Vlassich, abounding in fish, particularly eels; and one near the hamlet of Slabine.

In this island the winter is dreadfully cold, and the summer scorchingly hot. Those who have been there in the winter-time speak of it as a Siberia quite covered with snow and ice, and always exposed to the cold north wind; and, in the hot season, it is thought equal to the most scorching parts of the world. The naked rocks, which not only form the organization, but also the superificies, of almost all the island; the narrowness of the valleys; the reverberation of the water of the lake, generally quite calm in summer; multiply the heat so prodigiously among those stones, that the vines, which are planted all round the lake, ripen their grapes by the beginning of August; and the other products that grow there anticipate the usual time of maturity in the same manner. The meteors are exceedingly irregular in the summer-time; sudden whirlwinds are frequent, and heavy showers of rain: the last are hurtful to the inhabitants of one part of the island, and are favourable to the cultivation of the opposite end. They cultivate neither corn nor oil on this island; but it produces plenty of wine, and an immense quantity of salt. The other products are wool, honey, and a little salt fish. The quantity of wine amounts annually, on a medium, to 40,000 Venetian barrels; and from the hulks they distil 2000 barrels of *rakia*, or brandy. The salt, in 1663, amounted to 800,000 Venetian sters. The salt-works are well contrived and well kept; they extend along a shallow pool, which forms the eastern extremity of the lake within, for four miles in length and about

about half a mile in breadth. On the sides of this fen the best part of the vines lie; but the upper part of the hills on each side is altogether naked and barren. The soil at the foot of the hills, where the vines are planted, is full of gravel and small stones; and hence the wine is of good quality. The air is not unhealthful, notwithstanding the vicinity of the salt-pits; for the frequent high winds carry off the noxious exhalations. The greatest part of the people of Pago live by working in the salt-pits, and have a comfortable subsistence regularly paid by the government: it is therefore a very important circumstance for the inhabitants of the city to have a dry summer; and hence the ignorant vulgar look upon rain as a mischief brought upon the country by the force of witchcraft. In consequence of this idea, they elect a friar to exorcise the meteors, and keep the rain off the island. If, notwithstanding the poor friar's endeavours, the summer happens to be rainy, he loses his reputation and his bread; but, if two or three dry seasons follow successively, he meets with great reverence and advantage. Part of the salt-works belongs to the government, and the rest to private proprietors; they are meliorated every year; and for that end the public lends money to those proprietors who want it, and who, without that assistance, could not make the requisite improvements. The great quantity of sage and other odoriferous plants with which the island is covered, furnishes most excellent food for the bees, and the honey of whom forms no inconsiderable branch of trade; it is generally carried to Fiume, and sold again there as the honey of that country. The same pasture among those barren rocks maintains a large number of sheep and goats; and the wool which is very bad, and cheefe, make small articles for export.

The northern part of the island, called *Novaglia*, which depends on the government of Arba, is well supplied with water, and has good pastures on its low grounds, by which means its black cattle are larger and better than on any of the neighbouring islands, or of Littoral Dalmatia. The island has actually neither wood to burn, nor for any other purpose, excepting the northern end, called *Punta di Loni*, which is abundantly supplied with all sorts. Among the rest there are very fine roots and trunks of old olive-trees, which would furnish excellent materials for the cabinet-makers and sculptors. The soil of the island, that is, of the land lying on the declivity and at the bottom of the hills, is very gravelly and light; but on the northern extremity, where there are plains, though somewhat stony, yet the land is better and stronger, and might be cultivated to bear corn of all sorts. The whole number of inhabitants scarcely amounts to 3500, which bears no proportion to the extent of ground, if the naked barren hills that cover almost the whole did not account for it. The greatest part of this population lives in the city of Pago, which is said to contain about 3000 inhabitants. Lat. 44. 40. N. lon. 15. 10. E.

PAGO, the chief town of the above island, built by the Venetians in the year 1468. The name of Pago is found in older writings; but then it was a village, and situated in an unhealthful and inconvenient spot, now called *Terra Vecchia*, or The Old Town. *Kessa*, or *Kissa*, or *Kussa*, was the name of the capital of this island in the barbarous times, and probably comes from the corruption of *Cissa*, or *Gissa*. The Venetians took it from the Croats in the end of the 16th century, and demolished it. At that time it appears that the southern part, where Pago now stands, was not much inhabited. This city has undergone many revolutions. The difficulty of access to it, and the bad accommodation that strangers meet with, make it very little frequented; hence the inhabitants are as wild and unpolished as if they lay at the greatest distance from the sea, and the commerce of polite people. The gentry, who pretend to show their manners different from those of the vulgar, are truly grotesque figures, both in their dress and behaviour, and insolent pretensions: the ignorance of the clergy is incredible.

There are two convents of friars in Pago, and one of nuns; and several churches, all in very bad order, and ill served.

PAG'OD, or PAGO'DA, *f.* [a corruption of *poutghad*, which in the Persian signifies "a house of idols." Fryer's Travels. *Dr. Johnson*.—Sir T. Herbert writes it *pagotha*: "Many *pagothaes* or idol places for worship. Within these is built a *pagotha*. They adore *pagothas*, in shape not unlike Pan and Priapus." Travels, p. 48, 116, 373. Todd.] An Indian idol.—Miserable Indians idolatrously adoring their devilish *pagodes*. *Bp. Hall's Character of Man*.—They worship idols called *pagods*, after such a terrible representation as we make of devils. *Stillingfleet*.—The temple of the idol. We should be inclined to restrict the word *pagod* to the idol, and to apply *pagoda* to the temple; but the following example is against us:

See thronging millions to the *pagod* run,
And offer country, parent, wife, or son.

Pope.

The pagodas, or pagod-temples, of China, are lofty towers, consisting sometimes of nine stories, each story more than twenty feet high. See the representation, under the article CHINA, opposite p. 484. The pagodas of Hindoostan, on the contrary, are mostly square stone buildings, not very lofty, and crowned with a cupola. Within they are very dark; for they have no windows, and only receive their light through the entrance. The image of the idol stands in the deepest and darkest recess of the temple; it is of a monstrous shape, and of uncouth dimensions, having many arms and hands. Some of these idols have eight, and others sixteen, arms; with a human body, and the head of a dog, with drawn bows and instruments of war in their hands. Some of them are black, others of a yellowish hue. In some pagodas there are no images, but only a single black polished stone, lying upon a round altar, covered with flowers and sandal-wood, which were strewed upon it. Greater veneration is manifested for these stones than for the idols themselves. Their worship of these divinities consists in throwing themselves upon the ground, and making their salam, or salutation, with their hands, and ejaculating their prayers in silence in that posture. The offerings which they are accustomed to present to their gods consist of flowers, rice, pieces of silk and cotton, and sometimes gold and silver. Every thing is laid before the idols, and is taken care of by the Brahmins, who profit the most by it; for, to adopt the words of an elegant and accurate historian, "in all the great pagodas of India the Brahmins live in a subordination which knows no resistance, and slumber in a voluptuousness which knows no want." For a description of some of these curious buildings, see the article HINDOOSTAN, vol. x. p. 170, and the Plates there referred to.

PAGODA is also the name of a gold coin, current in several parts of India. The silver pagodas, struck at Narasingua, Bishnagur, &c. usually bear the figure of some monstrous idol: whence their names. They are of various values.

Accounts are kept at Madras, or Fort St. George, on the Coromandel coast, in pagodas, fanams, and cash; 80 cash = 1 fanam, and 42 fanams = 1 pagoda. Such is the mode of reckoning used by the East-India Company, and other European merchants; but, among the natives, the value of the pagoda varies from 44 to 46 fanams. The gold coins are star or current pagodas; and the silver coins, Arcot rupees. The star-pagoda weighs 52.56 English grains, and the gold is 19½ carats fine; it therefore contains 42.048 grains of fine gold, and is worth 7s. 5½d. sterling; but it is commonly valued at 8s.

In the Mysore country, and particularly at the capital, Seringapatam, accounts are kept in Canter-raia pagodas, and palams, called by the English Canterbury pagodas and fanams. This pagoda is an imaginary money; and the fanam, which is a real coin, is the tenth part of the pagoda. The coins are gold mohurs, which pass for four pagodas; sultany pagodas, coined by Tippoo Sultan; and other

other pagodas, coined by Hyder Ally, and by the rajah of Myfore, all passing for 13 fanams; also, sultany-rupees, and rajah-rupees, 26 of which pass for 7 sultany-pagodas; copper dudos, called by the English dubs, 260 of which are the market-price for a sultany-pagoda. The shroffs, when they exchange copper for gold or silver, pay at the rate of 234 dudos for a pagoda; but, when they change gold and silver for copper, they receive 240; whilst the price fixed by government is 182 dudos per pagoda; and the other coins exchange in proportion. At Pondicherry, the coins are gold pagodas, and silver rupees and fanams. A pagoda weighs 9 fanams; so that three rupees are equal in weight to 10 pagodas; $7\frac{1}{2}$ pagodas weigh a French mark, or 3778 English grains. In short, the value of the pagoda varies, according to its fineness and the places where it is current, from 5s. 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. to 8s. 5d.

The pagoda differs in shape from all European coins: it has a convex side with prominent dots, and a flat side which generally bears a figure, and in some three figures, of Indian idols. The star-pagoda is marked on the convex side with a star; other pagodas are marked with a crescent, or with an initial letter; the pagodas of Masulipatam and Pondicherry have nothing on the convex side but the dots. Tippoo's pagodas have no figure on the flat side, but a legend, which is translated thus, "Mahomet, he is the authority of equity," with the date of the Hegira; on the convex side, the name of the place where it was coined, and generally the initial of Hyder. *Kelly's Universal Cambist.*

PAGODA-BA'Y, a bay on the east coast of Cochin-China. Lat. 12. 21. N. lon. 109. 4. E.

PA'GON, or ST. IGNATIUS, one of the Ladrone-islands, about thirty-six miles in circumference: thirty miles north of Amalagan.

PAGOO'R, a town of Bootan: sixteen miles south of Tassafudon.

PAGOU'A BAY, a bay on the east coast of the island of Dominica. Lat. 15. 18. N. lon. 61. 19. W.

PAGOY'UM, a word used by Paracelsus and his followers, to express an imaginary being, which presides over, or is the occasion of, diseases whose causes are less known, and which have been supposed to arise from enchantment. Such is the doctrine of this strange writer, and on this subject he has written a treatise called "Pagoyus."

PA'GUL, a town of Africa, in Whidah: six miles north-west of Sabi.

PAGURUS, *f.* in entomology, a division made by some authors in the Cancer tribe. See CANCER.

PA'HA-CA'CHON, a town of Thibet: 100 miles south-west of Hara-Toubê.

PAHA-TOM'KIN, a mountain of Thibet. Lat. 34. 30. N. lon. 91. 44. E.

PAHANG', PAHAN, or PAN, a seaport-town of Malacca, on the east coast; called by the Portuguese *Paon*, and by the Arabs *Fân*. It is situated about four leagues from the sea, and inhabited only by nobility, the people dwelling only in the suburbs. This place, which is not very large, is enclosed by a wall, made of the trunks of trees joined close together, and about twenty-four feet in height, strengthened at each end with a bastion, but not filled with earth. The streets are fenced on both sides with hedges of reeds, and planted with cocoa and other trees; so that Pahang looks more like an assemblage of gardens belonging to a suburb, than a regular city. The houses likewise are generally built with reeds and straw; only the king's palace is of wood; for Pahang was formerly the capital of a kingdom which lay between Johor and Patany, but at present it makes a part of Johor. The river is broad, but not navigable for galleys, except at high-water. The adjacent country is very low, but fruitful enough; producing pepper, eagle and kalambak woods, gold, nutmegs, mace, sapan-wood, diamonds, and hog-stones, reckoned more efficacious than the be-

zoar-stones. Deeper in the country, elephants are very numerous. Lat. 3. 40. N. lon. 103. 36. E.

PAHANG', or PU'LO PAHAN, a small island in the Eastern Indian Sea, near the coast of Malacca: five miles east from the town of Pahang.

PAHARGUN'GE, a town of Bengal: ten miles south-west of Beyhar.

PA'HATH-MO'AB, in scripture-history, was probably a city built near to the place where Ehud routed the Moabites. Joshua and Joab were two of its ancient princes: 2812 persons belonging to Pahath-Moab returned from Babylon with Zerubbabel, and 200 more with Ezra. *Ezra* ii. 6. viii. 4. Some would have Pahath-Moab to be the name of a man; and it is certain that one of that name sealed Nehemiah's covenant of reformation. See Neh. x. 14. *Brown's Dict. Bible.*

PAHA'VENS, a town of Persia, in the province of Irak: thirty miles west of Jeshd.

PA'HICH, a town of Arabia, in the province of Hedjaz: sixty miles south-east of Medina.

PAH'IE, *f.* One of the classes of canoes or boats used by the inhabitants of the islands in the South Sea. The pahie is of different sizes, from thirty to sixty feet long, but very narrow; a transverse section of it resembles the spade of cards, the whole being much wider in proportion to its length. The largest pahies are used for fighting, in which case they are fitted with a stage or platform.

PA'HO, a river on the west coast of the isle of Celebes, which runs into the straits of Macassar in lat. 3. 10. S. lon. 119. 52. E.

PA'HVA, a small island on the coast of Finland, with a town. Lat. 60. 29. N. lon. 21. 30. E.

PAHVITTRAM', a town of Hindooftan, in the Carnatic: fourteen miles east-south-east of Coveriporum.

PAJACK', *f.* A corn-measure in Russia, equal to nearly a bushel and a half of Winchester-measure.

PAJA'NA, a lake of Sweden, in the province of Tavastland, above 100 miles in length.

PAIANEL'LI, *f.* in botany. See BIGNONIA.

PAJ'AROS. See PAXAROS.

PAI'AS, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the government of Marasch, in the bay of Alexandretta: five miles west of Alexandretta, and twenty-five south-west of Marasch.

PAJAU'NY, a town of Hindooftan, in Oude: thirty miles west of Kairabad.

PAICHAM', a town of Chinese Tartary. Lat. 42. 42. N. lon. 120. 22. E.

PAI'DORFF, a town of the duchy of Stiria: six miles north of Muehrau.

PAI'GLE, *f.* [*parahsis*, Lat.] A kind of cowslip; the double cowslip.—Blue harebells, *pagles*, pansies, calaminth. *B. Jonson's Masques.*

PAIJA'LA, a town of Sweden, in West Bothnia: eighty-six miles north of Tornea.

PAIL, *f.* [*paila*, Span.] A wooden vessel in which milk or water is commonly carried.—In the country when wool is new-shorn, they set *pails* of water in the same room to increase the weight. *Bacon.*

New milk that all the winter never fails,
And all the summer overflows the *pails*. *Dryden.*

PAI'LFUL, *f.* The quantity that a pail will hold.—Yond same cloud cannot chuse but fall by *pailfuls*. *Shakespeare*.—When an house is on fire, we must every one cast in his *pailful* to the quenching of the flames. *Bp. Hall.*

PAI'LLS, a town of France, in the department of the Arriege: eighteen miles west of Mirepourt.

PAI'LLY, a town of Hindooftan, in Vissapour: five miles south-south-west of Sattarah.

PAILMAIL, *f.* The same with *pallmall*, a beater or mallet to strike the ball.—A stroke with a *pailmail* beetle upon a bowl, makes it fly from it. *Digby on the Soul.*

PAIM'POL, a town of France, in the department of the North Coasts: seven miles east of Treguier.

PAIN, *f.* [*πῶνις*, Gr. *pæna*, Lat. *peine*, Fr. *pin*, Sax.] Punishment denounced.—There the princesses, determining to bathe themselves, thought it was so privileged a place, upon *pain* of death, as no-body durst presume to come thither. *Sidney*.

On *pain* of death no person be so bold,
Or daring hardy, as to touch the list. *Shakespeare*.

Penalty; punishment.—Because Eusebius hath yet said nothing, we will, by way of mulct or *pain*, lay it upon him. *Bacon*.—Sensation of uneasiness.—As the *pains* of the touch are greater than the offences of the other senses; so likewise are the pleasures. *Bacon*.

Pain is perfect misery, the worst
Of evils; and, excessive, overturns
All patience.

Milton's P. L.

[In the plural.] Labour; work; toil.—One laboureth and taketh *pains*, maketh haste, and is so much the more behind. *Eccles. xi. 11*.—The *pains* they had taken was very great. *Clarendon*.—Some natures, the more *pains* a man takes to reclaim them, the worse they are. *L'Estrange*.—A reasonable clergyman, if he will be at the *pains*, can make the most ignorant man comprehend what is his duty, and convince him that he ought to perform it. *Swift*.—Labour; task. The singular is, in this sense, obsolete.

The fame with *pains* we gain, but lose with ease,
Sure some to vex, but never all to please. *Pope*.

He soft arrived on the grassy plain,
And fairly paced forth with easy *pain*. *Spenser*.

Tone *paine* in a cottage doth take,
When t'other trim bowers do make. *Tusser*.

When of the dew, which th' eye and ear do take
From flowers abroad, and bring into the brain,
She doth within both wax and honey make:
This work is hers, this is her proper *pain*. *Davies*.

When a lion shakes his dreadful mane,
And angry grows, if he, that first took *pain*
To tame his youth, approach the haughty beast,
He bends to him, but frights away the rest. *Waller*.

Uneasiness of mind, about something absent or future; anxiety; solicitude.—Great *pain* [in the margin, fear] shall be in Ethiopia. *Ezek. xxx. 4*.—If the churchless were once thus settled, we need then be in less *pain* for the religion of our prince. *Lestie*.

It bid her feel
No future *pain* for me; but instant wed
A lover more proportion'd to her bed. *Prior*.

The throes of childbirth.—She bowed herself and travailed; for her *pains* came upon her. 1 *Sam. iv. 19*.

To **PAIN**, *v. a.* To afflict; to torment; to make uneasy.—Excess of cold, as well as heat, *pains* us, because it is equally destructive to that temper which is necessary to the preservation of life. *Locke*.

She drops a doubtful word, that *pains* his mind,
And leaves a rankling jealousy behind. *Dryden*.

[With the reciprocal pronoun.] To labour. *Little used*.—Though the lord of the liberty do *pain himself* to yield equal justice unto all, yet can there not but great abuses lurk in so absolute a privilege. *Spencer on Ireland*.—He *pained himself* to raise his note. *Dryden*.

PAIN'S HILL. See WALTON-UPON-THAMES.

PAI'NA SCHYL'LI, *f.* in botany. See ACANTHUS.
PAINBEUF, a seaport-town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Lower Loire, situated at the mouth of the Loire: twenty-one miles west of Nantes, and twenty north-north-west of Mache-coul. Lat. 47. 17. N. lon. 1. 57. W.

PAINE (Thomas), a famous political writer, was born at Thetford, in Norfolk, on the 29th of January, 1736-7. His father, who was the son of a small farmer, followed the trade of a stay-maker, and was by religious profession a Quaker. His mother was a member of the church of England, and daughter of an attorney at Thetford. They were married at the parish-church of Euston, near Thetford, the 20th of June, 1734. His father, by this marriage out of the society of Quakers, was disowned by that community. Mr. Paine received his education at the grammar-school at Thetford, under the Rev. Wm. Knowles; and one of his school-mates at that time was the late counsellor Mingay. At this school his studies were directed merely to reading, writing, and arithmetic; and he left it at thirteen years of age, to be put apprentice to his father.

In the year 1756, when near twenty years of age, he went to London, where he worked some time in Hanover-street, Long Acre, with Mr. Morris, a well-known stay-maker. In 1758, he removed to Dover, where he worked at his trade for near twelve months. In April 1759 he settled as a master stay-maker at Sandwich; and Mr. Oldys says that he formed a little congregation at his own house, to whom he preached as an independent minister. On the 27th of September following he married Mary Lambert, the daughter of an exciseman of that place. In April 1760, he removed with his wife to Margate, where she died shortly after; and he again mingled with the crowds of London.

In July 1761, disgusted with the toil and little gain of his late occupation, he renounced it for ever, and determined to apply himself to the profession of an exciseman, towards which, as his wife's father was of that calling, he had some time turned his thoughts. At this period he sought shelter under his father's roof at Thetford, that he might prosecute, in quiet and retirement, the object of his future course. Through the interest of Mr. Cockedge, the recorder of Thetford, after fourteen months of study, he was established as a supernumerary in the excise, about the age of twenty-five. In this situation, at Grantham and Alford, &c. he did not continue more than two or three years, when he relinquished it, in August 1765, and commenced it again in 1766. In this interval he was teacher at Mr. Noble's academy, in Leman-street, Goodman's Fields, at a salary of 25l. a-year. In a similar occupation he afterwards lived for a short time, at Kensington, with the Rev. Mr. Gardnor. Speaking of the improvement he gained in the above capacities, and some other lowly situations he had been in, he made this observation: "Here I derived considerable information; indeed, I have seldom passed five minutes of my life, however circumstanced, in which I did not acquire some knowledge." During this residence in London, he attended the philosophical lectures of Martin and Ferguson, and became acquainted with Dr. Bevis, of the Temple, a great astronomer. In these studies and the mathematics he soon became a proficient. At this time he was desirous of taking orders; but, being merely an English scholar, he could not obtain any certificate of qualification. Being violently moved, however, with a spirit of preaching, he wandered about for a while as an itinerant methodist; because, though restored to his rank in the excise, he was not fixed in an employment.

In March 1768, he was settled as an exciseman at Lewes in Sussex; and there, on the 26th of March, 1771, married Elizabeth Ollive, shortly after the death of her father, whose trade of a tobaccoist and grocer he entered into and carried on. In this place he lived three years, in habits of intimacy with a very convivial set of acquaintance, who were entertained with his witty sallies, and informed by his more serious conversations. In politics he was at this time a Whig, and notorious for that quality which has been defined perseverance in a good cause and obstinacy in a bad one.

In April 1774, the goods of his shop were sold to pay his debts. As a grocer, he trafficked in excisable articles; and, being suspected of unfair practices, was dismissed the excise, after being in it twelve years. Yet, at the time he was an exciseman at Lewes, he was so approved for doing his duty, that Mr. Jenner, principal clerk in the Excise-office, London, had several times occasion to write letters from the Board of Excise, thanking him for his assiduity in his profession.

Here Mr. Cobbett stops to remark, that Paine, being turned out of the excise, and barred the church, began to write against church and state; calling the excise a "hell-born monster," and tythes the "whore of Babylon."

In May following (1774), Mr. Paine and his wife separated by mutual agreement; articles of which were finally settled on the 4th of June. Which of them was in this instance in the wrong, or whether either of them were so, must be left undetermined: this I can assert, (says Clio Rickman,) that Paine always spoke tenderly and respectfully of his wife; and sent her several times pecuniary aid, without her knowing even whence it came. Mr. Oldys, on the contrary, says, that she paid him 35l. sterling, upon condition that he would trouble her no more, nor claim any part of the property she might thereafter acquire. From Oldys's account, it is evident that Mr. Paine married for the sake of getting his debts paid, (by means of the property which Miss Ollive inherited from her father,) and that he cared nothing about the woman; in fact, he never cohabited with her, though they lived in the same house for three years. Some persons, perhaps, may recollect a case very similar to this, but in a higher rank of life.

Paine now went again to London; and he soon after procured a recommendation to Dr. Franklin in America. He accordingly sailed in September 1774, and arrived at Philadelphia a few months before the battle of Lexington. He was first engaged as shopman by Mr. Aitkin, bookseller in Philadelphia, at the wages of 20l. a-year. In November 1775, he was employed in a laboratory. He took great pains in experiments for the purpose of discovering some cheap and expeditious method of making saltpetre. He was also the proposer of a plan for the voluntary supplying of the public magazines with gunpowder. On the 10th of January, 1776, was published his "Common Sense." This was eagerly read. On the 19th of December, 1776, he published, in the Pennsylvania Journal, the first number of "The Crisis," intended to encourage the Americans in their opposition to the British government. The Crisis he continued to publish till a cessation of hostilities between America and Britain was proclaimed, on the 19th of April, 1783.

In August 1782, Paine published a Letter to the Abbé Raynal, in consequence of the latter author's publication of his History of the Revolution of America. His next production was a Letter to the Earl of Shelburne, on the effects likely to arise to Great Britain from the independence of America. His labours had not yet received any substantial reward: but, in the year 1785, the state of Pennsylvania, in which he first published Common Sense and The Crisis, presented him, by an act of legislature, with 500l. currency; and New-York gave him an estate at New Rochelle, in the county of Westchester, consisting of more than three hundred acres of land in high cultivation: on this estate was an elegant stone house, 125 by 28 feet, besides out-houses.

After the establishment of the independence of America, feeling his exertions no longer requisite in that country, he embarked for France, and arrived at Paris early in 1787, carrying with him his fame as a literary man, and profound politician. At this time he presented to the Academy of Sciences the model of a bridge which he invented, the principle of which has since been highly celebrated and approved. From Paris he arrived in England on the 3d of September, just thirteen years after his

departure for Philadelphia. Prompted by that filial affection which his conduct had ever manifested, he hastened to Thetford to visit his mother, on whom he settled an allowance of nine shillings a-week. Of this comfortable solace she was afterwards deprived, by the bankruptcy of the merchant in whom the trust was vested. Mr. Paine resided at Rotherham in Yorkshire during part of the year 1788, where an iron bridge, upon the principle alluded to, was cast and erected, and obtained for him among the mathematicians of Europe a high reputation. In the erection of this, a considerable sum had been expended, for which he was hastily arrested by the assignees of an American merchant, and thrown into confinement. From this, however, and the debt, he cleared himself in about three weeks. More or less upon this plan of Mr. Paine's, the different iron bridges in Europe have been constructed.

The publication of Mr. Burke's "Reflections on the French Revolution," produced in reply from Mr. Paine his universally-known work, the "Rights of Man." The First Part of this work was written partly at the Angel at Islington, partly in East Harding-street, Fetter-lane; and finished at Versailles. In February 1791, this book made its appearance in London, and many hundred thousand copies were rapidly sold. It was dedicated to general Washington. The Second Part was published in February 1792. Never had any work so rapid and extensive a sale; and it has been calculated that near a million and a half of copies were printed and published in England.

Thus far we have had the assistance of Mr. Oldys's Life of Paine, which was published at Philadelphia in 1793. Mr. Paine was now residing at the house of Mr. Clio Rickman, another of his biographers, and his great admirer. On the 12th of September, 1792, he sailed for France with Mr. Achilles Audibert, "who came express from the French Convention to my house, (says this biographer,) to request his personal assistance in their deliberations. On his arrival at Calais, a public dinner was provided, a royal salute was fired from the battery, the troops were drawn out, and there was a general rejoicing throughout the town. He has often been heard to remark, that the proudest moment of his life was that in which, on this occasion, he set foot upon the Gallic shore." About the time of his arrival at Paris the National Convention began to divide itself into factions; the king's friends had been completely subdued by the suppression of the Feuillans, the affair of the 10th of August, and the massacre of the 2d and 3d of September; while the Jacobins, who had been hitherto considered as the patriotic party, became in their turn divided into different cabals, some of them wishing a federative government, others, the Enragés, desiring the death of the king, and of all allied to the nobility; but none of those were republicans. Those few deputies who had just ideas of a commonwealth, and whose leader was Paine, did not belong to the Jacobin club. He laboured incessantly to preserve the life of the king, and he succeeded in making some converts to his opinions on this subject; and his life would have been saved, but for Barrere, who, having been appointed by Robespierre to an office he was ambitious of obtaining, and certainly very fit for, his influence brought with it forty votes: so early was corruption introduced into this assembly.

Paine's opinion upon this subject was always the same; and in 1804 he thus speaks of it: "With respect to the revolution, it was begun by good men on good principles; and I have ever believed it would have gone on so, had not the interference of foreign powers distracted it into madness, and sown jealousies among the leaders."

"I was one of the nine members that composed the first Committee of Constitution. Six of them have been destroyed: Sieyes and myself have survived; he by bending with the times, and I by not bending. The other survivor joined Robespierre, and signed with him the warrant for my arrest. After the fall of Robespierre, he

was

was seized and imprisoned in his turn, and sentenced to transportation. He has since apologized to me for having signed the warrant, by saying, he felt himself in danger, and was obliged to do it. Herault Sechelles, an acquaintance of Mr. Jefferson's, and a good patriot, was my *suppléant* as a member of the Committee of Constitution; that is, he was to supply my place, if I had not accepted, being next in number of votes to me. He was imprisoned in the Luxembourg with me, was taken to the tribunal, and to the guillotine; and I, his principal, was left.

"There were but two foreigners in the Convention, Anarcharis Cloots and myself. We were both put out of the convention by the same vote, arrested by the same order, and carried to prison together the same night. He was taken to the guillotine, and I was again left. Joel Barlow was with us when we went to prison.

"Joseph Lebon, one of the vilest characters that ever existed, and who made the streets of Arras run with blood, was my *suppléant* member of the convention for the department of Calais. When I was put out of the convention, he came and took my place. When I was liberated from prison, and voted again into the convention, he was sent to the same prison, and took my place there; and he went to the guillotine instead of me. He supplied my place all the way through.

"One hundred and sixty-eight persons were taken out of the Luxembourg in one night, and a hundred and sixty of them guillotined the next day, of which I know I was to have been one; and the manner I escaped that fate is curious, and has all the appearance of accident. The room in which I was lodged was on the ground-floor, and one of a long range of rooms under a gallery, and the door of it opened outward and flat against the wall; so that, when it was open, the inside of the door appeared outward, and the contrary when it was shut. I had three comrades fellow-prisoners with me: Joseph Vanhuile, of Bruges, since president of the municipality of that town, Michael Robins, and Bassini of Louvain. When persons by scores and by hundreds were to be taken out of prison for the guillotine, it was always done in the night, and those who performed that office had a private mark or signal, by which they knew what rooms to go to, and what number to take. We, as I said, were four, and the door of our room was marked, unobserved by us, with that number in chalk; but it happened, if *happening* is a proper word, that the mark was put on the door when it was open and flat against the wall, and thereby came on the inside when we shut it at night,—and the destroying angel passed it by. A few days after this Robespierre fell; and the American ambassador arrived and claimed me, and invited me to his house. During the whole of my imprisonment prior to the fall of Robespierre, there was no time when I could think my life worth twenty-four hours: and my mind was made up to meet its fate."

It was during his confinement that he wrote the first part of his "Age of Reason;" of which we need only observe, that whereas, in his Rights of Man, he extols toleration, and says that "all religions are good," in this new work he finds out that "all religions are bad," and the Christian religion the worst of all. Cobbett observes, "It was such works as Common Sense and the Rights of Man that prepared the minds of the ignorant for the reception of that daring and blasphemous publication, the Age of Reason."

After his liberation, he found a friendly asylum at the American minister's house, Mr. Monroe, afterwards president of the United States; and for some years before he left Paris, he lodged at M. Bonville's, associating occasionally with Condorcet, Volney, Mercier, Joel Barlow, &c.

He now indulged his mechanical turn, and amused himself in bridge and ship modelling, and in pursuing his favorite studies, the mathematics and natural philosophy. "These models," says a correspondent of that time, "exhibit an extraordinary degree not only of skill, but of taste in mechanics, and are wrought with extreme

delicacy entirely by his own hands. The largest of these, the model of a bridge, is nearly four feet in length; the iron-work, the chains, and every other article belonging to it, were forged and manufactured by himself. It is intended as the model of a bridge which is to be constructed across the Delaware, extending 480 feet, with only one arch. The other is to be erected over a narrow river, whose name I forget, and is likewise a single arch, and of his own workmanship. He was offered 3000*l.* for these models, and refused it. He also forged himself the model of a crane of a new description, which, when put together, exhibited the power of the lever to a most surprising degree."

Paine was always desirous to retire and end his days in America, where his chief property lay. Accordingly he bade adieu to France and to Europe in 1802. "I arrived (says he) at Baltimore on the 30th of October, 1802; and you can have no idea of the agitation which my arrival occasioned. From New Hampshire to Georgia (an extent of 1500 miles) every newspaper was filled with applause or abuse. My property in this country has been taken care of by my friends, and is now worth six thousand pounds sterling; which, put in the funds, will bring me 400*l.* sterling a-year."

In the spring of 1804, he retired to his estate at New Rochelle, mentioned in a former part of this article. In January 1809, he became very feeble and infirm, so much so as to be scarcely capable of doing any thing for himself. During this illness he was visited by many very well-meaning persons, who wished to have the honour of converting so noted a person; but their labour was thrown away upon this incorrigible unbeliever. Dr. Manley, who attended him during his last illness, observed that he would call out, during his paroxysms of pain, "O Lord, help me! God, help me! Jesus Christ, help me! &c." The doctor, therefore, addressed him in the following manner: "Mr. Paine, your opinions, by a large proportion of the community, have been treated with deference; you have never been in the habit of mixing in your conversation words of course; you have never indulged in the habit of profane swearing; you must be sensible that we are acquainted with your religious opinions as they are given to the world. What must we think of your present conduct? Why do you call on Jesus Christ to help you? Do you believe that he can help you? do you believe in the divinity of Jesus Christ? Do you believe, or wish to believe, that Jesus Christ is the son of God?" After a short pause, he answered very coolly, "I have no wish to believe on that subject."

The following anecdotes of a lighter nature, are given on the authority of Mr. Clio Rickman.—One afternoon, a very old lady, dressed in a large scarlet-hooded cloak, knocked at the door, and enquired for Thomas Paine. He was asleep. Thinking it a pity to make an old woman call twice, the servant took her into Mr. Paine's bed-room, and awoke him: he rose upon one elbow; then, with an expression of eye that made the old woman stagger back a step or two, he asked, "What do you want?" She said, "I come from Almighty God to tell you, that if you do not repent of your sins, and believe in our blessed Saviour, you will be damned; and"—"Poh, poh, it is not true!" cried Paine; "you were not sent with any such message: Jarvis, make her go away; the Almighty would not send such a foolish ugly old woman about with his messages: go away: go back: shut the door."—A Mr. Hargrove, minister of a sect called the New Jerusalemites, accosted him with, "Sir, my name is Hargrove; I am minister of the New Jerusalem church; we, sir, explain the scripture in its true meaning: the key has been lost these four thousand years, and we have found it." "Then," said Paine, in his own neat way, "I think by this time it must be somewhat rusty."

About the 4th of May, symptoms of approaching dissolution were very evident to himself; and he became too

too infirm to take any thing, complaining of much bodily pain : he expired on the 8th of June. He was interred on his own farm; and a stone was placed at the head of his grave, according to the direction in his will, with the following inscription :

THOMAS PAINE,

Author of "Common Sense."

Died June 8th, 1809, aged 72 Years and 5 Months.

See Oldys's (Pennsylvania) Life of Paine, 1793, abridged by Cobbett, 1798. Cheetham's (New York) Life of Paine, 1810. Clio Rickman's Life of Paine, 1819. Gent. Mag. Nov. 1811. Monthly Mag. July 1819. Beauties of Cobbett, Part I.—In referring to this last pamphlet, we are led to remark, that Mr. Cobbett has lately changed his opinions upon the subject of Paine's life and conversation; for, upon his late return from America, he brought with him a box of bones, which he states to be those of Thomas Paine, and over which he proposes to erect an honorary monument in this country, when the people of this country shall have furnished him with the money he deems sufficient for that purpose. Many persons question the identity of the bones; we do not: but we shall quote one more paragraph from the Beauties of Cobbett, which indeed we take to be one of the chief of his beauties: "People should always endeavour to be *consistent*, at least when interest does not interfere." Beauties, Part III.

PAINFUL, *adj.* Full of pain; miserable; beset with affliction:

Is there yet no other way, besides
These *painful* passages, how we may come
To death. *Milton's P. L.*

Giving pain; afflictive.—Evils have been more *painful* to us in the prospect, than by their actual pressure. *Addison's Spectator.*

I'm sick of this bad world!
The daylight and the sun grow *painful* to me. *Addison.*
Difficult; requiring labour.—When I thought to know this, it was too *painful* for me. *Psalms lxxiii. 16.*

The *painful* service,
The extreme dangers, and the drops of blood
Shed for my thankless country, are requited
But with that surname. *Shakespeare's Coriol.*

Industrious; laborious; exercising labour.—Great abilities, when employed as God directs, do but make the owners of them greater and more *painful* servants to their neighbours: however, they are real blessings, when in the hands of good men. *Swift.*

To dress the vines new labour is requir'd,
Nor must the *painful* husbandman be tir'd. *Dryden.*

PAINFULLY, *adv.* With great pain or affliction.—Laboriously; diligently.—Such as sit in ease at home raise a benefit out of their hunger and thirst that serve their prince and country *painfully* abroad. *Raleigh's Essays.*

The robin-redbreast *painfully*
Did cover them with leaves. *Children in the Wood.*

PAINFULNESS, *f.* Affliction; sorrow; grief.—No custom can make the *painfulness* of a debauch easy or pleasing to a man; since nothing can be pleasant that is unnatural. *South.*

With diamond in window-glass she graved,
Ere she die, and end this ugly *painfulness*. *Sidney.*

Industry; laboriousness.—*Painfulness* by feeble means shall be able to gain that which, in the plenty of more forcible instruments, is, through sloth and negligence, lost. *Hooker.*

PAINIM, *f.* [*paganus*, Lat. *paenime*, old Fr. of the 12th century, for *paganisme*; whence, *payen*.] A pagan; an infidel. *Obsolete.*—The cross hath been an ancient bear-

ing, even before the birth of our Saviour, among the *painims* themselves. *Peachment.*

Whole brigades one champion's arms o'erthrow,
Slay *painims* vile that force the fair. *Tickell.*

PAINIM, *adj.* Pagan; infidel:

Champions bold
Defy'd the best of *painim* chivalry
To mortal combat, or career with lance. *Milton's P. L.*

The Solymeian sultan he o'erthrew,
His moony troops returning bravely smeared
With *painim* blood effus'd. *Philips.*

PAINGLESS, *adj.* Free from pain; void of trouble.—He frequently blest God for so far indulging to his infirmities, as to make his disease so *painless* to him. *Fell.*

The deaths thou show'st are forc'd:
Is there no smooth descent? no *painless* way
Of kindly mixing with our native clay? *Dryden.*

PAINOM JE'UNG, a town of Thibet, on the Painom-tchieu: 122 miles south-south-west of Lassa, and 160 north of Beyhar. Lat. 29. N. lon. 89. 8. E.

PAINOM-TCHIEU, a river of Thibet, which runs into the Burhampooter five miles south of Sgigatchee-Jeung.

PAINOUC, a town of Chinese Tartary. Lat. 41. 56. N. lon. 119. 49. E.

PAINPONT, a town of France, in the department of the Morbihan: six miles south-east of Moron.

PAINSHAW, a township of England, in the county of Durham, with 1399 inhabitants: eight miles north of Durham.

PAINSTAKER, *f.* Labourer; laborious person:
I'll prove a true *pains-taker* day and night;
I'll spin and card, and keep our children tight. *Gay.*

PAINS-TAKING, *adj.* Laborious; industrious.—The Galicians are a plodding *pains-taking* race of mortals, that roam over Spain in search of an hardly-earned subsistence. *Swinburne's Trav. through Spain.*

PAINS-TAKING, *f.* Great industry.—A poor gratitude for your *pains-taking*. *Beaumont and Fletcher's Span. Curate.*

PAINSWICK, a small market-town, in the county of Gloucester, is seated on the southern declivity of Sponebed-hill, at the distance of six miles south-south-east from the city of Gloucester, and 101 miles west-by-north from London. It is a town of considerable antiquity, being mentioned in Domesday-book under the name of *Wiche*. The manor then belonged to Roger de Lacy, who, joining in the rebellion excited by Robert Curthose against his father, was deprived of all his possessions. On this event Painswick became the lordship of *Pain Fitz-John*, from whom it derived the former part of its present designation. Since that period it has been inherited by several noble personages, and, among others, by the lords Talbot.

Painswick consists of several streets, very irregularly built. The church, dedicated to St. Mary, is the only edifice worthy of notice. This building has a nave, a chancel, and a north and south aisle, with a tower and spire at the west end, rising to the height of 174 feet. Its style of architecture is mixed and incongruous; the south aisle, which is modern, is supported by Doric pillars, and the entrance is beneath an Ionic portico, while the body of the church is in the pointed style. The spouts under the battlements of the north aisle represent singularly-grotesque heads of demons. In the chancel are several monuments of the Jerningham family. The church underwent a thorough repair in 1743, when a handsome altar-piece was put up.

Painswick has a nominal market on Tuesdays; and two fairs, Tuesday in Whitsun-week, and the 19th of September. According to the parliamentary returns of 1811, the town and parish contain 674 houses, and a population

tion of 3201 persons, a great proportion of whom are employed in the woollen-trade.

Above the town, on the summit of Sponebed-hill, is an ancient entrenchment, designated by the different appellations of Kembisburly Castle, King's Barrow, and Castle Godwin. This fortification is of a square shape, and has a double ditch and vallum. The inner rampart incloses an area of about three acres, and, as well as the outer one, is still of considerable height, though both have of late years suffered great dilapidation for the sake of the stones employed in constructing them. This encampment is supposed to have been of Roman origin, as coins of that people are frequently dug up within its area. It was afterwards, however, occupied by earl Godwin, during the insurrection made for the expulsion of all foreigners from the kingdom; and again by the royalist army, after the siege of Gloucester, in the time of the grand rebellion. The position of this entrenchment, in a military view, is excellent, as, from its loftiness, it has a prospect over the vale to Malvern-Hills, Shropshire, Worcestershire, Herefordshire, and Monmouthshire.

Shepcombe is a hamlet in the parish of Painswick, three miles from the church. In the reign of Edward VI. there were several insurrections in the west; at which time sir Anthony Kingston was lord of the manor. He caused a gallows to be erected for the insurgents upon Shepcombe-green; and made a prison at Painswick, to secure all sorts of offenders; he gave three pieces of land, now called *Gallows-lands*, one to maintain the gallows, the second to keep two ladders in readiness, the third to provide halters; and, that nothing in so necessary a business might be wanting, provided the tything-man of Shepcombe should be hangman, that he should enjoy an acre of land in this tything for his service.

Haresfield parish, to the westward of Painswick, contains some vestiges of antiquity. On the high ridge of hills which shelter the village is a very singular entrenchment, conjectured to have been a station of the Romanized Britons. It extends on one side 600 yards in length, and is defended by a single vallum fifteen feet high. Connected with this work is another, (partly in the parish of Standish,) which incloses the bold promontory called Beacon-hill by a "transverse vallation fifty feet deep, and containing fifteen acres." At Harescomb is the site of an ancient castle of the Bohuns. *Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. v. *Bigland's Hist. of Gloucestershire*, vol. ii. *Wilkes's British Directory*, vol. iv. *England's Gazetteer*, vol. i. ii.

To PAINT, *v. a.* [*peindre*, Fr. *pinto*, Ital. *pintar*, Span. *penta*, Icel. *pingo*, *picus*, Lat.] To represent by delineation and colours:

We'll have thee, as our rarer monsters are,
Painted upon a pole. *Shakespeare's Macbeth.*

To cover with colours representative of something:

Who fears a sentence, or an old man's faw,
Shall by a *paint*ed cloth be kept in awe. *Shakespeare.*

To represent by colours, appearances, or images.—Till we, from an author's words, *paint* his very thoughts in our minds, we do not understand him. *Locke.*

Whether the charmer sinner it or faint it,
When folly grows romantic, we must *paint* it. *Pope.*

To describe; to represent.—The lady is disloyal. Disloyal! The word is too good to *paint*-out her wickedness. *Shakespeare.*—To colour; to diversify:

Such is His will that *paints*
The earth with colours fresh,
The darkest skies with stores of starry lights. *Spenser.*

To deck with artificial colours in fraud or ostentation.—Jezebel *paint*ed her face and tired her head. *2 Kings*, ix. 30.

Hath not old custom made this life more sweet
Than that of *paint*ed pomp? are not these woods
More free from peril than the court itself? *Shakespeare.*

To PAINT, *v. n.* To lay colours on the face:

Oh! if to dance all night, and dress all day,
Charm'd the small-pox; or chas'd old age away,
To patch, nay ogle, might become a faint,
Nor would it sure be such a sin to *paint*. *Pope.*

PAINT, *f.* Colours representative of any thing.—The church of the Annunciation looks beautiful in the inside, all but one corner of it being covered with statues, gilding, and *paint*. *Addison on Italy.*

Poets are limners,

To copy out ideas in the mind;
Words are the *paint* by which their thoughts are shown;
And nature is their object to be drawn. *Granville.*

Colours laid on the face.—Together lay her pray'r-book
and her *paint*. *Anon.*

Arts on the mind, like *paint* upon the face,
Fright him that's worth your love from your embrace.
Young.

Pigment. Colours ready prepared for artists and house-painters, and sold by colourmen. See the article PAINTING.

PAINT, a town of the United States, in Fayette-county, in the state of Ohio; with 534 inhabitants.—A town of Highland-county, in the same state; with 775 inhabitants.

PAINTED LADY, *f.* in botany. See DIANTHUS.

PAINTED-LADY PE'A. See LATHYRUS.

PAINTED POST, a town of the state of New-York: thirty miles east of Bath.

PAINTEN, a town of Bavaria, in the principality of Neuburg: ten miles east-south-east of Dietfurt, and eleven west of Ratibon.

PAINTER, *f.* One who professes the art of representing objects by colours.—Beauty is only that which makes all things as they are in their proper and perfect nature; which the best *painters* always chuse by contemplating the forms of each. *Dryden.*—A naval term.—*Painter* is a rope employed to fasten a boat either alongside of the ship to which she belongs, or to some wharf or key. *Nautical Terms in Hawke'sworth's Voyages.*

PAINTER'S HARBOUR, a port on the west coast of the island of Cape Breton. Lat. 46. N.

PAINTING, *f.* The art of representing objects by delineation and colours.—If *painting* be acknowledged for an art, it follows that no arts are without their precepts. *Dryden.*

'Tis in life as 'tis in *painting*,
Much may be right, yet much be wanting. *Prior.*

Picture; the painted resemblance:

This is the very *painting* of your fear;
This is the air-drawn dagger which you said
Led you to Duncan. *Shakespeare's Macbeth.*

The *painting* is almost the natural man:
For, since dishonour trafficks with man's nature,
He is but outside: pencill'd figures are
Ev'n such as they give out. *Shakespeare's Timon.*

Colours laid on:

If any such be here
That love this *painting*, wherein you see me smeared,
Let him express his disposition. *Shakespeare's Coriol.*

TREATISE ON PAINTING.

By an admirable effort of human genius, PAINTING offers to the eye every thing which is most valuable in the universe. Its empire extends over every age and country. It presents to us the heroic deeds of ancient times, as well as the facts in which we are more conversant; and distant objects, as well as those which we daily see. In this respect, it may be considered as a supplement to Nature, which gives us only a view of present objects.

Mr. Shee, in the notes to his *Rhymes on Art*, maintains the superiority of painting over poetry; but the argument is idle and absurd. The powers of the painter and of the poet are both creative; and, when employed under the inspiration of real genius, the effects of both are eminently striking. In some instances, the painter has the advantage of the poet, and in others the reverse may be stated. If the former exceeds the latter in the exactness with which his conceptions are embodied, the latter often presents pictures to the imagination which the former cannot express by the utmost force of his art. The painter can only catch a particular instant, while the poet can exhibit the progress of an action; and, though the artist may boast of the superiority of imitation over description, he must know that "the poet's eye in a fine frenzy rolling" often sees more than lines and colours can possibly exhibit. Which has the precedence, we shall not decide; but we shall hope that the partnership which has so long subsisted between poetry and painting will not now be interrupted.

The painter who is distinguished for noble and profound conceptions; who, by means of a perfect delineation, and colours more capable of fixing the attention than dazzling the eye, conveys to the spectators the sentiments with which he himself was inspired; who animates them with his genius, and makes a lasting impression on their minds; this artist is a poet, and worthy to share even in the glories of Homer. But, if he seek only to please or astonish by the illusion of colours, he must rest contented with the secondary merit of flattering the eye with the variety and opposition of tints, or of making an industrious assemblage of a great multiplicity of objects. It is in painting as it is in poetry: the man who clothes trivial or common ideas in verse, exercises the profession of twisting syllables into a certain measure; the poet, who clothes in good verse ideas and sentiments that are merely agreeable, professes an agreeable art. But he who, by the magic of verse, of ideas, of imagery, or of colours, adds sublimity to the sublime objects of nature, is a great poet and a great painter. He deserves the crown which the nations have decreed to Homer, Virgil, Milton, Raphael, and the statuary who modelled the ancient Apollo. It is reasonable to place in the same class those who have expressed the same ideas, whether it be in verse or in colours, on brass or on marble. The painter and statuary, who excel in their professions, deserve all the respect due to genius: they are of the number of those men whom nature, sparing of her best gifts, grants but occasionally to the inhabitants of the earth. If they are sublime, they elevate the human race; if they are agreeable only, they excite those sweet sensations necessary to our happiness.

HISTORY OF ANCIENT PAINTING.

The desire of imitation appears to be so congenial to the mind, that one can scarcely imagine there could have been any lengthened period of time when it was not called into action, as an agent, either of amusement, of information, or of instruction. Of drawing or painting more particularly, it appears reasonable to suppose, that it must have been adopted for either or all of these purposes in

the earliest stages of human society, though in its very simplest and rudest form.

It is to be imagined that men must naturally, and very early, have conceived an idea of the first principles of the art of painting: the shadow of each plant and animal, and of every object in nature, must have afforded them the means of conceiving, and pointed out the possibility of imitating, the figures of all bodies. In accordance with this idea, Pliny tells a story, which makes love the origin of painting: he says that one Corinthia, a girl of Sicyon, being in love with a certain youth who was to depart the next day, and finding him asleep near a lamp that was burning, the shadow of his face, which appeared on the wall, seemed so like him, that she was incited to draw the extremities of it; and thus made a portrait of her lover.

The savage nations, an emblem of what men were in the infancy of society, possess the first rudiments of this art, even before those which are useful and almost necessary to existence: their naked bodies are covered with punctures of various forms, into which they infuse indelible colours. The next demand for this art, is to preserve the memory of warlike exploits. It is more natural to form some representation of an action, than to give an account of it by means of arbitrary characters. Hence the picture-writing of the Mexicans, and the more complex hieroglyphics of Egypt.

Plato, who lived 400 years before the Christian era, informs us that painting had been practised in EGYPT for ten thousand years; that some of the productions of that high antiquity were in existence; and that they bore an exact resemblance to those which the Egyptians executed in his time. Without regarding the period of ten thousand years mentioned by Plato, it is reasonable to consider it as an indeterminate period, which carries us back to very remote antiquity.

The figures, either in the painting or sculpture of Egypt, were extremely stiff; the legs were drawn together, and the arms were pasted to the sides. It appears that their only model was their mummies, and that their skill in anatomy was derived from embalming them. They were extremely incorrect in every part of the head; they placed the ears much higher than the nose. Besides, they gave the face the form of a circle instead of an oval; the chin was short and rounded; the cheeks excessively so; and they turned upwards the corners of the mouth and eyes. Some of these faults may be ascribed to the formation of the human face in Egypt; but the placing of the ears could only be founded in caprice or ignorance.

The exactness of the Egyptian proportion is much celebrated; but, although we grant that they observed the proper length of the different parts of the human body, they were still defective artists, since they did not observe the breadth, and were moreover ignorant altogether of the shape and size of the muscles. Works converted to religious purposes chiefly occupied the Egyptian painters. They had figures for imitation from which they would not depart, and those figures were monstrous: the bodies of animals with the heads of men; the bodies of men with the heads of animals; or, if the figure was more agreeable to nature in its parts, yet it was so deformed and imaginary, as to have nothing similar to it as a whole.

The monuments of Egyptian painting with which we are best acquainted (says Winklemann) are the chests of mummies. These works have resisted the injuries of time, and are still submitted to the examination of the curious. The white, made of white-lead, is spread over the ground

OF

of the piece; the outlines of the figure are traced with black strokes, and the colours are four in number; namely, blue, red, yellow, and green, laid on without any mixture or shading. The red and blue prevail most; and those colours seem to have been prepared in the coarsest manner. The light is formed by leaving those parts of the ground where it is necessary covered with the white-lead, as it is formed by the white paper in some of our drawings.

In Upper Egypt there seems to have existed a kind of colossal painting, which has never been examined except by travellers who were no great critics in the art. Winklemann had some reason to express a desire that those remains of antiquity, with regard to the manner of working, the style, and the character, had been accurately explored. Walls of twenty-four feet in height, and pillars of thirty-two feet in circumference, are wholly covered with those colossal figures. According to Norden, they are coloured in the same manner with the mummies: the colours are applied to a ground prepared in manner of fresco; and they have retained their freshness for many thousand years. Winklemann adds, that all the efforts of human skill and industry could make as little impression on them as the injuries of time.

It appears that the chief employment of the Egyptian painters was on earthen vessels, on drinking cups, in ornamenting barges, and in covering with figures the chests of mummies. They painted also on cloth; and Pliny informs us that they likewise painted the precious metals; that is to say, they varnished or enamelled them. It is doubtful what this art was, but most probably it consisted in covering gold or silver with a single colour.

But, in Egypt, the knowledge of what is most desirable in art, selection, never appears to have operated far. When a specific form of character was once adopted, there it remained, and was repeated unchanged for generations. Little action was given to figures, and no attempt at all at expression. Pliny says, that the statues made by the Egyptians in his time differed in no respect from those made by them a thousand years before. Of their painting, a few figures remain to us; but their date is by no means clear. Two of them, seen at Thebes, and described by Bruce, are supposed by him to be of the time of Sesostris, (about 700 years B.C.) who is said to have beautified and restored that city; but this is mere conjecture. Of these paintings, he remarks, that they may be compared with good sign-paintings of his day.

The Persians were so far from excelling in the arts, that the paintings of Egypt were highly esteemed among them, after they had conquered that country. The carpets of Persia were of great value in Greece, even in the time of Alexander the Great, and these were adorned with various figures; but this is no proof that they were well executed, any more than a demand for several of the Chinese productions is at present a proof of the taste of that people in the arts. It was the fabrication of the silk, and not the truth of the representation, which made the Greeks admire the carpets of the Persians.

The Persians as well as the Arabians had some knowledge of mosaic-work. This is only valuable when it copies, in a manner that cannot be destroyed, the works of a great master; but, if the Persians had no good pictures to copy into mosaic, it was of no consequence to be able to arrange in a solid manner pieces of flint one beside another. There is only one Persian painter whose name has descended to posterity; and he is preserved, not because he was a painter, but because he accommodated the ancient doctrine of the two principles to the Christian religion. Besides, it is doubted whether *Munes* was a Persian or a Greek, and it is still less known whether he was a painter. He is praised in Asia for drawing straight lines without a ruler.

In the reign of Ninus and Semiramis, king and queen of Assyria, about 2000 years before the commencement of the Christian era, we have but a glimpse of the art;

and are then immersed in the same obscurity as before, where nought but conjecture, and arguments drawn from subsequent events, are the guides. Diodorus Siculus relates, (lib. ii.) "that Semiramis, having thrown a bridge over the Euphrates at Babylon, erected a castle at each end of it, and enclosed them by three walls of considerable height, with towers upon them: these were built of brick, painted and burnt. These paintings exhibit a very great advance in the arts for that early period; for he says, "the bricks were painted before they underwent the fire;" (so that, if this account be correct, here was enamel as well as painting;) "and that not only there were single figures of animals represented in colours, but they were also combined in groups; one, a hunting-piece of considerable length, wherein the queen herself was represented on horseback, throwing her dart at a panther; and near her Ninus striking a lion to the earth with his spear." They were of great extent, covering walls, and towers attached to them. One other mention of painting is found in the same author, concerning the same period, and under the guidance of Semiramis; and that is, of paintings in the temple dedicated to Belus, and founded by her. In them were represented monstrous figures, exhibiting hermaphrodites and centaurs, or unnatural combinations, probably allusive to the idolatry of the time. Diodorus also mentions the situation of the arts in Egypt at about the same period, where probably they had attained nearly the same degree of cultivation; sculpture, as best serving religious purposes, being in both countries carried much farther than the sister art of painting.

From Egypt the arts were supposed to have been transplanted to GREECE, where a more genial culture awaited them; where they had not to struggle with such impediments as arose from the government and habits of Egypt; and where alone, in the more early period of the world, they are found to have been fully brought into action. In other countries, where any trace is visible of them wrought before the Greeks had exhibited their power, the best exemplars are little better than hieroglyphics; and, most probably, they never far exceeded the efforts of youthful learners of the present day.

It is, doubtless, to the Greeks alone we are indebted for the highest cultivation which the imitative arts have known. In sculpture they attained so high a pitch of excellence, as to remain unrivalled to this moment; and it is probable that, as far as relates to the perfect imitation of a *single figure*, in taste, in expression, and in execution, the same may be said of their painting: but there is much reason to conclude that, in many branches of that art, they are surpassed by the moderns.

Pliny, after smiling at the claims of the Egyptians, who said that the art had been known and practised in Egypt 6000 years before it was introduced into Greece, says that it was not practised in Greece till after the siege of Troy; a circumstance certainly not credible, if the story above related of Semiramis be true; and if Homer be correct in imputing so much of sculpture as he does to the artists of that period; or the amusements of Penelope, of Andromache, and of Helen, at their looms, be at all founded in fact. It is not probable that so much of other arts, particularly of weaving coloured designs, should exist, without some advance being made at the only source whence it is natural to imagine they could arise. It is vain to discuss the point; nor is it of much consequence whether it were at Corinth or at Sicyon that the practice of drawing first attracted particular notice. But, as Mr. Fuseli has beautifully observed, in his first lecture, "if ever legend deserved our belief, the amorous tale of the Corinthian maid, who traced the shadow of her departing lover by the secret lamp, appeals to our sympathy to grant it."

The first essays, then, of this delightful art, were merely outlines of a shade, such as are still made use of in that agent of the science of physiognomy termed a *filhouette*; with no line within, no shade, or colour; and they were therefore

therefore called *skiagrams*. The next step was to the *monogram*, or lines within the outline; and afterwards to the *monochrom*, or outlines filled up with one single colour. This, by study, and a more scientific mode of proceeding, advanced to the *polychrom*, or picture of many colours; and at length was perfected by that harmony of tone, so exalted in the hands of Apelles and his contemporaries.

Pliny mentions the name of Saurias, as one who practised the earliest stage of the art, and of his drawing the figure of a horse; and of Philocles the Egyptian, Cleantes of Corinth, Ardices of the same place, and Telephanes of Sicily, who advanced to the monographic. Cleophantes of Corinth is said to have been the first who practised the monochromatic, and his colour to have been that of a pounded tile. In concurrence with him, or after him, wrought Hygiemon, Dinias, and Charmas; and probably one of these improved the monochromatic style, so as not to make a whole picture, containing many figures, of one colour in every part, but varied the colours, so as to characterise the different objects introduced. According to Quintilian, (lib. ii. c. 3.) "they could so manage the single colour which they used in the monochromatic style, as to give every appearance of relief to parts;" but, by what means, as light and shade appear not to have been observed, he does not say. After these came Eumarus the Athenian, and Cymon of Cleonea; to the latter of whom Pliny gives the praise of having greatly advanced the art, by giving variety of attitudes to his figures, attending to the folds of draperies, and more discriminately marking the joints and veins of the body than had been done by his predecessors.

To the existence of none of the above-mentioned artists does Pliny, or any other author, affix a date; but he contends, and with reason, for that of an established and important fact in the history of the art, viz. that about the 56th olympiad, or little better than 700 years before the Christian era, Candaules king of Lydia purchased a picture painted by Bularchus, called the Battle of the Magnetes, and gave for it its weight in gold; a sufficient proof of the high esteem the art was held in at that time; though we ought by no means to deduce from it, that Bularchus had arrived at any other degree of perfection than what placed him among the best of *his day*; and it tells but very little as to the actual state of the art at the time: since, in its infancy, the patron could only be guided in his judgment by what had preceded; and the best, though moderate, has always received the highest eulogiums from those who, of necessity, are ignorant of superior exertions.

Whatever was the degree of excellence to which the immediate successors of this fortunate painter carried the art, we must be content to remain entirely ignorant of it. Possibly the confusions of civil anarchy and of foreign wars, which followed this period, and brought Athens, and indeed all Greece, near to destruction, prevented in a great degree the exercise of an art, which requires the fostering aid of peace, of science, and of patronage flowing from the hand of power.

When intestine commotion had subsided, and Xerxes had been driven out of Greece, then the depression under which her inhabitants had groaned, was removed, and her spirit revived, exalted by a sense of its own dignity and importance. Genius then stepped forth from its retreat, encouraged and rewarded. The liberal arts, aided by the general cultivation of mind which then took place, were summoned to assist in erecting monuments to the heroic deeds of the national heroes; and again we are enabled to trace the steps of painting, still weak and tottering in her gait at first, but soon advancing with amazing rapidity towards the highest point she is supposed ever to have reached.

Sculpture was most probably practised with continued success, even during the times of distress and warfare. The necessities of the idolatrous religion, which so pow-

erfully controlled the Greeks, might alone have required the exertion of all the talents the country could produce. We can no otherwise account for the immense advance which that art is found to have made before painting, at the period of which we are speaking. Phidias, who was the most renowned among sculptors, guided the hand of his brother Panæus, (the first painter whose name occurs after the re-appearance of the art,) in adorning the walls of the portico called Pœcile at Athens, where he painted the Battle of Marathon, and introduced into it the portraits of the principal commanders, both Greek and Persian. But how great was the difference between their powers! The former, among other works, had produced those in the temple of Minerva, called the Parthenon, which to this day remain a source of admiration and of envy; while that of the latter, as described by Pausanias, (Attics, lib. i. c. 16.) exhibit his art still in its infancy: although Pliny observes, that the painters were then supplied with colours better suited to their purpose; and thus proves that the practice of it had continued in cultivation, however slow its progress. To Panæus, however, Greece was indebted for an anxious zeal to advance the art he practised to a more equal station with sculpture; and in his time prizes were instituted at Delphos and at Corinth for its encouragement; where he himself contended, but was excelled by Timagoras of Chalcis.

Just so far as to have become the partial and humble rival of sculpture in bas-relief, with the exception of colour, had painting at this period proceeded; and even Polygnotus of Thasos, who succeeded Panæus, advanced it no farther than a more vivid imagination, acting upon the same system, might rationally be supposed to have done. He also was employed to paint in the Pœcile at Athens, and in the Lescœ, or public hall, at Delphos. Three of his pictures in the latter place are minutely described by Pausanias. The same imperfect elemental principle is their basis as in that of his predecessor, or rather perhaps his contemporary; at least in part; for Pliny says Polygnotus was prior to the 90th olympiad, and Phidias is known to have died in the first year of the 91st, (432 years B.C.) The pictures by Polygnotus which were at Delphos were works of immense labour, from the number of figures introduced in each; but they were entirely without any idea of composition, perspective, or *chiaro-scuro*. Each figure had its appropriate action, consistent with its history and character; but no connection in lines with its neighbour: and, that the observer might be at no loss of time in considering whom they represented, the painter had placed a name to every figure. They were arranged in rows, beside or over each other; and Pausanias, in describing them, begins at one end, and proceeds with an individual enumeration of them to the other, and then speaks of other figures *over* these; but whether they diminished in size, does not appear. Yet Polygnotus was a man endowed with uncommon talents, and certainly advanced his art very far in point of expression and action in his figures, and in ideal colouring. Of this, his figure of the demon Eurynomus, in one of the pictures above-mentioned, viz. of Ulysses consulting the shade of Tiresias in Hades, is a sufficient proof. "His colour," says Pausanias, "is between black and azure, like that of flies who infest meat; he shows his teeth, and sits upon the skin of a vulture." Pliny also says of this artist, that he was the first who dressed his female portraits in gay colours; and he has been highly complimented by Lucian, who invokes his aid to accomplish his perfect woman. "Polygnotus," says he, shall open and spread her eyebrows, and give her that fine glowing decent blush, which so inimitably beautifies his Cassandra. He likewise shall give her an easy flowing dress, with all its delicate wavings; partly clinging to her body, and partly fluttering in the wind."

It could not be many years after the time of Polygnotus, or perhaps it was even during his life, that another

ther step in advance was made in the art of painting, by Apollodorus of Athens; whose name is particularly mentioned by Pliny, as having discovered the principle of beauty, or rather having first adopted it in painting; for it had long been known and practised in sculpture. From this period, the art assumes its most essential character, and its most pleasing one; making man its object, not individual men; the genus, not the species; except in the more humble work of portraiture. By this sentiment Pliny must himself have been actuated, when he says that, "before Apollodorus, none were worthy of record as artists; and that no picture had till then been produced which a man might take pleasure in observing for any length of time."

The system of Apollodorus, to whatever height he bore it, was eagerly embraced by his pupil and successor, Zeuxis of Heraclea; of whom his master did not deem it derogatory to himself to say, (in some verses which he wrote,) that "the art of painting had been stolen from its professors, and practised by Zeuxis alone." Uniting the simple but energetic style of Polygnotus with the peculiar selection and taste of his master, he certainly appears to have surpassed both. It is the remark of Quintilian, that he considered the poetic unity of character adopted by Homer, in the descriptions of his heroes, as his model; and gave to each individual he painted the peculiar distinction of a class. This must have been his object, at least, in the picture of Juno, which he painted for her temple at Agrigentum, according to a vow which the inhabitants of that place had made. For, before he began the picture, he desired to see all the most beautiful maidens of the city; and from them he chose five whose form he most admired; intending to exhibit the most perfect combination of female forms, by selecting and adopting the most beautiful parts of each.

Among the principal productions of Zeuxis are enumerated, a figure of Penelope, wherein he is said not only to have given her a becoming person, but also to have expressed the qualities and affections of her mind; another, of Jupiter on his throne, accompanied by the gods; Hercules strangling the serpents in his cradle, in the presence of Alcmena and Amphictyon; and of a wrestler, or champion, with which he himself was greatly delighted, and wrote underneath it, "that it would be more easily envied than imitated." Having acquired great riches, he refused to paint any longer for money, and gave away his pictures; declaring they were above all price. Of him and his rival Parrhasius, it is difficult to say which carried the art to the greatest extent, or was most vain-glorious. The story which Pliny relates of their contest, by no means settles the former; as both their pictures were mere matters of imitation, and could have little to do with their real excellencies, except in colouring. But, if the fact be true, it is a wonderful instance of their perfection in that point, and totally excludes the possibility of belief in what he says concerning the colouring materials with which they were acquainted, viz. only four; and those impure and imperfect in themselves. A curtain might, indeed, be of a dull colour; and possibly such an one Parrhasius might have imitated with such materials, and so perfectly as to have deceived Zeuxis; but it is to be presumed, the luscious transparency, colour, and brilliancy, of the grape, in those days, were not very widely different from what it now exhibits; and those pure qualities can only be imitated by the purest and most perfect of colours. Zeuxis, indeed, having himself mistaken the painted curtain of Parrhasius for a real one, was obliged to acknowledge himself surpassed; or must have submitted to the inference, that his penetration was not superior to that of the birds whom he had deceived. It was remarked, in favour of Parrhasius, that he had a purer eye to proportion and symmetry, which he is said to have reduced to rule; that he rounded the boundaries of his figures into their grounds better than those who had preceded him; and that he superadded the charms of grace

in the action of the body and features, and in the disposal of hair and draperies. As the vanity of Zeuxis led him to have his name embroidered in gold upon the border of his robe, when he attended at the Olympian games; that of Parrhasius induced him to wear a purple robe and a golden garland; to bear a staff wound round with tendrils of gold; and to have sandals tied to his feet and ankles with golden straps. He styled himself *Abrodiatus*, the dainty or delicate, and declared he was descended of Apollo; and that he had nightly visits by Hercules, while he was painting a picture of that divinity. The emperor Tiberius was so delighted with a picture of his, of an Archigallus, or chief-priest of Cybele, that he kept it constantly in his own room, and valued it at 60,000 sesterces, 484l. 10s. Pliny mentions many of his works; and also that, though he was thus skilful, he was excelled, according to the opinion of the Samians, by Timanthes, in a picture of Ajax at the award of the armour of Achilles to Ulysses; whereon he simply remarked, that his regret was only, that such a hero as Ajax should have been overcome a second time by a man unworthy of the honour!

The quality for which Timanthes is renowned, is vigour of imagination. This aided him to fill the decided corporeal forms, now fixed as characteristic, with passion; and it is sufficiently illustrated by that well-known circumstance of the peculiar action given by him to his figure of Agamemnon, in the picture representing the sacrifice of Iphigenia; and by the mode in which he embodied the idea of grandeur in stature, in a small picture of a Cyclops; viz. by introducing some satyrs, supposed to be of the usual size of man, measuring the length of the giant's thumb with a thyrsus. One of his pictures remained at the time Pliny wrote, about 400 years afterwards, in the Temple of Peace, at Rome. He calls it the portrait of a prince; and says "it is so perfect, and so full of majesty, that it appears to comprise every thing desirable in the art of painting."

The art continued advancing by rapid degrees at this period. Nature, in form, in colour, and expression, was the guide; and to develop her beauties the sole object of the artists. Eupompus sufficiently displayed this basis, in his advice to Lyfippus the sculptor, who enquired of him, whom among his predecessors he should make the objects of his imitation. "Behold," said the painter, showing his friend a multitude of characters passing by, "behold my models! From nature, not from art, by whomsoever wrought, must the artist labour, who hopes to attain honour and extend the boundary of his art." (Pliny, lib. xxxiv. c. 8.)

To such a pitch of excellence was painting at this time advanced among the Greeks, that it was thought worthy of being ranked at the head of the liberal arts; and was ordered to be taught to the sons of the higher classes, in preference to all other things, according to Pliny, but forbidden to be practised by slaves. Such was the honour done to it, by the influence which the painter Pamphilus of Amphipolis had acquired. Of him it is remarked, that he was the first who proved the value which the art acquired, by an union with science and literature; and to him Apelles, the unrivalled hero of Grecian painting, was indebted for his initiation to its mysteries.

This extraordinary man (Apelles) appears, if we give full credit to the traditions concerning him, to have been endowed with a more perfect combination of rare talent and excellent qualities, than has, either before or since, fallen to the lot of any other. He had, besides, the peculiar felicity of being born at that period when his country was at its highest pinnacle of cultivation; so that mankind saw in him the happy union of a perfect mind, strengthened and guided by the best assistance education could possibly afford. Not only as an artist is he extolled above all others, but equally so as a man; for his gentleness, his amiability, generosity, and magnanimity. Pliny places the time when he flourished in the 12th olympiad, (328 years B.C.) and adds, that he became so consummate

mate in the art, that he alone enriched it more than all his predecessors had done; and compiled several books upon it, wherein he illustrated its principles. It is agreed by all writers who speak of him, that in him the art of painting reached its acmè. He himself indeed acknowledged, that he was surpassed by several artists in different branches of its practice; by Amphion in disposition, by Asclepiodorus in proportion, &c. but that, in the combination of the whole, he excelled them all.

That Apelles was a most powerful and agreeable painter, and that he must have given a degree of taste, of grace, of life, and effect, to his figures, which had never till then been equalled in their union, is evident, since it is the general unvarying opinion of all writers who have mentioned him; and they are neither few nor weak. As many of his pictures were preserved at Rome in the time of Pliny, he had an opportunity of judging for himself; as far at least as their condition after such a lapse of time (nearly 400 years) would allow him; but the tribute which he pays to the excellence of his *mind*, is, of course, deduced from the reports of others. There appears in the latter no extravagant hyperbole which leads to disbelief; and his generous conduct towards so powerful a rival as Protogenes, well deserves the honourable mention made of it. Being highly delighted with a picture of Jalyfus, painted by that artist, he sailed to Rhodes on purpose to visit him; where, finding him neglected and in poverty, he purchased some of his works, and declared that he intended to sell them as his own. Roused to a recognition of the talents of their fellow-citizen by such powerful testimony as that of Apelles, they raised him from his humble situation to rank and fortune. The well-known contest of these two friendly artists, in the lines they drew as designatory of themselves, exhibiting that taste and skill which they knew none but themselves possessed, stands upon well-founded testimony as a fact. The tablet whereon they were drawn remained untouched, was taken to Rome, and was there seen by Pliny himself; who speaks of it, as having the appearance of a large blank surface; the extreme delicacy of the lines rendering them invisible, except on a close inspection. They were drawn with different colours, one upon, or rather within, the other. To judge from his account of it, it might be supposed that all the beauty lay in the extreme delicacy of the points which had been used, and of the hands which had applied them; but it is reasonable to suppose, that the first direction of the line might have some principle of beauty for its guide, by which, as well as by the neatness of its execution, Protogenes was instantly moved to the declaration, that none but Apelles could have drawn it!

Beloved, honoured, and employed, by Alexander, Apelles had the happiness of enjoying that fulness of renown to which he was so justly entitled. Alexander, the envy and admiration of the world, treated the painter with the familiarity of a friend; ordained that none other should presume to paint his likenesses; frequently visited him; and crowned his favours by a sacrifice to friendship of a most uncommon nature among men: depriving himself of a beloved object, his favourite Campaspe, and giving her to gratify the affection of one whom he so much esteemed.

The pictures produced by this exalted artist were numerous, and are mentioned pretty much at length by Pliny, lib. xxxv. cap. 10. But, perhaps the best comment upon his talents as a painter, will be found in the character Mr. Fuseli has given of him. He places him in that rank where every thinking mind will be gratified to find him. "The name," he observes, "of Apelles in Pliny, is the synonym of unrivalled and unattainable excellence; but the enumeration of his works points out the modification which we ought to apply to that superiority: it neither comprises exclusive sublimity of invention, the most acute discrimination of character, the widest sphere of comprehension, the most judicious and best-balanced composition, nor the deepest pathos of expression; his great prerogative consisted more in the union than the

extent of his powers; he knew better what he could do, what ought to be done, at what point he could arrive, and what lay beyond his reach, than any other artist. Grace of conception, and refinement of taste, were his elements, and went hand in hand with grace of execution, and taste in finish; powerful, and seldom possessed singly, irresistible when united." That our readers may judge for themselves of the propriety of these remarks, we will enumerate, from Pliny, the pictures of which he speaks, and which, of course, may be supposed to convey a very just idea of the class of subjects generally chosen by Apelles. Of Alexander the Great, and his father Philip, the portraits he painted were very numerous; some single, and some accompanied by other figures. One, in the temple of Diana at Ephesus, of Alexander launching thunder, is highly extolled for its effect, and the boldness of its relief; "the hand which was raised appearing to come forward, and the lightning to be out of the picture." In another of the same king, he was represented in a triumphal chariot, near him the figure of War with his hands tied behind his back. This, and another Alexander, accompanied by Castor and Pollux, and a figure of Victory, were preserved by Augustus in the forum. Many other portraits are mentioned; viz. of Antiochus king of Syria; of Antigonus; Archelaus, with his wife and daughter; Abron, an effeminate debauchee; Clytus on horseback, armed, except his head, with an attendant delivering his helmet to him; and of Megabyfus, a priest of the temple of Diana at Ephesus, sacrificing, in his pontifical vestments. In subjects of fancy, are, a Diana surrounded by her nymphs, attending at a sacrifice; Neoptolemus, son of Achilles, on horseback, contending with Persians; Hercules with his back towards the observer, and his head turned round so as to show his face; a horse painted in competition with other painters, and said to have excited living horses to neigh; and, lastly, his renowned picture of Venus rising from the sea; which, being taken to Rome, was dedicated by Augustus in the temple of Julius Cæsar; and several Greek epigrams upon it are preserved in the Anthologia. So great was its perfection, that no artist could be found who would undertake to restore the lower part of it, when by accident it had been injured; and of another of the same subject, begun for the inhabitants of his native island, (Cos,) and of which he had only finished the head and breasts when he died. Pliny says that no painter would fet his hand to complete it, through a fearful acknowledgment of this great master's superiority. Other pictures and designs of his are mentioned by different authors; but these are sufficient to show the general tendency of the subjects on which he employed the extraordinary powers of imitation he was endowed with. The bare mention of them is sufficient to prove the critical acumen of our learned professor of painting; but, doubtless, they are fully capable of admitting, indeed they require, all that grace and taste in conception and execution for which he was renowned, to compensate for their want of pathos.

What was omitted by Apelles, was supplied by his contemporary, Aristides of Thebes. Unable to rival him in harmony and grace of colour and execution, and qualified by nature to display the influence of the *passions*, Aristides followed in the steps of Timanthes. His was the power of impressing form with soul, of fixing upon, and representing with effect, those impassioned actions of the body, which are the result of the more amiable or violent emotions of the mind. So effective was the earnestness of a suppliant portrayed by him, that "his voice seemed to escape from the picture;" and not only was he capable of representing the more simple emotions of the passions, but their most complex unions were also subject to his skill. An expression, in which are discoverable maternal affection, anxious for the benefit of its offspring, amidst the pangs of certain and approaching death, was produced in his picture of a woman who had received a mortal wound upon her breast, endeavouring to prevent her infant, eager
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for its nourishment, from sucking her blood instead of milk. (Pliny, lib. xxxv. c. 10.) The mind dwells with apprehensive commiseration on the bare relation of the image; and great indeed must have been the discriminative power of mind, and of hand, to execute justly so difficult a task. Although Aristides appears to have most delighted in subjects which afforded him an opportunity of displaying his knowledge of the human mind, and its pathognomic influence upon the body; such are his pictures above mentioned, and those of a sister dying for love of her brother, and of one suffering under the languishments of illness; yet he sometimes ventured upon a more extended field; and in one instance painted a picture of a battle between the Greeks and Persians, in which were introduced a hundred figures, and was paid, by Mnason king of Elatea, ten pounds weight of silver for each of them. In another he represented a race of chariots with four horses; of which Pliny observes, "you would almost think the wheels were in motion, such was the energy of action in the picture."

At this time, the art of painting was upheld in Greece by a great number of ingenious men, renowned for their distinctive excellencies. Asclepiodorus, for the beauty of symmetry: Protogenes, for exquisite skill in execution and finish: and in him the art received one of the highest tokens of regard it was ever favoured with; for, when Demetrius Poliorcetes was besieging the city of Rhodes, and might have taken it by assailing it on the part where Protogenes resided, he forbore, lest he should do any injury to his works; and, when the Rhodians delivered the place to him, and requested him to spare the pictures of their admired artist, he replied "that he would sooner destroy the images of his forefathers than the productions of Protogenes."

With these artists, and a few others, as Nicias, Nicomachus, Mnason, Aristodemus, &c. all nearly contemporaries, this delightful art arrived at its utmost height; and, though it continued to be practised by a succession of ingenious men, many of whose names are handed down to us, and who contended against the formidable difficulties presented by the scenes of luxury and confusion which opposed them, yet their efforts to uphold its dignity were in vain. When the country, weakened by domestic broils, became subjugated by the Romans, its arts and its energies expired with its liberties; the spirit which animated the arts in Greece being removed, they fell to rise no more, at least for ages. But the cycle of nature will have its course in the arts, as well as in governments, and in man himself. All sublunary things have within them the seeds of their own destruction; and, having reached the acme of excellence in their kinds, their further progress in existence can only be retrograde.

The ROMANS were later in cultivating the arts and sciences than any other great and powerful nation; and none of them seem to have been the natural growth of the soil, except the art of war; all the rest were brought in by conquest. In Italy, however, as well as in Greece, it appears not improbable that painting was practised at an early period, but in a rude and very imperfect mode: little, however, is known of its actual progress there; and that little partaking more of antiquarian curiosity, conjecture, and doubt, than of utility or certainty. Pliny, indeed, says that there were paintings existing at Andrea in his time, executed before the foundation of Rome. But, after a lapse of 800 years, how much of this may not be attributed to error in the tradition he recorded? The earliest traceable and satisfactory account of the art being practised in Rome, is in the year 450 of the city, or 303 years before our era; when Fabius, a noble patrician, painted the temple of Salus: and he and his family thence obtained the surname of *Pictor*. It is not improbable that Fabius had travelled in Greece, and there had the happiness to see the elevated station of the art at that time; he might even have seen Apelles himself, employed upon those works which brought honour upon his coun-

try, and secured immortality for himself. Yet the city does not appear to have much profited by this example; nor to have obtained renown for its artists, either in number or in quality. Pliny mentions none other after Fabius, till, on the lapse of 150 years, Pacuvius the poet amused his declining years with painting the Temple of Hercules in the Forum Boarium. Although it is evident that, about this time, Greek paintings were introduced into Rome, either to gratify curiosity, or adorn the triumphs of generals who had been engaged in Sicily or Greece, yet no emulation to cope with the artists of those countries was exhibited by the Romans. That warlike people were too much occupied in schemes of aggrandisement and military fame, to devote much attention to the arts; and it was not till the time of the emperors, that they experienced any thing like encouragement in Italy.

After the reduction of Greece to the Roman power, the city of the conquerors became the emporium of honour, employment, and consequent profit, to artists; but that only in a gradual advance. First of all, the plunder of the ancient residence of taste satiated as well as astonished the comparatively-uncultivated inhabitants of Italy; and no employment would be found for domestic artists, when the views of all admirers of art were directed to another country for a supply of their wants. Afterwards the men themselves who had in vain laboured to continue the arts in that once favoured but now unhappy country, quitted it, to ensure their own existence; till, by degrees, Rome, become the mistress of the world in policy, assumed the controul of the arts. Still its own native citizens were content to allow themselves an inferior share in its praise; since the principal part of the artists, either in painting or sculpture, who practised in Italy, are supposed to have been Greeks.

Antiquaries, under the influence of varying circumstances, have at different times attached priority of cultivation to different countries. Such is the case with the regions of Italy. Etruria has been, and is still, most generally considered as the nurse of the arts in that country; but the discovery of painted vases in the southern parts of Italy, and in Sicily, being more frequent than in Etruria, has led many to imagine, of late, that painting was practised in those countries previous to its cultivation in the more northern provinces. But very little argument can be derived from this circumstance; as it appears to us, that the designs and execution of those curious monuments of art, only testify the previous existence of some superior powers in the art; as the extension of taste in our own manufactories, or the attempts at it, proves the existence of the art of painting, and its higher or more direct cultivation, in this country. The paintings upon those vases are, it is true, so inferior, as to the extent of art they exhibit, that they merit only to be classed among the productions of the earliest periods; but that, perhaps, is more owing to the artists who executed them being desirous of proceeding only so far as would answer a specific purpose, and by no means aiming to attain the degree of perfection at which the art had actually arrived at the time. If this opinion be correct, there is no arguing concerning the state, or antiquity, of the art of painting from Etruscan vases. The use of their hieroglyphics, for so the figures employed upon them may be termed, like those of the Egyptians, or like letters, admit of little improvement, or indeed of alteration, in themselves; and allow only of being changed in effect, by new combinations. They may therefore, or they may not, have been executed at a period comparatively late, when considered with regard to the history of painting properly so called; and certainly may be regarded, rather as an offset than as attached to the main stems in its growth; or as an extraneous application of part of the art, rather than the art itself.

Where the Greeks first settled in Italy, or where the most free communication was held with the mother-country, there it is most likely the arts transplanted would be first cultivated; but they do not appear to have arrived

at any great degree of excellence in any part of that country, previous to the conquest of Greece by the Romans; and it must still remain a doubt, whether Etruria or Calabria was the parental abode of the arts of Italy. They appear certainly to have received more cultivation in the former of those districts than in the latter, particularly sculpture; at least, there is something like evidence of the culture of it in Pliny, who mentions, "that the little brazen images, dispersed all over the country, were wrought in Tuscany in very ancient times."

Whencesoever it were that Rome acquired the little taste she felt for art, or rather the slight degree of emulation which animated her citizens to enter the paths of tasteful cultivation, it is certain, that, during the period of her existence as a republic, the impetus was very weak, and the progress, of course, of little or no extent. The practice of painting after the days of Pacuvius, before mentioned, was held to be effeminate and disgraceful; and it was not subsequently engaged in by any respectable men. The result, of course, was a testimony to the wisdom of the Greeks; who, in order to enhance the merit of the art, ordained, that none but such as Roman pride excluded should presume to practise it. From being regarded as contemptible, it actually became so; whereas in Greece, being raised in rank and esteem, it became truly worthy of both. But what this powerful city could not acquire by her own genius, she endeavoured, after her generals became acquainted with the riches of Greece and Sicily, to treasure up from the spoils of those countries. Some of those generals to increase the splendour of their triumphs, and others for private or for public ornament, carried pictures as well as statues to Rome, and exhibited them to the people; and others again caused pictures to be painted of their successful battles, to stimulate the admiration and applause of the people; and, thus tacitly acknowledging the value of the art, upbraided their fellow-citizens for neglecting the cultivation of it.

It would be natural to suppose that, when the fierceness and severity of republican independence gave way to the suavity and more refined manners of a court devoted to one person; when literature and science were highly cultivated, and the example of Greece was before them; that the Romans would not fail to blend the pursuit of the elegant arts with the refined luxuries in which they indulged. But that does not appear to have been the case to any great degree. Had it been so, Pliny, who does not easily lose sight of the honour of his country, would not have failed to mention it; particularly as it came so near the time in which he lived. He gives only the names of a few painters then practising, or who had practised, being native artists; and accompanies it with a lamentation "that the art was dying." *Lib. xxxv. cap. 5.*

As no preparation of art had previously taken place powerful enough to aid the plans of the state, when Augustus saw the use to be made of painting by a monarch, he very wisely endeavoured to adopt what was ready to his hands; and caused two pictures, painted by Apelles, of Alexander victorious, and triumphant, to be carried to Rome, and placed conspicuously in the forum; images of his own power and exaltation, which Claudius Cæsar more openly proclaimed, when he ordered the heads of both pictures to be cut out, and Augustus's portrait placed in their stead. But the Romans, and Roman emperors, whatever subjects they may have created for the pencil, found little native talent able, or sufficiently interested, to convey them to posterity in an honourable manner by painting; and, even in sculpture, their best artists were low indeed in comparison with the Greeks; at least, no Roman artists' names of great repute are handed down to us. Both arts were diverted to unworthy objects: they continued to fall in every valuable quality, and painting most of all; till at length the irruptions of the northern nations put an end to both Grecian and Roman efforts; and barbarism, from which Greece is not yet redeemed, usurped the stations of luxury and refine-

ment. For near a thousand years, did the glorious title of the cultivator of intellectual power, the leader among nations, in whatever was most adapted to do honour to human nature, appertain to that highly favoured country: for a period approaching two thousand, has she suffered degradation and depression, even almost to annihilation. Yet her present inhabitants are represented by travellers as still the same animated and ardent race, although bending to the strong hand of power, and, unhappily, under the influence of a government and religion, whose tenets forbid the extension of human knowledge, and whose power is upheld by ignorance and superstition.

Italy, overcome by the same wild anarchy with Greece, groaned not under the weight of the despotic spoiler more than half the time which her predecessor in the race of nations has bowed, ere the dawns of science beamed upon her, and roused her from the state of torpor to which she had been reduced. Even then, Greeks had the honour of stimulating her to the cultivation of her native powers; till at length that flame was kindled, which, by a gradual accumulation of strength, warmed Italian breasts, and excited them to emulate in arts those whom their forefathers had subdued in arms. But the country being then under the controul of a system of religion which forbade the introduction of images into her temples, the course and application of study was necessarily changed, and the art of painting became the principal object of attention; whereas that art, highly as it was prized and cultivated by the Grecians in the latter periods of their existence as a ruling power, had remained, as we have seen, for a great length of time nearly unemployed; whilst the sister-art of sculpture, being most subservient to the purposes of an idolatrous religion, was cultivated in so extraordinary a manner, that the accumulation of its productions in statues, bas-reliefs, &c. both in bronze and marble, became prodigious, and not to be imagined by those unacquainted with the fact. Pausanias speaks of 2827 entire statues, in the places which he travelled through, as remaining in his time, besides numerous other works of sculpture; and this was only in a part of Greece, and not till after the Romans had, for 300 years, been plundering the country of innumerable beautiful productions. Rhodes, it is said, could boast of 3000 statues of brass; and Nero took, from Delphos alone, 500 statues. The cause of this vast accumulation of sculpture is apparent, in the patronage that art derived from the government and the priesthood; who found it an useful instrument in moulding the people to their wishes. They were well acquainted with its influence upon the minds of men, when skilfully applied in exciting their sympathies, stimulating their emulation, or assisting in compelling their devotion. The foundation, therefore, of the super-excellence of this art among the Greeks, does not lie very deep for our research. What else could be the result of so much and so constant an employment, for a connected series of hundreds of years, the consequent emulation which must ensue, where so many competitors entered the field; and when, in addition to the influence of government, so many establishments of a religious order were anxious to become conspicuous, by employing them? By its means the priesthood were enriched, and exalted in the eyes of their countrymen; adorers were drawn to their shrines; and their favourite divinities more generally worshipped.

The same sentiments and principles, always present to the ambitious and powerful, and which, under happy auspices, re-act for the benefit of the people, operated near a thousand years afterwards upon the government and church of Rome; when, by the revival of science and of art, these salutary means of strengthening themselves fell into their hands. But, as the second commandment of the decalogue, by which they were, or rather ought to have been, controlled, prohibited the worship of images; their attention was directed to the use which might be made of painting, and sculpture was confined to monu-

mental and ornamental purposes, or nearly so. Thus circumstanced, the result was precisely the reverse of what occurred in Greece. Sculpture, except in a few instances, made a progress only to mediocrity; whilst painting rose, and expanded its beauties to the utmost perfection; and soon followed that period, when, as we have before observed, notwithstanding the high-flown panegyrics of ancient authors upon Grecian art, the doubt is justified, whether its painters were not surpassed by those of Italy and Flanders, who flourished in this latter age of the world.

The word *antique*, when applied to the art of which we are treating, is generally taken to designate such works as were produced before the destruction of the Roman empire. To this period we are now arrived; and it will be thought extraordinary, that there should remain any degree of uncertainty with us respecting the degree of excellence to which the ancient painters carried their art. The following observations are by sir Joshua Reynolds.

"From the various ancient paintings which have come down to us, we may form a judgment with tolerable accuracy of the excellencies and defects of art among the ancients. There can be no doubt, but that the same correctness of design was required from the painter as the sculptor; and, if the same good fortune had happened to us in regard to their paintings, to possess what the ancients themselves esteemed their master-pieces, which is the case in sculpture, I have no doubt but we should find their figures as correctly drawn as the Laocoon, and probably coloured like Titian. What disposes me to think higher of their colouring than any remains of ancient painting will warrant, is the account which Pliny gives of the mode of operation used by Apelles, that over his finished picture he spread a transparent liquid like ink, of which the effect was to give brilliancy, and at the same time to lower the too-great glare of the colour: *Quod absoluta opera atramento illinebat ita tenui, ut id ipsam repercussa claritates colorum excitaret. Et tum ratione magna ne colorum claritas oculorum aciem offenderet.* This passage, though it may possibly perplex the critics, is a true and artist-like description of the effect of glazing or scumbling, such as was practised by Titian and the rest of the Venetian painters: this custom, or mode of operation, implies at least a taste of what the excellence of colouring consists, which does not proceed from fine colours, but true colours; from breaking-down those fine colours which would appear too raw, to a deep-toned brightness. Perhaps the manner in which Corregio practised the art of glazing was still more like that of Apelles, which was only perceptible to those who looked close to the picture, *ad manum intuenti demum appareret*; whereas, in Titian, and still more in Bassano and his imitators, it was apparent on the slightest inspection: artists who may not approve of glazing, must still acknowledge that this practice is not that of ignorance. Another circumstance that tends to prejudice me in favour of their colouring, is the account we have of some of their principal painters using but four colours only. I am convinced that, the fewer the colours are used, the cleaner will be the effect of those colours, and that four is sufficient to make every combination required; two colours mixed together will not preserve the brightness of either of them single, nor will three be as bright as two: of this observation, simple as it is, an artist, who wishes to colour bright, will know the value.

"In regard to their power of giving peculiar expression, no correct judgment can be formed; but we cannot well suppose that men, who were capable of giving that general grandeur of character which so eminently distinguishes their works in sculpture, were incapable of expressing peculiar passions. As to the enthusiastic commendations bestowed upon them by contemporaries, I consider them as of no weight. The best words are always employed to praise the best works: admiration often proceeds from ignorance of higher excellence. What they appear to have most failed in is *composition*, both in regard to the

grouping of their figures, and the art of disposing of the light and shadow in masses. It is apparent that this, which makes so considerable a part of modern art, was to them totally unknown."

We occasionally meet in authors who speak of ancient art, with descriptions of pictures containing many figures, but, in general, its efforts were confined to subjects in which two or three only were required; and it is worthy of remark, that in none of them is there any observation on the contrasts employed in lines, in light and shade, or in colour; nor is there any mention of what is now understood by the term *back-ground*. To guess from these attempts at criticism, we should, at least we might, conclude, that all pictures painted by the Greeks were similar in principle to those found at Herculaneum, of which the best have entirely plain grounds, and others very little variety; which evidently shows that the writers were unacquainted with the art. Their remarks are too vague, too undetermined, appear not to flow from any feeling or knowledge of what art is, but only from common perceptions, alike felt by all of equal understanding. Yet every painter knows, that, without some ingenious management of the ground, quite sufficient to form an object of particular remark, the hand of Alexander would have still adhered to the canvas; and not, as Pliny remarks, have appeared to project before it, or "out of it."

That they discovered to a certain extent the effect of contrasting lights and shades, is evident from Plutarch's observation, that "painters increase the brilliancy of light colours, by opposing them to dark ones, or to shades;" and Pliny has this remarkable general expression, when, having spoken of the painters in the monochromatic style, he adds, "in process of time the art assumed new powers, and discovered (or invented) light and shadow; by gradating which, the colours are alternately heightened or kept down. Afterwards *splendour* was added, which was different from light, and which, because it was a mean between light and shade, they call *tonon*; and the union of the colours, and the transition from one to another, they called *harmogen*;" lib. xxxv. c. 5. Although we see, in these passages, that the three grand requisites for the science of colouring and of *chiaro-scuro*, viz. contrast, tone, and harmony, were felt by the Greeks; that the degrees of light and shade in their own force, and in their approach towards each other, were fully understood; with the value of middle tint, the most difficult and important object of the painter's attention; and that one general hue in the whole work was considered and effected; yet we cannot agree with M. du Bos and others, that we ought hence to conclude, that *chiaro-scuro* was scientifically understood and practised by them to any extent at all approaching that to which it has subsequently been carried by Rembrandt and the Flemish school, or the best among the Italians. Unhappily, very few of their pictures have remained to us; and those we have, we must suppose are the works of inferior artists. Among the twelve pictures, the best of those found at Herculaneum, and all possessed of infinite beauties in taste, in grace, and feeling, there is exhibited in one of them a more compound management of *chiaro-scuro*, in the reduction of tone on parts of the flesh and drapery, than is to be found in any other monument of ancient art; but it is not sufficient to prove that it proceeded from any thing like principle. We have, therefore, no satisfactory proof upon this subject; and it is most rational to conclude, with sir Joshua Reynolds, that this, which makes so material a part of modern art, was unknown to the Greeks (as a science.) "If," he observes, and justly, "the great painters had possessed this excellence, some portion of it would infallibly have been diffused, and have been discovered in the works of inferior artists handed down to us, and which may be considered as on the same rank with the paintings that ornament our public gardens. Supposing our modern pictures

pictures of this rank only were preserved for the inspection of connoisseurs two thousand years hence, the general principles of composition would be still discoverable in those pictures: however feebly executed, there would be seen an attempt to an union of the figure with its ground, some idea of disposing both the figures and the lights in groups. Now, as nothing of this appears in what we have of ancient painting, we may conclude that this part of the art was totally neglected, or, more probably, unknown. They might, however, have produced *single figures*, which approached perfection both in drawing and colouring; they might excel in solo (in the language of musicians), though they were probably incapable of composing a full piece for a concert of different instruments." Reynolds's Notes upon Fresco.

The paintings of the ancient artists were either movable, or on the ceilings or compartments of buildings. According to Pliny, the most eminent were those who painted movable pictures. The latter were either on fir-wood, larch, box-wood, or canvas, and sometimes on marble. When they employed wood, they laid on, in the first instance, a white ground. Among the antiquities of Herculaneum are four paintings on white marble.

Their immovable paintings on walls were either in fresco, or on the dry stucco in distemper. Indeed, all their paintings may be reduced to, first, fresco-painting; secondly, water-colour, or distemper-painting on a dry ground; and, thirdly, encaustic painting.

1. The ancient fresco-paintings appear to have been always on a white stucco-ground, the colours inlaid very deep, and the drawings much more bold and free than any similar performance of modern art. The outlines of the ancient paintings on fresco were probably done at once, as appears from the depth of the incision and the boldness and freedom of the design, equal to the care and spirit of a pencilled outline.

2. In general, the ancients painted on a dry ground, even in their buildings, as appears from the Herculaneum antiquities, most of which are executed in this manner. At Rome and Naples, the first (deepest) coat is of true puzzolana, of the same nature with the *tarras* now used in mortar, required to keep out wet, about one finger thick; the next of ground marble or alabaster, and sometimes of pure lime or stucco, in thickness about one third of the former. Upon this they appear to have laid a coat of black, and then another of red, paint; on which last the subject itself was executed. Such seems to have been their method of painting on walls; but, in their movable pictures, and in the performance of their first artists, and where effect of shade and light were necessary, they doubtless used white.

3. What the *encaustic* or wax painting of the ancients was, has been much disputed. From the works of Vitruvius and Pliny, it appears evidently that it was of three kinds. First, Where a picture, painted in the common way, was covered with a varnish of wax melted, diluted with a little oil, and laid on warm with a brush. Secondly, Where the colours themselves were mixed up with melted wax, and the mixture used while warm. Thirdly, Where a painting was executed on ivory by means of the *cestrum* or *viriculum*.

This art of painting with burnt wax, as it is called, has long been lost to the world; the use of it to painters, in the infancy of the art of painting, was of the utmost consequence; drying-oil being unknown, they had nothing to preserve their colours entire from the injury of damps, and the heat of the sun; a varnish of some sort was therefore necessary; but, being unacquainted with distilled spirits, they could not, as we now do, dissolve gums, to make a transparent coat for their pictures; this invention, therefore, of burnt wax, supplied that defect to them, and with this manner of painting the chambers and other rooms in their houses were furnished; this Pliny calls *encaustum*, and we encaustic painting.

Pliny has given the following brief account of the in-

vention and nature of this art: "*Ceris pingere ac picturam inuere, quis primus excogitaverit non constat; quidam Aristidis inventum putant, postea consummatum à Praxitele; sed aliquanto vetustiores encausticæ picturæ extitere; ut Polygnoti, et Nicanoris, et Arcefilai, Pariorum. Lyfippus quoque, Eginæ, picturæ suæ inscripsit ενκαυστων; quod profectò non fecisset, nisi encaustica inventa. Pamphilus quoque Appellis præceptor non pinxisse tantum encaustica, sed etiam docuisse traditur Pausaniam Sycionium, primum in hoc genere nobilem.*" Lib. xxxv. cap. 11. From this paragraph, we learn that the method of painting in wax, and burning-in the picture, was very ancient; though some imagine that by *ceris* is meant a composition different from wax, and capable of bearing the fire; and that *burning* the picture denotes merely enamelling. Pliny, in the same chapter, informs us, that there were anciently two methods of encaustic painting in use: "*Encausto pingendi duo fuisse antiquatius genera constat, cerâ et in ebore, cestro, i. e. viriculo; donec classes pingi cæperè. Hoc tertium accessit, resolutis igni ceris, penicillo utendi; quæ pictura in navibus nec sole, nec sale, ventisque corruptitur.*" Dr. Parsons maintains, that the *cestrum* was a pointed tool used in modelling or carving upon ivory or wax; and he supposes that there is a contrast between the use of the *cestrum*, and painting ships with a brush, and therefore that the term *pingendi* cannot be understood to mean the laying-on of paint.

However, there is a passage in Vitruvius, lib. vii. cap. 9. which serves to ascertain the nature of the ancient encaustic painting: "*At si quis subtilior fuerit, et voluerit expolitionem minimeam suum colorem retinere, &c.*" that is, "If any one is more wary, and would have the polishing, or painting, with vermilion hold its colour; when the wall is painted and dry, let him take Carthaginian wax, melted with a little oil, and rub it on the wall with a hair-pencil; and afterwards let him put live coals into a chafing-dish, and hold it close to the wax; when the wall, by being heated, begins to sweat, let it be made smooth; afterwards let him rub it with wax-tapers, and clean linen rags, in the same manner as they do the naked marble statues. This the Greeks call *ναυρις*. The coat of Carthaginian wax is so strong, that it neither suffers the moon by night, nor the sun-beams by day, to destroy the colour." From this passage, we learn the ancient method of painting in wax by infusion, more obscurely expressed by Pliny; though Pliny, in another passage, expressly informs us that they used coloured wax; *ceræ tinguntur iisdem his coloribus, quæ inurantur*: that they employed a pencil to lay-on the melted wax; *resolutis igni ceris, penicillo utendi*: that the picture was fixed by infusion; *picturam inuere*. And we learn from Vitruvius, that the whole was cleaned and polished with linen rags.

The Punic or Carthaginian wax, the use of which is ascribed to the ancient painters by Varro, Vitruvius, and Pliny, was said to be the best, as it exceeded in whiteness the Sardinian and Corsican, probably because it was better purified; for the Africans, as we learn from Pliny, were accustomed to use alkali, in order to render this substance whiter, and also to free it, as some have supposed, from all greasy matter. Wax, however, seems to have formed the only ground of wax-painting. The abbé Requeno, who contributed to present encaustic painting to the notice of modern painters, adds mastic; but Lorgna converts his wax into soap, as Bachelier does with the alkali of soda. Astori adds gum and honey, affirming that thus the wax would be rendered much more yielding, and softer for the brush. Requeno seems to assign the exclusive possession of this art to the Greeks and Romans; but we have reason for believing that the knowledge and use of encaustic painting were older than their time, because the Egyptians, who, with the Etruscans, were the parents of the greater part of the inventions known among mankind, and from whom the Greeks derived much of their knowledge, were acquainted with, and

and employed, encaustic painting, in the ancient ages of their greatness and splendour. This fact has been deduced from valuable fragments of the bandages and coverings of mummies painted in this manner. A mummy of this kind is mentioned in a treatise entitled "Antichità della Pittura encaustica;" Rome, 1797. No oil-painting, it is said, perhaps only two or three hundred years old, exhibits a white paint that has kept so well as that seen on the fragment to which we have alluded; and this circumstance sufficiently proves the valuable advantage which that method possesses when compared with the common oil-painting. The wax, instead of becoming black by the contact of the atmosphere, as drying-oil does, acquires increasing whiteness, and, according to its natural quality, is not decomposed in the air, and does not strongly attract the oxygen of the calces, or metallic ashes, which are commonly used in painting. That beautiful white, which may be observed in the Egyptian encaustic above mentioned, is, as the author of the treatise just mentioned apprehends, nothing else but a simple earth, and, according to his chemical experiments, a chalk, (*cereta*), which is also unalterable. If we consider this encaustic fragment, says our author, as belonging to the epoch of the first violent change which the religious system of the Egyptians experienced, it will be a specimen of painting about 2500 years old; for such is the number of the years that have elapsed since Cambyfes overturned the ceremonies and religious worship of the Egyptians, not only by the sword, but by the still more powerful weapons of ridicule. Dead bodies were embalmed there in the time of Herodotus; but the cloth in which they were wrapped, or the bandages bound round them, were no longer painted with sacred characters. The bodies were only enclosed in wooden cases, which were more or less ornamented. If Bochart and Menage be not mistaken, the name *mumia* is derived from *muim*, which signifies wax; and one might therefore believe, that the dress of embalmed bodies was thus named because wax was employed for painting it; and thence it would follow, that the fragment in question may be classed among the oldest. Petronius praises the fresh appearance which the valuable works of Zeuxis and Apelles had, even in his time; but Cicero, on the other hand, speaks of the paintings of the ancients having suffered from blackness. The former is supposed to have spoken of wax-painting, and the latter is presumed to have alluded to paintings in oil. The author, whose sentiments we are now expressing, detached twenty-four grains of the encaustic painting from the above-mentioned Egyptian fragment; and, in his mode of examining it, the mixture of rooth part of a foreign substance would have been discovered with the greatest certainty: he must, he says, have perceived the resin of Requeno, nor could the alkali of Bachelier and Lorgna have escaped his notice. But in this Egyptian encaustic he found nothing except very pure wax, though he varied his analysis in every known method.

From the words of Vitruvius above cited, it appears that the Romans, who copied the Grecian process, which was borrowed from the Egyptians, mixed the wax with an oil to make it pliable under the brush, but no mastic, alkali, or honey, as some have imagined, was employed; what this oil was, it is not easy to ascertain. It does not appear that they used those fat oils which are commonly called drying-oils, because they could have employed those as we do, without the addition of wax, which would have been altogether superfluous. Fat oils which do not dry would not have been proper for that purpose, as they would have kept the wax continually in a soft state. Our author supposes, that the Egyptians, in order to use wax in their encaustic painting, must have combined it with an ethereal volatile oil, of which no traces should afterwards remain; and that, though they might be unacquainted with the art of separating ethereal oils from the many substances which they contain, they certainly were acquainted with a very volatile thin oil produced by

nature, and which in various places issues from the earth. This oil was either that called naphtha, which is an exceedingly volatile oil, that entirely flies off and evaporates, without leaving a single trace behind; or the common spirit of turpentine, which would very well answer the purpose. The encaustum, thus formed, was used in the time of the Romans to cover parts which had been already painted, either with water-colours or in fresco; and it was also, as we have reason to believe, the substance with which Apelles daubed over his paintings, and which, according to Pliny, made them appear as if covered by a thin plate of talc or transparent selenite, and gave the colours a wonderful softness. It might still be employed for preserving paintings in water-colours, or on plaster, and sculptured pieces of marble.

The ancient art of encaustic painting, after having been long lost, was restored by count Caylus, a member of the Academy of Inscriptions in France; and the method of painting in wax was announced to the Academy of Painting and Belles-Lettres in the year 1753; though M. Bachelier, the author of a treatise "De l'Histoire et du Secret de la Peinture en Cire," had actually painted a picture in wax in 1749; and he was the first who communicated to the public the method of performing the operation of infusion, which is the principal characteristic of the encaustic painting. The count kept his method a secret for some time, contenting himself with exhibiting a picture at the Louvre in 1754, representing the head of Minerva, painted in the manner of the ancients, which excited the curiosity of the public, and was very much admired. In the interval of suspense, several attempts were made to recover the ancient method of painting. The first scheme adopted was that of melting wax and oil of turpentine together, and using this composition as a vehicle for mixing and laying-on the colours. But this method did not explain Pliny's meaning, as the wax is not burnt in this way of managing it. In another attempt, which was much more agreeable to the historian's description of encaustic painting, the wax was melted with strong lixivium of salt of tartar, and with this the colours were ground. When the picture was finished, it was gradually presented to the fire, so as to melt the wax; which was thus diffused through all the particles of the colours, so that they were fixed to the ground, and secured from the access of air or moisture. But the method of count Caylus is much more simple: The cloth or wood which he designed for the basis of his picture, is waxed over, by only rubbing it simply with a piece of bees-wax; the wood, or cloth, stretched on a frame, being held horizontally over, or perpendicularly before, a fire, at such a distance, that the wax might gradually melt, whilst it is rubbed on, diffuse itself, penetrate the body, and fill the interstices of the texture of the cloth, which, when cool, is fit to paint upon; but, as water-colours, or those that are mixed up with common water, will not adhere to wax, the whole picture is to be first rubbed over with Spanish chalk or white, and then the colours are applied to it; when the picture is dry, it is put near the fire, whereby the wax melts, and absorbs all the colours. Phil. Transf. vol. xlix.

Mr. J. H. Muntz, in a treatise on this subject, has proposed several improvements in the art of encaustic painting. When the painting is on cloth, he directs it to be prepared, by stretching it on a frame, and rubbing one side several times over with a piece of bees-wax, or virgin-wax, till it is covered with a coat of wax of considerable thickness. In fine linen, this is the only operation necessary previous to painting; but coarse cloth must be rubbed gently on the unwaxed side with a pumice-stone, to take off all those knots which would prevent the free and accurate working of the pencil. Then the subject is to be painted on the unwaxed side with colours prepared, and tempered with water; and, when the picture is finished, it must be brought near the fire, that the wax may melt and fix the colours. This method, however, can only

only be applied to cloth or paper, through the substance of which the wax may pass; but, in wood, stone, metals, or plaster, the former method of count Caylus must be observed.

Mr. Muntz has also discovered a method of forming grounds for painting with crayons, and fixing these, as well as water-colours, employed with the pencil. On the unwaxed side of a linen cloth, stretched and waxed as before, lay an even and thick coat of the colour proper for the ground; having prepared this colour, by mixing some proper pigment with an equal quantity of chalk, and tempering them with water. When the colour is dry, bring the picture to the fire, that the wax may melt, pass through the cloth, and fix the ground. An additional quantity of wax may be applied to the back of the picture, if that which was first rubbed on should not be sufficient for the body of colour; but, as this must be laid-on without heat, the wax should be dissolved in oil of turpentine, and applied with a brush, and the canvas again exposed to the fire, that the fresh supply of wax may pass through the cloth, and be absorbed by the colour: and thus a firm and good body will be formed for working on with the crayons. If cloth and paper are joined together, the cloth must be first fixed to the straining-frame; and then the paper must be pasted to it with a composition of paste, made with wheaten flour, or starch and water, and about a twelfth part of its weight of common turpentine. The turpentine must be added to the paste when it is almost sufficiently boiled, and the composition well stirred, and left to simmer over the fire for five or six minutes. Let wax be dissolved in oil of turpentine to the consistence of a thin paste; and, when the cloth and paper are dry, let them be held near a fire; and with a brush lay a coat of the wax and turpentine on both sides the joined cloth and paper, in such a degree of thickness, that both surfaces may shine throughout without any appearance of dull spots. Then expose the cloth to the fire or to the sun; by which means the oil will evaporate, and the wax become solid, and be fit to receive any composition of colour for a ground, which is to be laid-on as above directed in the case of cloth without paper.

Almost all the colours that are used in oil-painting may be also applied in the encaustic method. Mr. Muntz objects, indeed, to brown, light pink, and unburnt terra di Sienna; because these, on account of their gummy or stony texture, will not admit such a cohesion with the wax as will properly fix them; but other colours, which cannot be admitted in oil-painting, as red-lead, red orpiment, crystals of verdgris, and red precipitate of mercury, may be used here. The crayons used in encaustic painting are the same with those used in the common way of crayon-painting, excepting those that in their compositions are too tenacious; and the method of using them is the same in both cases.

The encaustic painting has many peculiar advantages: though the colours have not the natural varnish or shining which they require with oil, they have all the strength of paintings in oil, and all the airiness of water-colours, without partaking of the apparent character or defects of either; they may be looked at in any light, and in any situation, without any false glare; the colours are firm, and will bear washing; and a picture, after having been smoked, and then exposed to the dew, becomes as clean as if it had been but just painted. It may also be re-touched at pleasure, without any detriment to the colours; for the new colours will unite with the old ones, without spots, as is the case in common size-painting; nor is it necessary to rub the places to be re-touched with oil, as in oil-pictures; it is not liable to crack, and easily repaired, if it should chance to suffer any injury. The duration of this painting is also a very material advantage; the colours are not liable to fade and change; no damp can affect them, nor any corrosive substance injure them; nor can the colour fall off in shivers from the canvas. However, notwithstanding all these and other advantages enu-

merated by the abbé Mazeas and Mr. Muntz, this art has not yet been much practised. Many of these properties belong to a much higher species of encaustic painting, lately discovered in England, the colours of which are fixed by a very intense heat; nor are the colours, or grounds on which they are laid, liable to be dissolved or corroded by any chemical menstruum, nor, like the glassy colours of enamel, to run out of the drawing on the fire. See on this subject, Phil. Transf. vol. li. and Phil. Mag. vol. i. p. 23, 141, and 406.

The oil-varnishes used by the Egyptians and by Apelles might have brought them to the discovery of oil-painting; but, as it appears, both from mummies and from the works of Pliny, that their colours were not prepared and mixed with that varnish, and as it is plain rather that this varnish was externally laid over the finished pictures; no other conclusion can be drawn, except that they were within sight of the discovery, and that it is a matter of wonder that they should not have laid hold of it.

The oil also, that was used in the coarser wax and wall paintings just mentioned, proves at most that experiments had been tried with oils; but we have no proofs of oil-painting having been understood or used by the Egyptians, Greeks, or Romans; and, however great their skill or ingenuity, they might very well have been within sight and reach of the discovery, and nevertheless have missed it.

Of the COLOURS used by the ANCIENTS.

Sir Humphry Davy, during his residence at Rome in the year 1814 and 15, made a great number of experiments on the colours used in painting by the ancients, an account of which, with observations, he transmitted in the beginning of the year 1815 to the Royal Society. In his introduction to this paper, he observes, that the importance which the Greeks attached to pictures, the estimation in which their great painters were held, the high prices paid for their most celebrated productions, and the emulation existing between different states with regard to the possession of them, prove that painting was one of the arts most cultivated in ancient Greece. The works, indeed, of the great masters of Greece, are unfortunately lost: they disappeared from their native country during the wars waged by the Romans with the successors of Alexander, and the later Greek republics; and were destroyed either by accident, by time, or by barbarian conquerors, at the period of the decline and fall of the Roman empire. The subjects of many of these pictures are described in ancient authors; and some idea of the manner and style of the Greek artists may be gained from the designs on the vases, called, though improperly, Etruscan, which were executed by artists of Magna Grecia, and some faint notion of their execution and colouring may be gained from the paintings in fresco at Rome, Herculaneum, and Pompeii. These paintings, it is true, are not properly Greek; yet, whatever may have been said of the early existence of painting in Italy, as a native art, we are certain that, at the period when Rome was the metropolis of the world, the fine arts were cultivated in that city exclusively by the Greeks, or by artists of the Greek schools. By comparing the descriptions of Vitruvius and Pliny with those of Theophrastus, it is found, that the same materials for colouring were employed at Rome and at Athens; and of thirty great painters mentioned by Pliny, whose works were known to the Romans, two only are expressly mentioned as born in Italy; the rest were Greeks.

Ornamental fresco-painting was indeed generally executed by inferior artists; and the designs on the walls of the houses of Herculaneum and Pompeii, are not to be regarded as fair specimens of excellence, even in this department of the art; but in Rome, in the period of her full glory, and in the ornaments of the imperial palace of the first Cæsars, all the resources of the distinguished artists of that age were probably employed. Pliny mentions Cornelius Pinus, and Accius, as the two artists of the

the greatest merit in his own time; and it is probable that these artists had a share in executing, or directing the execution of, the paintings and ornaments in the baths of Titus; and at this period the works of Zeuxis, Parrhasius, Timanthes, Apelles, and Protagoras, were exhibited in Rome, and must have guided the taste of the artists. The decorations of the baths were intended to be seen by torch-light, so that their colours were brilliant and their contrast strong; yet these are regarded by connoisseurs as performances of considerable excellence. In these, and in other works of the same age, the effect of the ancient models is obvious, and the various copies and imitations that have been made of these remains of antiquity, have transferred their spirit into modern art, and left little to be desired as to those results which the skill of the painter can command.

"There remains, however," says sir H. D. "another use to which they may be applied; that of making us acquainted with the *nature and chemical composition of the colours* used by the Greek and Roman artists. The works of Theophrastus, Dioscorides, Vitruvius, and Pliny, contain descriptions of the substances used by the ancients as pigments; but hitherto, I believe, no experimental attempt has been made to identify them, or to imitate such of them as are peculiar. My experiments have been made upon colours found in the baths of Titus, and the ruins called the baths of Livia, and in the remains of other palaces and baths of ancient Rome, and in the ruins of Pompeii. By the kindness of my friend, the celebrated Canova, I was enabled to select with my own hands specimens of the different pigments that have been found in vases discovered in the excavations lately made beneath the ruins of the palace of Titus, and to compare them with the colours fixed on the walls, or detached in fragments of stucco; and was allowed actually to make experiments upon the colours of the celebrated picture *Nozze Aldobrandine*. But, when the preservation of a work of art was concerned, I made my researches upon mere atoms of the colour, taken from a place where the loss was imperceptible; and, without having injured any of the precious remains of antiquity, I flatter myself I shall be able to give some information, not without interest to scientific men, as well as to artists, and not wholly devoid of practical application."

Of the Red Colours of the Ancients.—Amongst the substances found in a large earthen vase filled with mixtures of different colours with clay and chalk, discovered in the year 1812, in a chamber at that time opened in the baths of Titus, there are three different kinds of red: one bright, and approaching to orange; another dull red; and a third, a purplish red. On exposing the bright red to the flame of alcohol, it became darker red; and, on increasing the heat by a blow-pipe, it fused into a mass, having the appearance of litharge, and which was proved to be this substance by the action of sulphuric and muriatic acids: this colour (says sir H. D.) is consequently minium, or the red oxyd of lead. By other processes, which are particularly described, he found that the dull red colour is an iron ochre, and the purplish red was proved to be an ochre of a different tint.

In examining the fresco-paintings in the baths of Titus, he found that these colours had been all used, the ochres in particular, in the shades of the figures, and the minium in the ornaments on the borders. He found another red on the walls, of a tint different from those in the vase, and much brighter, and which had been employed in various apartments, and formed the basis of the colouring of the niche and other parts of the chamber in which the Laocoon is said to have been found: this proved to be vermillion, or cinnabar; for, on heating it with iron-filings, quicksilver was procured. In the picture already mentioned, the *Nozze Aldobrandine*, the reds are all ochres: on these reds the action of acids, of alkalies, and of chlorine, could discover no traces either of minium or vermillion in the picture.

Minium was known to the Greeks, and was discovered accidentally by means of a fire that took place at the Piræus, at Athens: it was first used as a pigment by Nicias. Cinnabar, or vermillion, was discovered by Collias, and was prepared by washing the ores of quicksilver. It was a colour held in great estimation in Rome at the time of the republic: on great festivals it was used for painting the face of Jupiter Capitolinus, and likewise for colouring the body of the victor in the triumphal processions: the first business of newly-elected censors of the capitol, was to fill the place of vermillion-painter to Jupiter. A second, or inferior sort of vermillion, was formed by calcining the stone found in veins of lead. This substance was the same as our minium, and it was evidently formed from the carbonate of lead.

Of the Yellows.—A large earthen pot, found in one of the chambers of the baths of Titus, contained a quantity of yellow paint, which, when submitted to chemical examination, proved to be a mixture of yellow ochre with chalk. There were three different yellows; two of them proved to be yellow ochres mixed with chalk in different proportions; and the third, a yellow ochre mixed with red oxyd of lead, or minium.

The ancients had two other colours, which were orange or yellow: the auripigmentum, said to approach gold in its colour, which was found native in Pontus, and which is a sulphuret of arsenic; and a pale sandarach, said to have been found in the gold and silver mines, and which was imitated at Rome by the partial calcination of ceruse, and which was evidently massicot, or the yellow oxyd of lead mixed with minium. Sir H. Davy could not detect the use of orpiment in any of the fresco-paintings; but a deep yellow, approaching to orange, which was found in the ruins near the monument of Caius Cestius, proved to be oxyd of lead, and consisted of massicot mixed with minium. The yellows in the Aldobrandine picture are all ochres. Our author examined the colours in a very spirited picture on the wall of one of the houses at Pompeii, of a lion and a man; they all proved to be red and yellow ochres.

Of the Blue Colours.—Different shades of blue are used in the different apartments of the baths of Titus, and several very fine blues exist in the mixtures of their colours. These blues are of different hues, according as they contain larger or smaller quantities of carbonate of lime; but, when this carbonate is dissolved by acids, they present the same body-colour, a very fine blue powder, similar to the best smalt, or ultramarine, rough to the touch, and which does not lose its colour by being heated to redness; but which becomes agglutinated and semi-fused at a white heat.

Among some rubbish that had been collected in one of the chambers of the baths of Titus, were found several large lumps of deep blue frit, which, when mixed with chalk, produced colours exactly the same as those used in the baths, and was found to be of the same composition. The minute quantity of lime found in this substance, was not sufficient to account for its fusibility: it was therefore concluded that it contained a fixed alkali, which, upon examination, was proved to be sulphate of soda. The undiluted colour in its form of frit is used for ornamenting some of the mouldings detached from the ceilings of the chambers in the baths of Titus; and the walls of one chamber between the compartments of red marble bear proofs of having been covered with this frit, and contain a considerable quantity of it. This is probably the colour described by Theophrastus, as discovered by an Egyptian king, and of which the manufactory was anciently established at Alexandria: it is described by Vestroius as having been prepared by heating strongly together sand, flos nitri, and copper-filings. Pliny mentions other blues from the mines of Egypt, Scythia, and Cyprus: these were probably different preparations of lapis lazuli, and of the blue carbonates and arseniates of copper.

Pliny and Vitruvius speak of the *Indian blue*, which was

was evidently a species of indigo: the blues in the Nozze Aldobrandine, from their resisting the action of acids, and from the effects of fire, are supposed to be compounded of the Alexandrian or Puzzuoli blue. Some blue colour was found in a pot taken from an excavation at Pompeii, which proved to be a mixture of carbonate of lime with Alexandrian frit.

Sir H. Davy supposes, that the stained glass of the ancients was tinged with oxyd of cobalt, and that the colours were similar to the modern smalt. "I have not," says he, "found any powdered colour of this kind in the baths of Titus, or in any other Roman ruins; but the blue glass, tinged with cobalt, is very common in those ruins, which, when powdered, forms a pale-coloured smalt. I have examined many pastes and glasses that contain oxyd of copper; they are all bluish-green, or of an opaque watery blue. The transparent blue glass vessels which are found with the vases in the tombs in Magna Græcia, are tinged with cobalt, and are found to contain this mineral." Sir H. examined some Egyptian pastes, which are all tinged blue and green with copper; and, though he made experiments on nine different specimens of ancient Greek and Roman transparent blue glass, he found copper in none, but cobalt in them all. A gentleman at Milan found some time ago oxyd of cobalt in the blue glass collected from the ruins of Hadrian's Villa; and "at this time," says our author, "I had no idea that cobalt was known to the ancients."

Of the ancient Greens.—The deep sea-green colouring matter, taken from the ceiling of the chambers called the baths of Livia, proved to be soluble in acids, with effervescence; and, when precipitated from acids, it was redissolved in solution of ammonia, giving it a bright blue, produced by copper. There are several different shades of green employed in the baths of Titus, and on the fragments found near the monuments of Caius Cestius. Of the three different varieties, one, which approached to olive, was the common green earth of Verona; another, which was a pale grass-green, had the character of carbonate of copper mixed with chalk; and a third, which was a sea-green, was a combination of copper mixed with the blue copper frit.

Vitruvius mentions chrysocola as a native substance found in the copper-mines; and Pliny speaks of an artificial chrysocola made from the clay found in the neighbourhood of metallic veins, which clay was most probably impregnated with copper. The native chrysocola was probably a carbonate of copper; and the artificial was clay impregnated with sulphate of copper, rendered green by a yellow die.

Among the substances found in the baths of Titus, were some parts of a grass-green colour, which proved to be carbonate of copper; but it had formed round longitudinal nuclei of red oxyd of copper, so that probably these substances had been copper nails used in building, converted, by the action of the air during so many centuries, into oxyd and carbonate.

The ancients, according to Theophrastus, were well acquainted with verdegriis, and Vitruvius mentions it among the pigments; and perhaps many of the ancient greens which are now carbonates of copper were originally laid on in the state of acetite. The ancients had beautiful deep-green glasses, which were tinged with oxyd of copper; but it does not appear that they used these glasses in a state of powder as pigments.

Of the Purple of the Ancients.—The πορφύρεα of the Greeks, and the *ostium* of the Romans, was regarded as their most beautiful colour, and was prepared from shell-fish. According to Vitruvius, the colour differed according to the country from which the shell-fish was brought; it afforded a colour deeper and more approaching to violet from the northern countries, and a redder colour from the southern coasts. The finest purple had a tint like that of a deep-coloured rose; and in painting, it was laid on to give the last lustre to the *sandyx*, a com-

position made by calcining together red ochre and sandarach, and which, it is inferred, must have been nearly the same as our crimson.

In the baths of Titus, there is a broken vase of earthenware which contains a pale rose-colour; which, from a number of curious and interesting experiments, appeared to be a compound of either vegetable or animal origin. It agreed with both the vegetable and animal lakes, in being immediately destroyed by a solution of chlorine. The durability of this lake, whether vegetable or animal, is a very curious circumstance, and probably depends, in a great measure, upon the attractive powers of so large a mass of alumina; for, whenever one portion of a substance is combined with many proportions of another substance, it is very difficult to decompose, or detach, the one proportion. After all his experiments, sir H. D. says, it is impossible to form an opinion whether it is of vegetable or animal origin. If of animal origin, it is probably the Tyrian or marine purple. Mr. Chaptal considers the lake which he found among the colours from Pompeii, as of vegetable origin; and he founds his opinion on the circumstance of its not giving-out by decomposition the smell peculiar to animal substances; but, probably, (says sir H.) this smell, even if produced by recent purple colouring-matter of animal origin, would not belong to colouring-matter of 1700 years old; for the smell is most probably owing to albumen, or gelatine, not essential to the colouring particles, and much more rapidly decomposed. "I have seen no colour of the same tint as this ancient lake, in any of the ancient paintings in fresco. The purplish reds in the baths of Titus are mixtures of red ochres, and the blues of copper. In the Aldobrandine picture, there is a purple garment of the Pronuba, but of an inferior hue; and this purple appears to be a compound mineral colour of the nature of these. It was not destroyed by the solution of chlorine; and, when a little of it was exposed to muriatic acid, it rendered the acid yellow, and the remainder yielded a residual blue powder."

Of the Blacks and Browns.—There is one chamber in the baths of Titus of which the ground-work is black; and there are several fragments of stucco painted black in the baths of Titus, and also in some ruins near the Porta del Popolo. These colours were not acted on by acids or alkalies; they deflagrated with nitre, and had all the properties of pure carbonaceous matter.

Sir H. Davy found no blacks, but three different shades of brown, in the vase of mixed colours; one was snuff-colour, one deep red-brown, and the third, a dark olive-brown. The two first proved to be ochres which had been probably partially calcined; the third contained oxyd of manganese, as well as oxyd of iron, and afforded chlorine when acted on by muriatic acid.

All the ancient authors describe the artificial Greek and Roman blacks as carbonaceous, and made either from the powder of charcoal, or the decomposition of resin, (a species of lamp-black,) or from the lees of wine, or from the common soot of wood fires. Pliny mentions the inks of the cuttle-fish, but says, *ex his non fit*. Pliny speaks of ivory-black as invented by Apelles; he says likewise, that there is a natural fossil black, and another black prepared from an earth of the colour of sulphur. Probably both these substances are ores of iron and manganese.

That the ancients were acquainted with the ores of manganese, is evident from the use made of it in colouring glass. "I have examined two specimens of ancient Roman purple glass, both of which were tinged with oxyd of manganese." Pliny speaks of different brown ochres, and particularly of one from Africa, which he names *cicereulum*, which probably contained manganese; and Theophrastus mentions a fossil which inflamed when oil was poured upon it, a property belonging to no other fossil substance now known, but the *black wad*, an ore of manganese, and which is now found in Derbyshire.

The browns in the paintings of the baths of Livia, and in

in the Aldobrandine picture, are all produced by mixtures of ochres with black. Those in the Aldobrandine picture yield oxyd of iron to muriatic acid; but the darker shades were not touched by that acid.

Of the Whites of the Ancients.—The white colours in the Aldobrandine picture are soluble in acids with effervescence, and have the characters of carbonate of lime. The principal white in the vase of mixed colours appears to be a very fine chalk. There is another white, with a tint of cream-colour, which is a fine aluminous clay. The whites from the baths of Titus, and those from other ruins, are all of the same kind.

Ceruse was not met with amongst the ancient colours, though we know from Theophrastus, Vitruvius, and Pliny, that it was a common colour: and Vitruvius describes it as made by the action of lead upon vinegar.

Of the Manner in which the Ancients applied their Colours.

It appears from Vitruvius, that the colours used in fresco-painting were applied moist to the surface of a stucco formed of powdered marble cemented by lime; he states that the wall or ceiling had three distinct coatings of stucco made of this material, of which the first contained coarse powder of marble; the second the finer powder, and the third the finest powder of all; and that after this the wall was polished before the colour was applied. The stuccos that remain in the ruins of the baths of Titus and Livia are of this kind, and so is the ground of the Aldobrandine picture; they are beautifully white, and almost as hard as marble, and the granular marble of different degrees of fineness may be distinguished in them. This circumstance, indeed, offers a test of the antiquity of ruins at Rome. In the houses that have been built in the middle and latter ages, decomposing lava has been mixed with the calcareous cement, instead of granular marble; and the stuccos of these houses are grey or brown, and very coarse in their texture.

Pliny says, that purple, orpiment, ceruse, the natural azure, indigo, and the meline white, were injured by application to wet stucco; which is easily explained in the case of orpiment, carbonate of copper, ceruse, and indigo, from their chemical composition.

Vitruvius states, that in fresco-painting vermilion changed, if exposed to light; and he recommends the encaustic process for fixing the colour under this circumstance, namely, laying over it a coat of punic wax, and liquifying the wax so as to make a varnish for the colour. (See p. 215.) Pliny describes this process as applied in painting ships; and we know from his authority, that several pictures of the great Greek masters were painted in encaustic, and that the different colours were laid on mixed with wax. "I have examined several pieces of the painted stuccos found in the different ruins, and likewise the Aldobrandine picture, with a view of ascertaining if any application had been made to fix the colour; but neither by the test of alcohol, nor by heat, nor by the action of water, could I detect the presence of any wax-varnish, or animal or vegetable gluten.

"The pot of colours to which I have already referred, found at Pompeii, was blackened by smoke, as if it had been recently on a fire of wood. I thought that this might be owing to some process for dissolving gluten or varnish in the preparation of the colour; but I could detect no substance of this kind mixed with the colouring-matter. Pliny states, that gluten (our glue) was used in painting with blacks; and this specific mention of its application would induce the belief that it was not employed with other colours, which adhered without difficulty to, and were imbibed by, a surface so polished and well prepared as the Roman stucco; and the lightness of carbonaceous matter alone probably rendered this application necessary.

General Observations by Sir H. Davy.—It appears from the facts that have been stated, and the authorities quoted, that the Greek and Roman painters had almost all the

same colours as those employed by the great Italian masters, at the period of the revival of the arts in Italy. They had indeed the advantage over them in two colours; the Ægean or Egyptian azure, and the Tyrian or marine purple.

The azure, of which the excellence is proved by its duration for seventeen hundred years, may be easily and cheaply made; I find that fifteen parts by weight of carbonate of soda, twenty parts of powdered opaque flints, and three parts of copper-filings, strongly heated together for two hours, gave a substance of exactly the same tint, and of nearly the same degree of fusibility, and which, when powdered, produced a fine deep sky-blue. The azures, the red-and-yellow ochres, and the blacks, are the colours that seem not to have changed at all in the ancient fresco-paintings. The vermilion is darker than recently-made Dutch cinnabar; and the red-lead is inferior in tint to that sold in the shops. The greens in general are dull.

The principle of the composition of the Alexandrian frit is perfect; namely, that of embodying the colour in a composition resembling stone, so as to prevent the escape of elastic matter from it, or the decomposing action of the elements; this is a species of artificial lapis lazuli, the colouring-matter of which is naturally inherent in a hard siliceous stone. It is probable that other coloured frits may be made, and it is worth trying whether the beautiful purple given by oxyd of gold, cannot be made useful in painting on a densely-tinted glass. Where frits can be employed, metallic combinations, which are insoluble in water, and which are saturated with oxygen, or some acid matter, it is evident from the proof of a duration of seventeen centuries, are the best pigments. In the red ochres, the oxyd of iron is fully combined with oxygen and carbonic acid; and these colours have not changed. The carbonates of copper, which contain an oxyd and an acid, have changed very little. Massicot and orpiment were probably the least permanent amongst the ancient mineral colours.

Of the colours the discovery of which is owing to the improvements in modern chemistry, the patent yellow is much more durable than any ancient yellow of the same brilliancy; and chromate of lead, an insoluble compound of a metallic acid with a metallic oxyd, is a much more beautiful yellow than any possessed by the ancients; and, there is every reason to believe, is quite unalterable.

Scheele's green (the arsenite of copper) and the insoluble muriatic combination of copper, will probably be found more unalterable than the ancient greens; and the sulphate of barytes offers a white superior to any possessed by the Greeks and Romans.

I have tried the effect of light and air upon some of the colours formed by the new substance *iodine*. Its combination with mercury offers a good red; but it is, I think, less beautiful than vermilion, and it appears to change more by the action of light. Its compound with lead gives a beautiful yellow, little inferior to the chromate of lead; and I possess some of this colour which has been exposed to light and air without alteration for several months.

In many of the figures and ornaments in the outer chambers of the baths of Titus, where only outlines or spots remain, or shades of ochre, it is probable that vegetable or animal colours, such as indigo and the different dyed clays, were used. Some excellent pictures have suffered very much in modern times from the same cause the lakes in the frescos of the Vatican have lost much of the brilliancy which they must have possessed originally. The blues in many pictures of Paul Veronese are become muddy.

Pliny speaks of the celebrated Greek painters as employing only four colours; white, yellow, red, and black; but, as far as Apelles and Nicomachus are concerned, this is a mistake; and it is not unlikely that Pliny was misled by an imperfect recollection of a passage in Cicero, who describes

describes the earlier Greek school as using only four colours, but the later Greek painters as perfect masters in all the resources of colouring. Pliny himself describes with enthusiasm the *Venus Anadyomenē* of Apelles; and in this picture the sea was represented, which required azure.

The Greek painters, like the most illustrious artists of the Roman and Venetian school, were probably, however, sparing in the use of the more florid tints in historical and moral painting, and produced their effects rather by the contrasts of colouring in those parts of the picture where a deep and uniform tint might be used, than by brilliant drapery. If, therefore, red and yellow ochres, blacks and whites, were the colours most employed by Protogenes and Apelles, so they are likewise the colours most employed by Raphael and Titian, in their best style. The *St. John* and the *Venus*, in the tribune of the gallery at Florence, offer striking examples of pictures, in which all the deeper tints are evidently produced by red and yellow ochres and carbonaceous substances.

"As far as colours are concerned, these works are prepared for that immortality which they deserve; but, unfortunately, the oil and the canvas are vegetable materials, and liable to decomposition, and the last is less durable than even the wood on which the Greek artists painted their celebrated pictures." Read before the Royal Society, Feb. 23, 1815.

The lovers of painting are much indebted to sir Humphry Davy, for the above elaborate essay respecting the colours of the ancients; and it would be very desirable that this gentleman should continue his researches upon similar subjects, as the exertion of his splendid talents in this way promises to be of the greatest service to the arts in general. The extraordinary discoveries in chemistry which the present age has elicited, cannot fail to assist the artist in a wonderful manner; and it is matter of surprise, that a science in such close connection with the art of painting should be so little cultivated. The Royal Academy has its lecturer on anatomy; why not its professor of chemistry also? If it be necessary for the young student to know the proportions and constituent parts of the human figure, is it not equally important that he should be instructed in the chemical principles of colour-making; and not only to mix his colours with judgment, but be able to explain the causes of the effect produced? It is well known how much time and money sir Joshua Reynolds spent to no purpose in contrivances for mixing colours. What advantages, then, might not be derived from a course of lectures upon this subject illustrated by experiments! Subsequent publication of such lectures would be indispensably requisite, as the young artist might then pursue the theory in the closet, and put it in practice upon the canvas. The proper track once pointed out, we should have improvements multiplied, chemistry and painting more closely united, genius would strike out new beauties; and it is highly probable that the art would arrive at a degree of perfection hardly, in the present situation of things, to be expected.

HISTORY OF MODERN PAINTING.

It was not at once, and by miracle, that painting reappeared. Cherished, amidst the terrors of war and bigotry, by the Greek monks, in their silent seclusions, it was occasionally exhibited; and, for two centuries at least before the acknowledged era of its rise, according to Malvasia, and perhaps more early, had been publicly practised, though humbly, in fresco and in mosaic. He says that from 1115 to 1140, Guido, Ventura, and Orson, were employed as painters in several churches at Bologna; and, doubtless, these practices prevailed in other places; for now the ecclesiastical power of the church of Rome was completely established in Italy, and felt the advantages to be derived from adding splendour to the buildings erected to its honour, and exciting the zeal of its devotees. The character, however, of the art, as exhibited in the works of the Greek agents universally em-

ployed at this time, was but ill calculated to answer the higher views of those who promoted the exercise of it; for it was now at its lowest ebb.

Pisa, Lucca, Florence, and other petty republics into which the territory of Italy was divided, began about this period to shake off the barbarism which had so long abused and controlled them, and to exhibit a taste for improvement. Artists were summoned from Greece to assist in adorning Pisa and Florence; and, amongst other things, to paint the chapel of the Gondi family, at the church of *Sia. Maria Novella*, in the latter place; whilst the Venetians employed Apollonius, and others of the same country, on mosaics, in the church of *St. Mark*.

To the gratification enjoyed by Giovanni Cimabue at seeing the productions of the former of these artists, is Europe indebted, in a great measure, for whatever she has since beheld in the art. He, Andrea Taffi, who learned the art of working in mosaic from Apollonius, and Nicolo Pisano, instructed first in sculpture by Greeks, and afterwards by study from ancient bas-reliefs brought by his countryman from Greece, were the first Italians reported to have entered the lists with their masters; whose taste is allowed to have been hard and poor, and devoid of all spirit of imitation, either of nature or of ancient art: a state of debasement we might deem impossible to have occurred, after the extraordinary display of talents which those countries had witnessed, did we not know the rapidity with which the arts fall into decay, if not upheld by a constant succession of practice; and how slow their growth is in advance. And yet, doubtless, notwithstanding the horrors of destructive war, and the mad superstitious zeal of the iconoclasts of the eighth century, many noble examples of sculpture, and architecture more particularly, must have remained to guide their taste. So it was, however; and Vasari and others speak of the arts at this period as being utterly unworthy of the name. Such was their situation in Italy, when Cimabue, who was born at Florence, of a noble family, in 1240, having been initiated into the miserable practice of the Greek artists, conceived the desire of improving upon it; and succeeded so well in his attempt, that a picture of the Virgin, which he painted as large as life, for the church dedicated to her at Florence, excited enthusiastic delight in his fellow-citizens. They treated the painter with almost divine honours; the picture was carried in procession, with the sound of trumpets, to the place of its destination; and the day was celebrated as a public feast. Encouraged by this applause and admiration, Cimabue pursued the art with ardour; and, though the utmost of his efforts were weak and inefficient, yet he made a very great advance beyond his teachers. Vasari, 200 years afterwards, could not help expressing his surprise, that he had seen his way so far through the obscurity of the age he lived in; yet such was the Gothic barbarity in his picture of Christ Crucified, in the cloister of *St. Francis*, at Pisa, that written labels are employed to convey the sentiments of the Saviour to his mother and *St. John*.

His pupil Giotto, whom from a shepherd he raised to be a painter, relieved the art infinitely more from the fetters of Greek imperfection. The extreme rapidity with which he advanced in design, we can only account for by supposing that he left the trammels of the art, as then practised, and studied attentively the productions of the ancients which were to be found in Florence; and which then, doubtless, began to be in research. Giotto left off the use of labels, aimed at real expression, and obtained it; and, even in his own age, was acknowledged to be the pupil of nature. He may be said to have performed for the Italians what Polygnotus had done for the Grecians, by marking the line in which the art ought to be pursued; and, though in both it was accompanied with great deficiencies, yet it was just in its object and direction. To Giotto the world was indebted for the portraits of Dante, Brunetti, and others, amongst those who at that time shone conspicuous in literature, and

with whom he lived on terms of intimacy and friendship. His abilities procured him the patronage of pope Benedict IX. according to Vafari, (though Baldinucci says that it was Boniface VIII.) who employed him in St. Peter's, and highly honoured and remunerated him. Henceforth the art of painting became attached to the papal dignity, and few succeeding pontiffs disregarded the use of it.

The skill of this ingenious artist excited the emulation of many among his contemporaries throughout Italy; and the arts, having now acquired an earnest employment and reputation, of emolument and of honour, no longer wanted skilful professors, or illustrious patrons. A grand epoch of their establishment took place at Florence in 1350, fourteen years after the death of Giotto; when a disciple of his, Jacopo Cassentino, and nine other artists, founded the Academy of St. Luke in that city; an institution from whence arose a large display of talent, increasing in worth, till at length, near 150 years after its foundation, it gave to the world three of the greatest luminaries in art which it has ever known; Leonardo da Vinci, Michael Angelo, and Raphael; besides Masaccio, and others of great repute.

From this time, then, we may date the establishment of what are called

SCHOOLS OF PAINTING.

By a *school*, we understand, as connected with the present subject, a class of artists who have learned their art from a certain master, either by receiving his instructions, or by studying his works; and who of consequence discover more or less of his *manner*, from the desire of imitation, or from the habit of adopting his principles.

All the painters which Europe has produced since the renovation of the arts are classed under the following schools: the School of Florence, the School of Rome, the School of Venice, the Lombard School, the French School, the German School, the Flemish School, the Dutch School, and the English School.

SCHOOL OF FLORENCE.—This school is remarkable for greatness; for a boldness of expression which is unparalleled by any of the others, and a sublimity of composition which has excited the surprise and astonishment of all ages; though it is inferior in grace and beauty to the Roman school, and in liveliness and éclat of colouring to the Venetian school.

This school has an indisputable title to the veneration of all the lovers of the arts, as the first in Italy which cultivated them. Cimabue may be considered as the founder of it; but we have already seen that it was not till the year 1350 that the Florentine painters became so numerous and so respectable as to form themselves into a school or society under the protection of St. Luke.

After a lapse of near a hundred years from the death of Giotto, Tomaso da San Giovanni, better known by the name of Masaccio, (from his total neglect of personal appearance,) exhibited a more exalted taste, and a grander style of execution, than his contemporaries. The art, under his hands, may be said to have advanced from the weakness of infancy to the station of youth, verging towards the vigour of perfect manhood. He first composed with an eye to the whole; managed his groups and single figures upon the principles of perspective, which had been taught him by the sculptor Brunelleschi; and, by understanding the effect of those principles, first laid the feet of upright figures flat upon the ground, and foreshortened his heads and figures with truth and effect. In fact, it was to him that future artists were indebted for a more sure and fixed direction of the line in which the art ought to be pursued. He studied nature with the greatest attention, gave breadth and simplicity to his draperies, and most admirable action, character, and expression, to his figures; which are justly and appropriately employed, and wrought with admirable execution. Even Raphael did not scruple, eighty years afterwards, to study, and

sometimes to adopt, his actions; of which there is an extraordinary instance in the figure of St. Paul preaching at Athens. His principal works in the chapel of the Brancacci, in the church del Carmine at Florence, became the school of study for all those excellent artists who succeeded him; till, at length, Leonardo da Vinci, born near that city in 1445, two years after the death of Masaccio, came forth with superior lustre, and eclipsed all that had preceded. Endowed with uncommon genius, all arts and sciences seemed scarcely to offer a sufficient field for the exertion of his talents. He grasped at all, and succeeded in whatever he undertook; but, by his versatility, wasted much of his time in experiment. Had he persevered with steadiness in pursuit of the art of painting, he probably would have carried it to the utmost perfection. As it was, whatever he painted came from his hand elevated and adorned, and presented a complete originality of effect and manner. To truth and precision of character, and whatever had been well done by Masaccio, Leonardo added new and most valuable qualities, by introducing the principles of *chiaro-scuro*, and depth of tone in colour. By the former of these, pictures were relieved from the tameness of mere imitation, and acquired an increase of power, in boldness and strength of relief, and force of effect. He may be said to have given more than hints of improvement in all the various branches of the art; and to have left some examples, whence others, enjoying more steadiness, and less impetuosity of character, subsequently imbibed such instruction, as directed their course, and aided them in a nearer view of ideal perfection. Michael Angelo in design, Corregio in finish and *chiaro-scuro*, and Rubens in composition, are surely indebted to Da Vinci for the foundation of much of their perfections.

The general increase of mental civilization, of literature, and of science; the same causes which operated in the establishment of the first grand era of the arts among the Greeks; now again began to prevail in the world; and the country where they were found, by natural progress, in its turn became the nurse of art; and in time was remunerated, in the honour and renown of supporting them, till they established a second epoch, scarcely less illustrious than the former. The existence of Leonardo da Vinci was the immediate precursor of that exaltation; and the examples he left, and the lessons he inculcated in his writings, had no small share in producing it. In him, as we have seen in Pamphilus, the master of Apelles, the art enjoyed the advantage of an union with science and general cultivation; and the effect of that combination is evident in the history of both. It enabled Leonardo to embellish and diversify the general impression of character drawn by Masaccio; and to exhibit, with more variety and fulness, the latent feelings of the human heart. Of this, his picture of the Last Supper, at Milan, is a sufficient proof. And that this perfection was the result of deep reflection, is evident, by his having refrained from painting the head of the Saviour, till he could completely satisfy his mind with what features and expression he ought to compose a representation of his divine character. We are told the same story of Haydon, in his picture of Christ's Entry into Jerusalem, now exhibiting in London.

About the beginning of the century in which Leonardo was born, the use of *oil* was adopted as a vehicle for painting; and afforded the means of most extensive improvement, particularly in colour and effect. Distemper, or colours mixed with size and water, appears to have been the first adopted practice; and afterwards, fresco, as more durable, and better adapted to larger purposes. But both of these modes are limited in the execution, more particularly the latter, in which, no means being given to change or retouch the colours without evident disparagement to the work, the artist was obliged to adopt as simple a plan of conduct as possible in the management of his designs. But, when a vehicle was discovered,

vered, or applied, the use of which permitted frequent changes in effect, and in arrangement of colours, with the assurance of perfect union at the conclusion, no means were wanting which he could desire for the indulgence of the utmost stretch of his imagination.

The event which gave rise to the exercise of *painting with colours ground and mixed with oil*, is supposed, with great reason, to have been varnishing-over pictures painted with water-colours; which, as they were wrought up to the full resemblance of natural objects when the colours were dry, were rendered by the varnish as deep in hue as when the materials were wetted to be employed: and thus a tone of effect was superadded to the natural and ordinary one, purely artificial, but very engaging; and the more so, when placed in opposition to the comparatively dull and tame effect of the former modes; which of necessity lacked lustre, as they always dried with a deadened surface.

The discovery of this very essential advantage to the art of painting, which so readily enabled it to outstep whatever had been previously done, has been, by most authors who have written upon the subject, attributed to John Van Eyck, in 1410. Though many doubt concerning the accuracy of this opinion, (see EYCK, vol vii. p. 142.) yet one thing remains clear, that, till after the time in which he lived, oil, as a vehicle for colour, was not in general use. No doubt can remain, that, if he did not actually first apply it to the purpose of his art, at least he first used it essentially and effectually. His application of it would not otherwise have made, as Vanmader says, "as much noise in the world as the discovery of gunpowder by Bertoldo Schwartz had done near a century before;" nor would a native of Italy have taken the trouble of journeying to Flanders, and soliciting the friendship and instructions of Van Eyck, as, Vafari says, Antonella da Messina did, could he have obtained the knowledge he sought at the cost of less trouble and time.

Painting, according to Vanmader, the historian of the Flemish artists, had been carried into Flanders about the time of Giotto, by some Flemings, who went for the express purpose of learning it; and he says that "the mode of painting brought from Italy, was with gum and eggs; having been so practised at Florence at its first commencement by Cimabue." It spread in practice among the Germans about the same time; and each of these countries established a mode of art, or style, for themselves. It was in Italy alone, however, that any true perception of what was the proper object of art appears to have been felt, and there it was first exhibited; and even there it dates its principal exertions from one city and its dependencies; viz. Florence. In this place alone it remained pure in its object, the delineation of character and expression, with selection of form, and simplicity, and un-mixed purity of effect. A style of design, which, pursuing the first impulse of the art, viz. the representation of events at their most impressive moments, leaves minor objects out of consideration, and aims solely at fulfilling its purposes in an intuitive manner upon the mind of an observer. That style Giotto had founded; it was improved in effect by Masaccio, strengthened by Bartolomeo della Porta and Leonardo da Vinci, and finally perfected by Raphael and Michael Angelo.

To this most important aim of the art the introduction of oil in painting brought no efficient aid. What has been said of its benefits, applies only to the ornamental, or less important, applications of it. The objects of the grand style, viz. beauty of design, and purity of expression, the weakest materials are capable of presenting to the imagination; and therefore, notwithstanding the brilliancy of colour and effect which was afforded by the use of oil, it was in great measure disregarded by the Florentines; or, if employed by them, they carried into its practice the defective hues of fresco; to the exception of Leonardo da Vinci, and Fra. Bartolomeo della Porta, (born at Florence in 1479,) who followed

closely the line of colouring laid down by the former, his immediate predecessor. To him the art is indebted for the first conception of the union of true grandeur of style in design, with a suitable dignity and depth of colouring. The subjects he chose were generally of a religious kind, which nearly excluded naked figures; but he amply compensated for that, by the mode in which he composed his draperies and arranged his groups. Of him Raphael is supposed to have acquired more information than from any other source, till he had seen the works of M. Angelo in the Sistine chapel. It was Bartolomeo who changed the taste he had imbibed from his master Pietro Perugino, and directed it in the course wherein he afterwards surpassed all that the modern art of painting had effected.

Michael Angelo was contemporary with Leonardo da Vinci; and surpassed him in grandeur, in boldness of conception, and in knowledge of design; but Leonardo was superior to him in all the amiable parts of the art: Leonardo, possessed of a fine imagination, and full of sensibility, devoted himself, in painting, to express the affections of the soul; and if, in this sublime branch of the art, he was afterwards surpassed by Raphael, he had at least the glory not only of exceeding all the painters who went before him, but of pursuing a path which none of them had attempted. Michael Angelo, less formed to experience sweet affections than vehement passions, sought in nature what the strength of man might accomplish, not that which constitutes beauty. He delighted in being great and terrible, more than in graceful and pleasing attitudes. Well acquainted with anatomy, he knew more exactly than any other artist in what manner to express the joining of the bones of the body, and the office and insertion of the muscles: but, too eager to display his knowledge of anatomy, he seems to have forgotten that the muscles are softened by the skin which covers them; and that they are less visible in children, in women, and in young men, than in confirmed and vigorous manhood. "In his figures (says Mengs) the articulations of the muscles are so easy and free, that they appear to be made for the attitude in which he represents them. The fleshy parts are too much rounded, and the muscles are in general too large, and of too equal strength. You never perceive in his figures a muscle at rest; and, although he knew admirably well how to place them, their action is very frequently inconsistent with their situation."

"He did not possess (says sir Joshua Reynolds) so many delightful parts of the art as Raphael; but those which he had acquired were of a more sublime nature. He saw in painting little more than what might be attained in sculpture; and he confined it to exactness of form, and the expression of passions. He never attempted the lesser elegancies and graces in the art. Vafari says, *he never painted but one picture in oil*; and resolved never to paint another, saying it was an employment only fit for women and children. If any man had a right to look down upon the lower accomplishments as beneath his attention, it was certainly Michael Angelo; nor can it be thought strange, that such a mind should have slighted, or have been withheld from paying due attention to, those graces and embellishments of art which have diffused such lustre over the works of other painters."

ROMAN SCHOOL.—Ancient Rome, rich with the works brought from Greece, or finished in its own bosom by Grecian artists, handed down in its ruins the remains of that glory to which it had been elevated. It was by the study of these remains that the modern artists were formed: they derived from them the knowledge of design, the beauty of exquisite forms, greatness of style, and justness of expression, carried to that length only which did not affect the beauty of the figure: from them also they derived the principles of the art of drapery; and they followed these principles even while they made the drapery of modern paintings more large and flowing than what was practised by the ancient sculptors. The Roman school

school was altogether devoted to the principal parts of the art, to those which require genius and vast conceptions; and was no farther occupied with colours, than what was necessary to establish a difference between painting and sculpture, or rather between painting varied with colours and in chiaro-scuro.

Raphael Sanzio, born at Urbino in 1483, and scholar to Pietro Perugino, was the undoubted founder of this school. His first manner was that of Perugino, his master; but he travelled twice to Florence, to study the great artists who flourished in that city.

It was fortunate for Raphael, says Mengs, that he was born in what he terms the infancy of the art, and that he formed himself by copying nature before he had access to see the works of any great master. He began by studying, with great exactness, the simple truth in his figures. He was then ignorant that any choice was necessary; but he saw the works of Leonardo da Vinci, of Massaccio, and of Michael Angelo, which gave his genius a new direction. After this, he perceived that there was something more in the art of painting than a mere imitation of truth. But the works of those masters were not sufficiently perfect to point out the best choice to make; and he continued in uncertainty till he saw at Rome the works of the ancients. Then he perceived that he had found the true models which he wanted; and, in imitating them, he had only to follow the natural impulse of his genius.

Habituated by his first manner to imitate nature with precision, it was not difficult to carry the same exactness into the imitation of the ancients; and it was a great advantage to him, that he flourished in an age wherein the artists had not achieved facility of execution at the expense of rigorous exactness. He never lost sight of nature; but he was instructed by the ancients in what manner she should be studied. He perceived that the Greeks had not entered into minute details, that they had selected what was great or beautiful, and that one of the chief causes of the beauty of their works, was the regularity of their proportions; he began, therefore, by carefully studying this part of the art. He saw also that the joinings of the bones, and the free play of the articulations, are the causes of all graceful movement: he therefore, after the example of the ancients, gave the greatest attention to this part, and was led by these observations not to be contented with the simple imitation of nature.

His design is excellent, but neither so perfect nor so finished as that of the Greeks. He excelled in representing the character of philosophers, apostles, and other figures of that kind; but he did not equal the Greeks in ideal figures, which ought to carry the impression of divinity. His taste for design was more Roman than Greek, because he formed it chiefly on the basso-relievos which he found at Rome. On this account he had the habit of marking strongly the bones and the articulations, and labouring the fleshy parts less; but, as these basso-relievos are very exact with regard to the reciprocal proportions of every member, he excelled in this part, while at the same time he did not give to his figures all the elegance of the Greek artists, nor the flexibility of articulation which is admired in the Laocoon, in the Apollo of Belvedere, and in the Gladiator.

The manners and spirit of his age, and the subjects which he most commonly treated, prevented him from reaching the ideal of the ancients. Having seldom occasion to represent figures altogether ideal, he devoted himself to purity of expression. He knew that the expression of the passions of the soul is absolutely necessary in an art which represents the actions of men, since, from those affections, the actions may be said truly to originate. To make figures act, and yet neglect the interior springs of action, is nothing more than a representation of automata. The attitudes and action are evident; but they appear not to act of themselves, because they are void of those principles from which alone men are supposed to act.

An artist who neglects *expression*, gives no just representation of character, even though he should take nature for his model. Raphael's first care, when he wanted to compose a piece, was to weigh the expression; that is to say, to establish, according to the nature of the subject, the passions which were to animate the characters. All the figures, all the accessories, all the parts of the composition, were moulded to the general expression.

As he had not found examples in the ancient statues of the chiaro-scuro, he was comparatively weak in this part; and, if there was any thing remarkable in his distribution of light and shade, he owed it to the works of the Florentine painters. It cannot be said, however, even with regard to the chiaro-scuro, that he imitated nature without taste. He delighted in what are called *masses* of light; and disposed the great lights in the most conspicuous places of his figures, whether naked or in drapery. If this method did not produce effects highly illusive, it gives his works that distinctness which makes his figures conspicuous at a distance; and this must be allowed to be an essential part of the art of painting. He did not proceed beyond this; and, content with that kind of chiaro-scuro which comprehends imitation, he never attempted that which is ideal.

The *composition* and the *ensemble* of his figures, were the chief excellencies of Raphael. His philosophical mind could not be affected with objects which had not expression. He had too high an idea of painting to consider it as a mute art; he made it speak to the heart and soul; and he could only do this in subjects which required expression. If Raphael did not reach the Greek excellence, if he did not possess the art of embellishing nature in the same high degree, he saw at least, and imitated her in, whatever was expressive and beautiful. "The Greeks failed with majesty (says Mengs) between earth and heaven: Raphael walked with propriety on the earth." "Composition is in general (says the same author) of two kinds: Raphael's is the expressive kind; the other is the theatrical or picturesque, which consists of an agreeable disposition of the figures. Lanfranc was the inventor of this last, and, after him, Pietro da Cortona. I give the preference to Raphael; because reason presides over all his works, or at least the greatest part of them. He never allowed himself in common ideas, and was never allured to give any thing in his accessory figures which might turn the attention from the principal object of the piece."

It has been observed with great propriety as well as truth, that the paintings of the divine Raphael do not, in general, excite a lively emotion at first sight; and that the cartoons, in particular, although they are the best performances of his inimitable pencil, have often been seen and gazed at, by the public who flock to Hampton-court for the purpose of admiring them, without striking the beholders so forcibly as to elicit the least expression of surprise. Several companies have walked leisurely through the *loggie* and the other apartments of the Vatican, heedless of what surrounded them, and have requested, most innocently, the cicerone to show them the marvellous works of Raphael. The fact is, that the transactions of human life, when faithfully represented, are so familiar to our eyes, that we mistake them for the very acts which we are constantly witnesses to; and that, by mechanically identifying them with nature in our mind, art loses the merit of imitation, and becomes for a moment nature herself. Hence the reason why mythological, allegorical, and religious, subjects, have been always better received than mere historical ones. Eager to excite astonishment, the artist soon found that the surest way was to mix fanciful conceptions with real facts, in order to give them an epic turn, and thereby strike the sight and move the soul. The religion and popular traditions of the Greeks and Romans afforded their poets, painters, and sculptors, an immense scope to vary and adorn their themes; and the Christian belief has proved a most agreeable and an inexhaustible

haughty source of beauties of that kind. Angels and seraphs, miraculous apparitions of saints, and the liberty generally allowed to group together personages who lived at the distance of several centuries from each other, unshackled the hands of the painter, enlarged his canvas, and placed his easel above the clouds. Hence that wonderful enthusiasm which fired his mind, taught his pencil to sweep in bold strokes across the pannel, and unveiled to him those heavenly features which are supposed to be enlightened and blessed with the reflection of the ineffable rays which emanate from God himself.

Raphael's last and most beautiful picture is the celebrated *Transfiguration*, which was exposed at the head of his coffin, to give an impressive idea of the loss the world had just experienced by the death of so great a genius. A copy of this chef d'œuvre, drawn under the eye of Raphael, and painted after his death by Julio Romano, is now at Dulwich-college, as an altar-piece; and is the more precious, that the original, transported from Rome to Paris, has materially suffered under the hands of unskilful cleaners.

A history of the schools is nothing more than a history of the painters who founded them. In those two which we have already given, Michael Angelo and Raphael come readily forward to claim our attention. We have already compared the former with Leonardo da Vinci; and we cannot better conclude this account than by contrasting him with Raphael. This we shall do in the words of sir Joshua Reynolds. "If we put those great artists (says he) in a light of comparison with each other, Raphael had more taste and fancy, Michael Angelo more genius and imagination. The one excelled in beauty, the other in energy. Michael Angelo has more of the poetical in operation; his ideas are vast and sublime; his people are a superior order of beings; there is nothing about them, nothing in the air of their actions, or their attitudes, or the style and cast of their limbs or features, that puts one in mind of their belonging to our species. Raphael's imagination is not so elevated; his figures are not so much disjointed from our own diminutive race of beings, though his ideas are chaste, noble, and of great conformity to their subject. Michael Angelo's works have a strong, peculiar, and marked character; they seem to proceed from his own mind entirely; and that mind so rich and abundant, that he never needed, or seemed to disdain, to look abroad for foreign help. Raphael's materials are generally borrowed, though the noble structure is his own. The excellency of this extraordinary man lay in the propriety, beauty, and majesty, of his characters; his judicious contrivance of composition, correctness of drawing, purity of taste, and the skilful accommodation of other men's conceptions to his own purpose."

VENETIAN SCHOOL.—Whilst painting was pursued at Florence in its higher principles, and thence transplanted pure to Rome, to adorn the pontifical palaces, &c. of the imperial city, its more alluring, though less solid, charms, were cultivated at Venice; where colour occupied the attention of the artists, and repaid it with her most engaging fascinations. Among those artists, Giorgione del Castel Franco, born in 1477, has the reputation of having begun that system of *colouring*, which his early death alone prevented him from carrying to perfection. Had the period of his existence been lengthened, it is probable that *Titian*, who adopted his style, would not have stood so completely alone, as he now does, at the head of the Venetian school. In character and in grace, Giorgione, in some of the few works which he has left, has evidently surpassed him. Except in the adaptations of it to exalted subjects, and an admixture of a certain degree of grandeur and purity in design, which was effected by Titian, the Venetian style of art has an equal supporter in Giacomo Robusti, called *il Tintoretto*; who, too free to be correct, and too daring to be chaste, held the pencil with a vigour of colour and execution worthy

of being added to the sublimity of Michael Angelo in design. Unfortunately, to the delights of execution and surface, he sacrificed character, expression, and propriety; and the world ought to regard him as the founder of the ornamental style, rather than Titian; whose best works hold a middle rank between Tintoretto and Michael Angelo, and are of too serious a character to merit that appellation. It was however his process of colouring which guided the hand of Tintoretto, and also that of Paulo Veronese, in establishing the success of the Venetian school. Paduanino, the elder and younger Palma, Pordenone, the Bassans, and many others, upheld the system for a time, but not with equal powers.

The artists in the Florentine and Roman schools painted most commonly in water-colours or in fresco; and, in the exercise of their profession, instead of nature, they finished their works from their first sketches. Titian painted in oil, and finished from the objects in nature; and this practice, joined to his exquisite talents, gave the greatest truth to his colours. His being a portrait-painter was also of advantage to him as a colourist. In this department, he was accustomed to the colours of nature in carnations and draperies. But the colours of his paintings are so mingled together, as to give no idea of the colours on his pallet; which distinguishes him from Rubens, who placed his colours one at the side of another. It is impossible to say, on the narrowest inspection, with what colours he produced his tints. This practice, which enabled him to imitate so exactly the colours of nature, gives a marked distinction to his manner of painting. In the examination of his works, the critics lose an ordinary source of pleasure, which arises from marking the freedom of hand; but they may console themselves with the natural and exquisite touches of this artist. He is of historical painters one of those who have best succeeded in landscape. His situations are well chosen; his trees are varied in their forms, and their foliage well conceived. He had a custom of representing some remarkable appearance in his landscapes to render them more striking.

There is much ingenuity in Goëthe's remarks on the causes of the transparent colouring of the Venetian painters. The eye, he says with truth, is formed by the objects to which it is accustomed; and here every thing is brilliant. When he saw the gondoliers dressed in gay colours, set off by the vivid green surface of the water, and by the clear sky, he perceived in these objects the character of the pictures of the Venetian school. The sunshine brought out the colouring with dazzling brilliancy, and the shadows were illuminated by the light reflected from the water; all was *light in light*.

In the year 1798, Mr. Sheldrake, of the Strand, presented to the Society of Arts a Dissertation on Oil-painting, as practised in the ancient Venetian School. From this we shall make a few extracts.

"The method of painting practised in the Venetian school, I conceive to have been as follows: The cloth was primed with colours in distemper, of a brownish hue, such as would properly enter into the darkest parts of the picture: the most transparent colours are the properest. I believe umber was most generally used, broken with red, yellow, or blue, according to the tint intended to be produced, and diluted with chalk, or whiting, to the proper degree of strength. Upon the ground so prepared, the subject was correctly drawn with umber, pure, or mixed with lake, blue, or black: and with the same colours those shadows that were darker than the ground were then painted in. The artist then painted the lights with *pure white*, in a solid body, where the light was brightest, or where the full effect of colour was to be produced; and, where the demi-tints were afterwards to be, scumbling it thinner by degrees, till it united with the shadows. In this manner, the *chiaro-scuro* was finished as much as possible, and the local colour of every object in the picture glazed over it. All the colours used in this part

of the work were ground in oil, which was absorbed into the ground; the picture remaining flat, something like a picture in water-colours, or crayons: it was then varnished, till saturated with varnish, and the full of every colour brought out. The picture was then complete.

"The demi-tints, which conduce so much to the brilliancy of a picture, which are so difficult to execute, and in which the painter most frequently fails, are, in the ordinary modes of painting, produced by the mixture of black, grey, blue, or brown, (according to the judgment of the artist,) with the local colours of the objects. It is these tints which, from their being made with such colours, it is difficult to get clear, and which never are so clear in any other as in the Venetian pictures, and in some of the Flemish ones painted upon analogous principles. The fact is, that those painters produced all such tints without the admixture of any colour to represent them, and by a method so like that by which they are produced in nature, that this circumstance alone ensures a degree of brightness to their colours, and of harmony to their shadows, that it is perhaps impossible to produce, in an equal degree, by any other mode of painting.

"It is a singular fact, which I have not skill in physics to be able to account for, though, by numerous experiments, I have ascertained it beyond contradiction, that if, upon any degree of brown between the deepest and the lightest brown-yellow, we paint pure white, in gradations, from the solid body to the lightest tint that can be laid on, all the tints between the solid white and the ground will appear to be *grey*, intense in proportion to the depth of the ground, and the thinness of the white laid upon it. But, in every case, all the tints laid upon one ground will harmonize with each other, and form one connected chain, (if I may use the expression,) which will perfectly unite the highest light with the darkest shade.

"If, then, we examine the component substances of a Venetian picture, we shall find the lighter parts consist only of white, to represent the light; and, of the local colours of the objects it represents, the demi-tints are imitated by an *appearance* almost as deceptive as the similar appearances in nature: but, in every other method of painting, these demi-tints are produced by mixing some dusky colour with the local colours and the light. The comparison of these methods will afford a demonstrative reason why the Venetian must be brighter than any other mode of painting.

"Having shewn, as near to a demonstration as the nature of the subject will perhaps admit, why those parts of a Venetian picture that are connected with light and colours are brighter than the corresponding parts of any other pictures, it remains to explain the cause of similar superiority in the darker parts of the same pictures. It has been said, with much confidence, that, as white represents light, so black is the representative of darkness. But, though this may be true in physics, it certainly is not so in painting; for the painter's art is to represent objects as they *appear*, in point of colour, to be, not as they really are. Thus, if I know an object is perfectly black, and am to represent it as it appears to be at the distance of fifty feet, black from the pallet will not produce a good imitation of it, because the interposition of fifty feet of the atmosphere will cause it to appear of a colour different from what it really is; and, *vice versa*, if we go into a cavern, a cellar, or a room so darkened that the colour of no object can be distinctly seen, and if we there hold any solid black substance near to the eye, the difference will be visible at once; the black object will be immediately distinguished, by its solidity and colour, from the surrounding space, and from such remote objects as may be obscurely visible through it. These objects actually possess their individual colours, and only appear indistinctly from the absence of light. The black object may appear solid, and of that colour, from its proximity to the eye; but the circumjacent ones will appear of a colour perfectly distinct from it, more or less transparent in proportion to their distance

from the eye, and shewing a portion of their individual colours, according to the quantity of ill-defined light that may be admitted. Thus we see (if I may venture to mention so notorious a truism) that shadows are nothing real: they only seem to exist in the absence of light, and give to objects an ill-defined appearance, distinct from, though in some instances mixed with, light and colours in different degrees; but, as the painter must represent this *appearance* by something real, he chooses the colours most analogous, *viz. browns*, and the most transparent of their class, to represent this transparent, but imperfectly-defined, appearance in nature.

"It has been supposed that the Venetian painters had some peculiarly rich and transparent *brown colour*, which is seen to pervade all the works of that school, the effect of which no modern artist has been able to imitate, and which, therefore, is supposed to have been lost. It is not very probable, that a colour so common as to pervade the works of the worst as well as of the best artists of that school, should be so unaccountably lost; and, as the effect attributed to it may be easily produced by the mode of painting I have described, it is not unreasonable to conclude, that this much-lamented colour has never existed." For this communication, the greater silver medal of the Society was voted to Mr. Sheldrake.

LOMBARD SCHOOL.—The distinguishing marks of this school are—grace; an agreeable taste for design, without great correctness; a freshness and lightness of colouring; and what the French call *empâtement*, which is a due and proper union of local colours, generally producing what we style *breadth*.

Antonio Allegri, called *Corregio*, was the father and greatest ornament of this school. He began, like the painters of his time, to imitate nature alone; but, as he was chiefly delighted with the graceful, he was careful to purify his design from all short turnings and unnecessary angles. He perceived that largeness contributed to grace; and therefore he not only rejected all small figures, but enlarged as much as possible the outlines, avoided acute angles and straight lines, and by these means gave an easy grandeur to his design.

After painting had arrived at the greatest perfection among the Greeks, by the exertions of Zeuxis and Parrhasius, Apelles found nothing to add to the art except *grace*; in the same manner, among the moderns, after Raphael had appeared, grace was the only thing wanting to the art; and Corregio became the Apelles of Europe. Painting was by him carried to the highest degree among the moderns; the taste of the best critics, and the eye of the vulgar, were equally gratified.

Corregio painted in oil, a kind of painting susceptible of the greatest delicacy and sweetness; and, as his character led him to cultivate the agreeable, he gave a pleasing, captivating, tone to all his pictures. He sought transparent colours to represent shades conformable to nature; and adopted a manner of glazing, which actually rendered his shadows more obscure. Obscurity in painting cannot be fully obtained without transparent colours; for these absorb the rays of light, and of consequence give less reflection. He laid his colours very thick on the brightest parts of his pictures, to make them capable of receiving, by a proper touch, the greatest degree of light. He perceived that the reflections of light correspond with the colour of the body from which they are reflected; and on these principles he founded his theory of colours with respect to light and shade and reflection. But it is chiefly in the colour of his shades that he deserves to be imitated; for his lights are too clear, and somewhat heavy; and his fleshy parts are not sufficiently transparent.

Harmony and grace are connected together; and on this account Corregio excelled also in harmony. As the delicacy of his taste suffered him not to employ strong oppositions, he naturally became a great master in this part, which chiefly consists of easy gradations from one extreme to another. He was harmonious in his design, by making

making the lines which formed the angles of the contour arched and undulated. But, in the lights and shades, he placed always between the two extremes a space which served to unite them, and to form a passage from the one to the other. The delicacy of his organs made him perceive, better than any other artist, what relief was necessary to the eye, after a violent exertion; and he was therefore careful to follow a bold and prevailing colour with a demi-tint, and to conduct the eye of the spectator, by an invisible gradation, to its ordinary state of tension. In the same manner (says Mengs) does agreeable and melting music draw one so gently out of sleep, that the awakening resembles enchantment more than the disturbing of repose. A delicate taste in colours, a perfect knowledge of the *chiaro-scuro*, the art of uniting light to light, and shade to shade, together with that of detaching the objects from the ground, inimitable, grave, and perfect, harmony, were the qualities which distinguished Corregio from all the painters, and placed him near the head of his profession.

About the end of the sixteenth century, the *Caracci*, Louis, Augustin, and Hannibal, formed what is called the *Second Lombard School*, which is frequently distinguished by the name of the *SCHOOL of BOLOGNA*.

Louis was the master of the other two. He had studied the works of Titian and Paul Veronese at Venice, those of Andrea del Sarto at Florence, those of Corregio at Parma, and those of Julio Romano at Mantua; but he chiefly endeavoured to imitate the manner of Corregio. Hannibal fluctuated between Corregio and Titian. Augustin, their rival in painting, had his mind cultivated by learning, and devoted part of his time to poetry and music, to dancing, and to other manly exercises. These three painters often employed their talents on the same piece; and it was admirable that their united labours seemed to be animated with the same spirit.

They established an academy at Bologna, which their zeal for the advancement of their art made them call *l'Accademia degli Desiderosi*; but it was afterwards called the *Academy of the Caracci*, because the reputation which these artists acquired permitted not a more illustrious name to be given to an establishment of which they were the founders. In this school were taught the art of constructing models, perspective, and anatomy; lessons were given on the beautiful proportions of nature, on the best manner of using colours, and on the principles of light and shade. They held frequent conferences, in which not only artists, but men of general knowledge, were permitted to elucidate points relative to the art of painting; but they were separated upon Hannibal's going to Rome to adorn the gallery of the cardinal Farnese.

The works of the Caracci are often, from the resemblance of their manner, confounded together; especially those which were finished previous to the residence of Hannibal at Rome. Meanwhile each of them has a decided character, distinct from the other two. Louis had less fire, but more of gracefulness and grandeur; Augustin had more spirit in his conception, and more pleasantness in his execution; Hannibal is characterised by boldness, by a design more profound, by an expression more lucky, and by an execution more solid.

Sir Joshua Reynolds, who saw the works of Louis at Bologna, holds him out, in his discourses, as the best model for what is called *style* in painting; which is the faculty of disposing colours in such a manner as to express our sentiments and ideas. "Ludovico Caracci," says he, "(I mean in his best works,) appears to me to approach the nearest to perfection. His unaffected breadth of light and shadow, the simplicity of colouring, which, holding its proper rank, does not draw aside the least part of the attention from the subject, and the solemn effect of that twilight which seems diffused over his pictures, appear to me to correspond with grave and dignified subjects better than the more artificial brilliancy of sunshine which enlignens the pictures of Titian."

Hannibal is esteemed by the best judges as a model for beauty and design. Those who blame him for becoming less a colourist at Rome than he was at Bologna, ought to recollect that it is his performances at Rome which have chiefly secured his reputation. Severe critics have maintained that his design is too little varied in his figures; that he excels only in male beauty; that, in imitating ancient statues, he excites some resemblance, but without arriving at the sublimity of ideas and of style which characterize the ancients; or, in other words, that he successfully imitated the exterior of their manner, but that he was incapable of reaching the interior and profound reasonings which determined those admirable artists.

The success of the Caracci, and the reputation which they acquired, have been pernicious to the art. Their successors, deluded by these considerations, have made them the object of their imitation, without ascending to the sources from which they derived their knowledge, but which they never could equal. Thus, amid the various works of Guido Reni, Domenichino, Lanfranco, Albano, and Guercino, may be seen the imperfection of the plan adopted by their master. Each, following the dictates of his inclination, differed from his fellow-student in the objects of imitation, as well as in manner; and yet the *school* attached some in measure to all, inasmuch as the *art*, in preference to nature, was the main object of attention with them generally. In some few instances, indeed, the reverse took place; and Domenichino, in his pictures of the Communion of St. Jerome, and the Cure of the Demoniac, rivalled, in feeling and expression, the fame of Raphael; qualities which had languished, and been neglected, after the death of that renowned artist.

After this period, the art continued to decline in Italy. The great talents of Pietro da Cortona, and Luca Giordano, were abused by the too great facility with which they satisfied the perverted minds of their employers. Nicholas Poussin alone endeavoured to stem the torrent of corruption in taste, which now flowed over the classic ground of former ages; but, though he reverted to the pure source of Grecian art for his models, yet, in severe criticism, he is justly said "rather to have copied its reliques than adopted its spirit." He indeed is by some denied to the Italian school; but, as the chief part of his life was spent in that country, and all the valuable information he possessed derived from his residence there, we have attached him to the history of its art; and with him closes all record concerning it, worthy of particular distinction.

GERMAN SCHOOL.—To Germany the art travelled from Italy: at what period is not exactly to be ascertained; but it is not improbable that it was soon after the time of Giotto. It was not, however, till towards the end of the fifteenth century, that its progress there claims our attention. At that time Albert Durer relieved it from little better than obscurity, by his ingenuity, his fertile invention, and his skilful attention to minute imitation of individual forms. He carefully studied the human figure, but wasted his time in fanciful schemes for regulating proportion; and never attained the art of selection, or a station in the rank of exalted artists. Yet, sometimes his compositions are well worthy to have been treated in the greatest style in design, and the colour with which he executed them often rivals the best among the Venetians. The bane of the style, if it may be called so, is meagreness and poverty of forms, mean expression, and capricious, and often vulgar, invention. Lucas Van Leyden was the best of those who attempted to rival the name of Albert Durer, unless we except Holbein; who, though he never equalled him in composition, infinitely surpassed him in portraiture. The taste of the Germans totally changed after they possessed the knowledge of the works of Michael Angelo; when, with the constant effect of the sudden transition of extremes, the newly-imbibed principles burst all reasonable bound, and were employed only to be abused. Unable to penetrate the depth of its mysteries,

mysteries, its surface was extravagantly imitated by Goltzius, by Spranger, and a host of ambitious contemporaries; but the folly of this misapplication soon acted to its destruction; and in its decay bore down with it the character of the German school of painting.

FLEMISH SCHOOL.—This school is recommended to the lovers of the art by the discovery, or at least the first practice, of oil-painting. John Van Eyck, of whom we have already spoken as the inventor of oil-painting, was a Fleming; and, from his having settled at Bruges, was commonly called *John of Bruges*. He may be considered as the founder of painting as a profession in Flanders; but Peter Paul Rubens was the founder of the art. This extraordinary person produced an immense number of works. He excelled equally in historical, portrait, and landscape, painting; in fruits, in flowers, and in animals. He both invented and executed with the greatest facility; and, to show the extent of his powers, he frequently made a great number of sketches on the same subject, altogether different, without allowing any time to elapse between them. The works of Rubens were destitute of that soft inspiration so conspicuous in the works of Raphael; but he possessed that sprightliness of genius and strength of mind which is ever ready to burst forth in wonderful and astonishing effects. His figures appear to be the exact counterpart of his conceptions, and their creation nothing more than a simple act of the will.

His talent for design has been unjustly censured; for on every occasion his design is noble and easy. He had great knowledge of anatomy, but he was hurried away by the impetuosity of his imagination and his ardour for execution: he preferred splendour to the beauty of forms, and sacrificed correctness of design too often to the magic of colours. In short, his qualities suppose a mind full of fire and vigour, rather than accuracy or profound thought. His chief merit consists in colouring; though in this branch of the art he has not equalled Titian. He is the first among painters eminent for pomp and majesty; the first among those who speak to the eye, and the power of the art is often carried by him almost to enchantment. It is evident, from the works of Rubens, that his method of painting was to lay the colours in their place, one at the side of another, and mix them afterwards by a slight touch of the pencil. Titian mingled his tints as they are in nature, in such a manner as to make it impossible to discover where they began or terminated; the effect is evident, the labour is concealed. Thus Rubens is more dazzling, and Titian more harmonious. In this part, the first excites the attention, the second fixes it. The carnations of Titian resemble the blush of nature; those of Rubens are brilliant and polished like satin, and sometimes his tints are so strong and separated as to appear like spots. "Rubens (says Sir Joshua Reynolds) is a remarkable instance of the same mind being seen in all the various parts of the art. The whole is so much of a piece, that one can scarce be brought to believe but that, if any one of them had been more correct and perfect, his works would not be so complete as they appear. If we should allow a greater purity and correctness of drawing, his want of simplicity in composition, colouring, and drapery, would appear more gross." In his composition his art is too apparent. His figures have expression, and act with energy, but without simplicity or dignity. His colouring, in which he is eminently skilled, is, notwithstanding, too much of what we call *tinted*. Throughout the whole of his works there is a proportionable want of that nicety of distinction and elegance of mind, which is required in the higher walks of painting; and to this want it may be in some degree ascribed, that those qualities which make the excellency of this subordinate style appear in him with their greatest lustre. Indeed, the facility with which he invented, the richness of his composition, the luxuriant harmony and brilliancy of his colouring, so dazzle the eye, that, whilst his works continue

before us, we cannot help thinking that all his deficiencies are fully supplied.

The silver tint, which has so much grace and enticing beauty in the works of some of the Italians, as Carlo Dolce and Paul Veronese, is a characteristic merit of the Flemish school; but, as we have remarked above, correctness of design, faithfulness and elegance of outline, and sublimity of composition, belong exclusively to that city which has been successively, for many centuries, the queen of the world, and has kept up her superiority to this very moment. Rome, through the success of her arms, by the influence of religion, and by the great fame of her artists, seems to have been destined to be forever the mistress of the civilized world.

DUTCH SCHOOL.—To speak in general terms, and without regarding a great number of exceptions, the Dutch school carries none of the above qualities to great perfection, except that of *colouring*. Far from excelling in the beauty of heads and forms, they seem chiefly to delight in the exact imitation of the lowest and most ignoble. Their subjects are derived from the tavern, the smith's shop, and from the vulgar amusements of the rudest peasants. The expressions are sufficiently marked; but it is the expression of passions which debase instead of ennoble human nature. One would think that they practised the art of degrading the bodies and souls of men.

It must be acknowledged, at the same time, that the Dutch painters have succeeded in several branches of the art. If they have chosen low objects of imitation, they have represented them with great exactness; and *truth* must always please. If they have not succeeded in the most difficult parts of the *chiaro-scuro*, they at least excel in the most striking, such as in light confined in a narrow space, night illuminated by the moon or by torches, and the light of a smith's forge. The Dutch understand the gradations of colours; and, by their knowledge of contrast, they have arrived at the art of painting life itself. They have no rivals in landscape-painting, considered as the faithful representation or picture of a particular scene; but they are far from equalling Titian, Poussin, Claude Lorraine, &c. who have carried to the greatest perfection the ideal landscape, and whose pictures, instead of being the topographical representation of certain places, are the combined result of every thing beautiful in their imagination or in nature. The Dutch, however, distinguish themselves by their perspective, by their clouds, sea-scenes, animals, fruits, flowers, and insects; and they excel in miniature-painting. In short, every thing which requires a faithful imitation, colour, and a nice pencil, is well executed by the Dutch painters.

Holland has also produced history-painters, as Octavius Van Been, and Vander Hilst, the rival of Vandyke, and perhaps his superior: but it is not in the works of those artists that we find the character of the Dutch school. Neither is the origin of their style to be derived from the works of Lucas of Leyden, though, from the time he flourished, viz. about the end of the 15th century, he may be considered as the patriarch of the Dutch school. Lucas painted in oil, in water-colours, and on glass; and the kinds of his painting were history, landscape, and portrait. His picture of the Last Judgment is preserved in the hotel-de-ville of Leyden; it possesses vast merit in point of composition, and a great variety of figures.

If miniature-painting be considered as a characteristic of the Dutch school, Cornelius Polembourg may be regarded as the father of it. He possessed the colour, delicacy of touch, and disposition of the *chiaro-scuro* which chiefly distinguish this school; and, if any thing is to be added, it is want of correctness in his design. But, if the choice of low figures is its characteristic, this is to be found in the greatest perfection in the works of the celebrated *Rembrandt*. And it is the more offensive in this artist, as his compositions frequently required an opposite choice of figures. As his father was a miller near

Leyden, his education must altogether have depended on the exertion of great talents and the study of nature. He studied the grotesque figure of a Dutch peasant or the servant of an inn with as much application as the greatest masters of Italy would have studied the Apollo of Belvedere or the Venus de Medicis. This was not the manner of elevating himself to the noble conceptions of Raphael; but it was acquiring the imitation of truth in vulgar painting.

Rembrandt's manner of painting is a kind of magic. No artist knew better the effects of different colours mingled together, nor could better distinguish those which did not agree from those which did. He placed every tone in its place with so much exactness and harmony, that he needed not to mix them, and so destroy what may be called the flower and freshness of the colours. He made the first draught of his pictures with great precision, and with a mixture of colours altogether particular; he proceeded on his first sketch with a vigorous application, and sometimes loaded his lights with so great a quantity of colour, that he seemed to model rather than to paint. Such is the power of genius, that Rembrandt, with all his faults, and they are enormous, is placed among the greatest artists by M. Descamps, who saw his works, and was himself an artist. It is necessary to observe, that if Rembrandt was ignorant of the essential parts of his art, or neglected them, he was yet acquainted with *expression*, which alone was capable of giving animation to his works. His expressions are not noble; but they are just, lively, and excited with great judgment. In him the world possessed another of those men of powerful genius, who created an atmosphere of art for themselves, and moved within it uncontrolled, with a security that sets imitation at defiance. What Corregio had given to the Italians, Rembrandt bestowed upon the Dutch; *chiaro-scuro* concentrated, or expanded, rivalling the purity and brilliancy of nature. That, and colour, were his immediate agents; with which he played at will, in all the varieties which a vivid imagination, and close observation of the more striking effects of nature, could possibly supply him; and not unfrequently, by their means, gave beauty even to deformity, at least, robbed it of disgust, and rendered it engaging to the eye.

John de Laer, a miniature-painter, and who made choice of his subjects from common life, deserves a distinguished place in the Dutch school. He painted hunting-scenes, the attacks of robbers, public festivals, landscapes, and sea-views; and he ornamented his pictures with old ruins, and enriched them with figures of men and animals. He had a correct design, and employed vigorous and lively colouring. Oftade, although born at Lubeck, Gerard Dow, Metz, Miris, Wouvermans, Berghem, and the celebrated painter of flowers Van Huysum, belong to the Dutch school.

The characteristic features of the schools, at the head of which Rubens and Rembrandt are duly placed, are—a perfect skill in combination and arrangement of *chiaro-scuro*; great strength of natural and local character; and a precise truth of imitation, even almost to perfect deception, in form, colour, and effect. These powerful qualities are, however, too constantly degraded by a low and vulgar application of them, particularly among the painters of the Dutch school. Among the Flemings, many of the pupils of Rubens adhered to his class of subjects, and exhibited a brilliancy of imagination, and power of execution, worthy of the source whence they proceeded. Vandyke more especially; who, in point of chastity of design, and purity of colouring, excelled even the power of his master, though he had not his capacious genius, to whom the representation of all things seemed equally facile, and whose abilities seem to have been enlarged according to the sphere he was called to act in, or the canvas he was employed to cover.

The history of the patronage of the art in Holland and Flanders lies within a very short compass; as it rested

almost entirely with the church, who called for altarpieces, (and their chapels were filled with them,) and the munificence and taste of private individuals. Very few indeed of their public establishments were adorned with pictures, notwithstanding the immense fund of abilities the countries possessed; and it was left to find its own interests, by gratifying the taste for portraiture, among the rich merchants and burghers; or the execution of small pictures, within the scale of admission to private rooms, on subjects of ordinary interest, of landscape, or of vulgar amusement. Its practice in those countries failed completely soon after the commencement of the 18th century.

In fact, the greater part of the schools of which we have treated have no longer any existence. Italy alone had four schools, and there only remain at present a very few Italian artists known to foreigners. The school of Rubens is in vain sought for in Flanders. If the Dutch school still exists, it is not known beyond the precincts of Holland. Mengs, a German artist, has made himself famous in our days; but it was in Italy that he chiefly improved his talents and exercised his art. M. Dietrich, another German, has made himself known to strangers; but two solitary artists do not form a school.

FRENCH SCHOOL.—The adoption of Leonardo da Vinci by Francis I. after he had left Italy, (and in whose arms he died,) together with the powerful talents of Primaticcio, of Rosso, and of Nicolo Abbati, employed by the same monarch to paint in fresco the chambers of the royal palace of Fontainebleau, it might have been imagined, would have laid so strong a foundation of exalted taste in the country where it came with all the charms of novelty, that it could not but have been pursued by a people eminent for their ingenuity, with a degree of success rivalling the neighbouring country of Italy; more especially as they had perpetual intercourse with it, and were under the influence of the same system of religion, which had there adopted painting as a portion of itself. Yet, very little arose from these admirable examples; and the only French painters whose names have come down to us of any pretensions to excellence for the next hundred and fifty years, are Jean Cousin and Jacques Blanchard. The former lived towards the end of the sixteenth century, and was a skilful designer, though in a meagre taste. He painted principally on glass. The latter was of somewhat later date; and having, by study at Venice, acquired a taste for Venetian design and colouring, he obtained the name of the French Titian, and his works were much esteemed.

After these, the art did not rise in France, till Poussin, having imbibed a taste for its excellencies in Italy, returned to his native country, but with reluctance, at the invitation of Louis XIII. Although the treatment he received was handsome, and becoming both patron and painter, yet he found the taste of his country not formed to relish the simplicity of his style. The facile mediocrity of Simon Vouet received more admiration; and Poussin, disgusted, returned to his tranquil life at Rome; leaving the field to a competitor, who laid the foundation of that flutter and frivolity which characterised the style of the French school up to the time of the late sweeping and grand revolution. Le Sueur, indeed, felt like a man of a pure and elevated mind; and spurned the trammels imposed by the style of Vouet. The chastity, the feeling, and purity of soul, of Raphael, seem to have been infused into his mind, and exhibited itself in the series of pictures painted for the convent of the Chartreux at Paris, and known as the *Life of St. Bruno*; in the *Burning of the Books of Magic at Ephesus*, &c. But no preparation had been made to receive so pure a taste as Le Sueur's; and in a court where ostentation took place of magnificence, its suavity and gentleness were ill capable of withstanding the brilliant but false glitter, which accompanied the exertions of his fellow-student under Vouet, Charles le Brun. He sunk under the unjust abase-

ment, and fell a victim to mortality at the early age of 37; not without leaving cause for a suspicion of his having been poisoned.

His fortunate competitor Le Brun formed, by the great extent of his ability, an era in the history of the art in France; and stands unrivalled in his style, as the acknowledged head of the French school; the deity of its succeeding artists, and the theme of their eternal adoration, to the utter exclusion of all the real great painters of Italy, of Flanders, or of Spain. And, if a vigorous imagination, and powerful execution of rich combinations in forms and colour, with an eye and a hand which arranged with facility the various parts of extended compositions, and united them as a whole, will effectively weigh against the want of simplicity, natural expression, and purity in design; then he well merited the distinction given him by his countrymen. The splendid arrangement of the gallery of Versailles (now in danger of perishing, by the neglect it experienced during the days of republican France), is a satisfactory proof of the extent of his abilities; and, when his Battles of Alexander are placed in conjunction with it, we can no longer wonder that such a display of talent, so congenial to the mind of that vain ambitious monarch, Louis XIV. completely overpowered all competitors. During his long reign, talent of all kinds shone conspicuous round his throne; and painting was consequently elevated and encouraged; the splendour of the court, and the dignity of the king, being made the principal objects of attention by its professors. An academy of painting, &c. was formed at Paris, under the immediate patronage of his majesty; and another at Rome, for the benefit of French students. Vander Meulen accompanied him in his campaigns, and painted the principal events that occurred, to perpetuate his renown. But a more classical tribute of homage was required of the art in that age of learning. In imitation therefore of Cæsar, who had perverted the pictures of Alexander, painted by Apelles, to his own exaltation, by adopting them as symbolic of that power which he had created for himself; so, by the instrumentality of Le Brun, Louis XIV. contrived to make the victories of that immortal conqueror emblematic of his own restless ambition. The grand monarch, however, in this mistaken application of the art, acknowledged the utility of it, as an agent of glory to himself; and the result has been, another proof added to the testimony of former ages, of the increased renown which may be acquired by a monarch and a country, from a cultivation of the arts which adorn human nature, above that derived from political causes.

If even the firm basis of nature, upon which the style of Michael Angelo was founded, did not preserve it from perversion by his imitators, it was not likely that Le Brun's, built as it was upon the sandy foundation of artifice, should share a happier fate. As it led the way in substituting theatrical for natural taste in gesture and in expression, and had obtained such a commanding influence by its success, those who adopted it appear to have imagined that the former was the best prototype of the two; and accordingly the stage, and its artificial airs and graces, which were ready made to their hands, and prevented the difficulty and trouble of searching and selecting from the coy haunts of nature what was necessary for their works, was made the subject of their imitation. Instead of forming their taste on the beautiful simplicity of nature, their painters studied the gestures and the attitudes of comedians, the fopperies of women of fashion, the affected airs of courtiers, the pageantry of Versailles, and the magnificence of the opera. Mengs says, "The French have formed a national style, of which ingenuity, and what they call *esprit*, are the discriminating qualities; they have ceased to introduce Greek, Egyptian, Roman, or barbarian, personages into their paintings; and they content themselves with figures altogether French, as if it

were their intention to hand down to posterity that such a nation once existed."

No want of ability, however, appears in the men who immediately succeeded Le Brun. The wonder is, that men endowed with so much talent could have submitted their understandings to so false a taste. Sebastian Bourdon, indeed, rushed from it, and with true poetic feeling endeavoured to imitate, and often very successfully did imitate, the purer taste of Poussin; but Pierre Mignard, Jouvenet, Champagne, and Rigaud, gave into the system, till it became reduced to pompous no-meaning flutter; and, in the hands of Van Loo, Bouchet, &c. lost all trace of its masterly origin, and sunk into contempt, even in the country where it originated. In a more minute detail of the progress of the art than our limits will admit, the names of Watteau and of Vernet ought not to be overlooked; the former, particularly, who created a pleasing style of execution and colour, and exhibited it in sportive scenes of imagination, drawn principally from the amusements of the higher circles; and the latter introduced a taste for landscape and views of sea-ports, which had been unknown till his time, but was too artificial in his colouring.

When the terrors of the recent revolution had somewhat subsided, and in measure even during its course, it was thought proper, in France, to revolutionize the taste of its arts. But, whether the fervour of hatred to royalty, the determination to exterminate all remnants of it, or a real feeling of the indirect course which the taste of their school of art had taken, guided them in the choice of their present style of design, and was the cause or not of the change, certain it is that, in its vibration, it has gone almost as far beyond the true line of propriety on the one side, as it had before done on the other. In place of the pompous display of figures in affected attitudes, overloaded with draperies of rich stuffs, flowing in all the parade of unmeaning magnificence, a dry and insipid imitation of Greek sculpture is adopted; and, in spite of the immense mass of perfect exemplars, in the works of Raphael, of Titian, of Domenichino, and almost all the renowned masters of Italy and of Flanders, &c. with which the gallery of the Louvre abounds, and which, with a superior judgment, the government leave free to their study; the present rulers of taste in France have marked a line of conduct for the students, imitative of the condition of painting before those masters were born. Rejecting the efforts of the happy period of its maturity, they prefer resorting to the infancy of the art, with about as much propriety as a man who is desirous of walking, might tie up his legs, and throw himself into the arms of his nurse. Whether the minute attention now given by the French school to drawing, and the peculiar taste in which it is directed, viz. to the adoption, in painting, of the forms which appear to belong exclusively to sculpture, be likely to produce, in any length of time, the end proposed, is extremely problematic. We rather suspect the system must be changed ere they will reach the object of their wishes; and then, perhaps, this preparatory attention to simple forms may really have a beneficial effect.

THE ENGLISH SCHOOL.—So very little is known of what occurred concerning the art of painting in this country previous to the time when Henry VIII. encouraged the abilities of Holbein in portraiture, and invited Titian to come here, that it would be useless to endeavour to trace its history. Enough, however, is known, to satisfy us that it was at a very low standard. It was but little before his time, that the people of England began to throw off the yoke of ignorance and barbarism, and to cultivate literature and science. The ambition of Henry to be renowned, and his spirit of rivalry to his great neighbour Francis I. of France, were quite sufficient motives to stimulate him to the proud aim of becoming a patron of the liberal arts; had not his theological

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gical discussions with Luther, and afterwards his more sublimary quarrel with the pope, so powerfully diverted his attention from them, and produced him so active an employment in deciding the course of the reformation in religion which consequently ensued. But, however great be the cause that England has to rejoice in the general fruits of that change in religious principles and government, its effects were fatal to the cultivation of the arts of painting and sculpture. Those arts, particularly the latter, being then so thoroughly interwoven with the system of the church of Rome, were of consequence as thoroughly opposed by that of England, set up in defiance of its authority. Had the arts at this time, when the nation was new-modelling its character, been adopted by the reformed system of religion; and had they accompanied it with progressive steps in its course to our present state of cultivation; we might, together with our just privilege to boast of an exalted rank as a nation in literature and science, have likewise heightened our importance by exhibiting a settled style of historical-painting. But it was nipped in the bud; and to this day has not overcome the effect of the chilling blast of disappointment and neglect.

In the succeeding reigns of Edward VI. Mary, and Elizabeth, a few portrait-painters, natives some, but principally foreigners, exerted themselves to gratify the desires of our nobility, and preserve their features to the admiration of posterity. St. Antonio More, Frederic Zuccheri, Isaac Oliver, Lucas de Heere, and others of less note, supported this branch of the art with varied success. But, during the long and splendid reign of the latter of the three sovereigns, not only was encouragement denied to historical-painting, but the very humble, and even graceful, attempt made by the dean of her majesty's chapel, Dr. Nowell, to afford her pleasure from the sight of prints upon religious subjects, met only with the severity of rebuke. (See vol. xvii. p. 280.) Whether it were natural bigotry, or political necessity, which incited the queen to the use of the repulsive air she assumed, it acted like a command upon the church; and, from that time to the present hour, the prejudice, except in a very few instances, remains in full force. See vol. xiii. p. 407, 8.

In Italy, on the revival of letters, poets and painters appeared at the same time. A Raphael painted, and a Vida sung. In England, from the causes we have mentioned, Spenser and Shakespeare were not accompanied with any painters of eminence. Thus, while the religious enthusiasm which still remained in Italy and other Roman-catholic countries, covered the walls of their churches with pictures, and enriched them with sculpture; while the painter and sculptor were creating forms and representations, before which the knee of the votary was to bend; England was content to boast that her poets struck the true chords, and breathed those strains which rivalled the poets of Greece and Rome, but without carrying her boast any farther. And thus was that channel through which alone the plastic arts had ever been introduced with success into any country, closed upon the efforts of the English; and by that hand, which, if conducted with true and enlightened policy, ought to have fostered it.

Charles I. endeavoured to introduce a feeling for the art, which his father had almost entirely overlooked; but for which he appears to have had a very great affection. He employed Rubens, during his short residence here as envoy from the king of Spain, to paint the ceiling of the Banqueting-room, now the chapel of Whitehall; and procured a treasure of inestimable value to the country, by the countenance and encouragement he afforded to Vandyke; and also to other ingenious foreigners, who have enriched the country with their productions. He formed a very considerable collection of pictures, in addition to those already possessed by the crown; and, at the suggestion of Rubens, bought the cartoons. He employed an artist to copy the works of Titian in Spain; and purchased the cabinet of the duke of Mantua, at the cost of

20,000*l.* (see Walpole's *Anecdotes*, Car. I.) and some were sent him as presents. The whole were sold and dispersed by the parliament in 1643, who gave especial orders, "that all pictures which had the representation of the Saviour or the Virgin Mary in them, should be burnt." After the restoration, many of them were returned to the royal collection, but only to meet utter annihilation by the fire which consumed the palace of Whitehall.

Of the natives of England, few caught the flame of desire to imitate them even in portraiture, not one in history. Of the former, W. Dobson took the lead, and succeeded in painting a head with great skill; but there his abilities rested. His exertions, and those of his contemporaries, were arrested almost entirely by the Gothic barbarity of the puritanical system which followed; and the taste of Charles II. whatever he might have acquired from his father, was only immersed in impurity and frivolity, by his long residence at the French court; where he acquired a taste for that parade and pompous display of magnificence which was the ruin of the French art. Verrio and Benedetto Gennaro were patronised by this monarch. The former was employed by him to decorate the ceilings and walls of the royal palace of Windsor; and received, for the extravagant load of ingenious absurdities with which he covered them, to the amount (according to Walpole) of 5500*l.* and upwards. Of the latter, there are several pictures at Windsor, in a style of dull imitation of Guercino, of whom he was a nephew. In portraiture, sir Peter Lely filled with very great ability the place which Vandyke had held; and, in an original and very agreeable manner, he often rose to a station very nearly approaching that of his great predecessor. In the expression of beauty, he frequently surpassed him; and was a far more agreeable painter to the ladies. Sir Godfrey Kneller, likewise, in this reign, began his long career of portrait-painting: he succeeded to Lely's fame, upon his decease in 1680, and as an artist was utterly ruined by success. Had he been under the necessity of labouring with care to support the great name he enjoyed and abused, he had talents efficient to the purpose. Witness for him, the Converted Chinese at Windsor, the portrait of Newton at Petworth, of Dr. Meade at Oxford, and many others. But he lived and practised painting for five successive reigns, almost without a rival, making gain rather than fame the object of his desire. Dahl, who was a Swede, was the only one who interfered with his practice, to any extent. Wishing, his countryman, threatened, by his carefulness in finishing, to have more effectually counteracted him; but he, unfortunately for Kneller's reputation, died young.

In historical painting, no English artist had appeared to rival the productions of foreigners introduced here, in any degree, till at length sir James Thornhill, born in 1677, arose to contest the honours of the pallet with Laguerre, who had been employed to adorn the halls and staircases of many among our nobility. The style he adopted, like that of his rival, was but a lower imitation than Verrio's of the French school; and by no means served to elevate the taste of the country. However, the state did him the justice to employ him in the decorations of St. Paul's and at Greenwich, in which he was most materially assisted by a German of the name of André; but, such was the humiliating nature of his engagement, that he was paid at the rate of 40*s.* per square yard. With him properly commences the history of English art, though portraiture, as we have noticed, had been practised by Dobson after Vandyke; also by Riley, and by Cooper, who was a very ingenious artist, in miniature. But, after them, it sunk lower and lower, in the hands of Greenhill, Jervas, Richardson, (who, notwithstanding, has so admirably written upon the art, and exhibited, in his essays, a true feeling for those excellencies which he could never exemplify by manner;) and hundreds of others, whose names it would be cruel to rescue from oblivion; for the mania for portraiture did not cease, though the ability

ability of the artists was fast verging to utter decay. What sir James Thornhill had done in historical, or rather decorative, art, found no very successful imitator; so that, to use the words of Horace Walpole, in the commencement of the reign of George I. the arts of England were sunk almost to the lowest ebb;" and, with the still greater authority of sir Joshua Reynolds we may add, "lower they could not well be."

The circumstance apparently most surprising in this matter is, that, when the powers of Vandyke were so long and so widely displayed in England, and portraiture so much encouraged, so few of her artists should have followed in his track, or that taste should have swerved so completely from it. But the fact is, that British students were inclined to pursue it, witness Dobson and Riley; and Jamestone in Scotland; and they succeeded to a very considerable degree. It could not, however, be expected that, when there had been so little food for nourishment offered to artists, they should at once spring to perfection, unless endowed with genius in a higher degree than even the renowned master whom they emulated. No one was immediately found equal to that; and the astonishment created by his exquisite abilities had scarcely subsided into regular study, when Lely appeared, to usurp his station, and spread the peculiar beauties of his own ready pencil in the way; gratifying the court, and, consequently, guiding the taste of the country. Kneller succeeded rapidly to him: the English artists had not time to rise; and imitation of the reigning influence was alone left for him; as no one advanced with sufficient power of mind to steer successfully in a track of his own.

Thus far we have been giving the history of painting in England, rather than of the English *school*; for that school was not yet formed. But the period at length arrived when England, exerting her native energy, advanced in her turn to enjoy a share of renown among the cultivators of the art of painting.

It has been asserted carelessly, unreflectingly, and, we might add, impudently, by the abbé Du Bos, and other superficial writers on the fine arts, that the English nation, from its *character* and *climate*, would never form a school of painting. Other causes may have prevented that branch of art from reaching the eminence it attained in other parts of Europe; but the country that has produced such poets as Shakespeare, Milton, Spenser, Dryden, &c. is certainly not excluded from a proportionate degree of excellence in the sister art. And, if such a *climate* as that of the Netherlands could produce such painters as Rubens, Vandyke, and other great masters, there is no physical cause at least, why England should not have boasted of artists equal in genius to those of the neighbouring countries.

The principal difficulty in the outset, was to rescue the art from the degrading influence of a vicious taste, to retrace the steps of our predecessors, or rather, to burst the bondage in which they had enthralled us, and resort at once to the original principle of imitation; which, when pure and select, is the only sound basis of the art. The first step towards it, was the establishment of a school for drawing from the living figure. This had been begun by sir James Thornhill, in most inexplicable conjunction with sir Godfrey Kneller, who, one would imagine, from his latter works, had left all consideration of the value of such a thing far behind. Thus, however, he assisted in laying the foundation of a remedy for the evil, which he more than any other had occasioned. This school, sir James continued at his own house in the Piazza for some years. His death, in 1734, obliged the artists to procure another situation, which was not effected without some difficulty; for the people were so unprepared to consider the study from the naked figure as necessary to the artists, that their meetings were even suspected to be held for immoral purposes. Another school was at length formed by Michael Moser, a native of Schaffhausen, and a chaser by profession, and six other artists, principally foreigners,

the management resting with Moser. After a while they were visited by Hogarth and others; and a larger body was formed in consequence, who established themselves in Peter's Court, St. Martin's Lane, in the year 1739. Having acquired some property by combined exhibitions of their works, they solicited a charter of incorporation; and, the scheme being sanctioned by the late king at the beginning of his long reign, their charter was granted in 1765. But, dissensions arising in the body, a secession of many of its principal members took place; and the result was the establishment of the Royal Academy in 1768, under the more immediate patronage of his majesty; sir Joshua Reynolds being nominated its first president. From this time we are to date the foundation of an English School of Painting; and sir Joshua must be considered as its founder.

Richardson, who died in 1745, at the advanced age of eighty, unable by his pencil to rival the real beauties of Vandyke, of Raphael, or others, whose names stand on high record, endeavoured to make amends by his pen; and in 1715 published a book, full of high encomiums of the merits of those masters, and of useful observations on the theory of the art of painting; and in 1719 another, on criticism, and the science of a connoisseur; works of which nobody will be inclined to dispute the merit, who knows the value which sir Joshua Reynolds placed upon them; and particularly the former, which he declared confirmed him in his love of the art, and elevated his ideas of its professors. In it, Richardson contended for the propriety of painting portraits in the costume of their time; and Hudson, the son-in-law of Richardson, with the help of Van Alken, (a Fleming,) and in rivalry with Van Loo, (a Frenchman, and brother to Carlo Van Loo,) profited by the suggestion, and ventured to reject the non-sensical draperies in use at the time; and, instead of loose unmeaning pieces of varied stuffs thrown in artificial folds over the shoulders of the gentlemen, and the affectation of grace and grandeur in which the ladies were represented *en chemise*, half exposed and half enveloped in one ill-contrived piece of silk, as if they had carelessly thrown on a mantle when rising from their beds, he dressed them in the formality of the day; and his Flemish assistant painted their silks and laces with great care and exactness. Hayman also, who had succeeded sir James Thornhill as an historical painter, upon the same ground, felt himself at liberty to preserve the uniforms proper to those whom he introduced into his pictures; and no longer, by a senseless magic, converted them into Roman centurions or Grecian heroes.

It were useless to trace the progress of the art in the hands of those who, in minor degree, assisted in this enfranchisement of it in our own country; "or recount the stammering and babbling of its infancy;" for as such its condition at the time of which we are speaking may be regarded. It scarcely enjoyed the period of youth; for, when Reynolds and Wilson returned from Rome, they rushed at once with it to maturity in portraiture and in landscape. And when West, having by his British connections in America imbibed a true taste for its beauties, had also cultivated it in Italy, and came here to devote his life in its service, all that had been done in history, by Hayman, by Pine, by Wale, and others, was instantly sunk in oblivion.

Hogarth, however, demands a rescue from the mass of our earlier artists. With a marked originality of feeling, he pursued the art as his own taste, or rather fortune, guided him; and traced a line for himself totally unknown to any other, though more in the application of the art than in itself. Yet, in his latter pictures, particularly in his *Rakes's Progress*, and the *Marriage-a-la-Mode*, he exhibited a thorough feeling for the beauties of the Dutch school, executed in a broad style of his own; and, proving, that, if his youth had been employed in painting pictures, instead of engraving silver tankards, he might have rivalled the best among them.

In landscape, Lambert had advanced beyond the steps of his contemporaries; and produced, with some talent, a kind of union of the peculiarities of Gaspar Poussin and Claude. But, when *Wilson* expanded his brilliant, chaste, and glowing, tints, in ample masses of light and shade, over the canvas, the art seemed to leap at once ages in advance; far too rapid, indeed, for the taste of the public, or the benefit of its professor.

Whatever had been done here in portraiture, from the time of Vandyke and Lely till 1752, when *Reynolds* returned from Italy, was then utterly annihilated by the display of his splendid talents; the foundation of all which this branch of the art boasts in the English school. Not but that there have been, and are, exhibited various deviations, with original feeling, from his peculiar taste; but his is the acknowledged and undoubted claim of superiority, as of priority. His best portraits are inferior to none, for truth of character and style of treatment: in many points they are superior to those of all the portrait-painters who ever lived.

With respect to the practice of the higher style of historical painting in this country, the rank it merits is so much the almost exclusive privilege of artists now living, that it is not easy to know how to state the sentiments which liberal and candid criticism dictates concerning it. Partiality may blind, or true criticism, if given, may be misconstrued to flattery, or some principle of a meaner kind. It must be left therefore to posterity, to give the due meed of praise to those who have exerted themselves against innumerable difficulties, and endeavoured to uphold the true spirit of the art in this its most arduous application; and persevered, till at length something like an inclination to encourage their efforts appears to arise, where alone it can be effectual. No one can for an instant hesitate to declare their sense of the exalted abilities with which it has been, and is, supported; or cease to see them duly employed and encouraged.

Of those who have practised in this branch of the art, and are departed, Reynolds, Romney, Opie, and Barry, require to be particularly mentioned. The former, with all the splendour of chiaro-scuro and colour, which no one since Rembrandt has wielded with so much authority, exhibited in his pictures of Hercules strangling the serpents, Macbeth, Cardinal Beaufort, and Ugolino, a fund of historic power. Romney also had poetic imagination, feeling, and expression; and, in the little leisure allowed by his general practice of portraiture, indulged in the delights ideal subjects afforded him; while Opie presented "images new and striking, drawn directly from nature;" and "what he wanted of academical or classical information, he compensated for, in great measure, by character, by force, and by a just and bold imitation." But, of the four, Barry was the only one who had regularly educated himself for its practice, and undoubtedly had the highest and most enthusiastic feeling for its best qualities. With a generous zeal worthy of the highest encomium, he broke entirely from all consideration of the ordinary style of subject, or design; and, contemplating his art in the most exalted manner, attempted to embody the elevated ideas he entertained. His most sincere admirers must however regret, that those excellent sentiments which he so ably inculcated by his pen, were not more completely supported by his pencil; yet, his productions of the series of pictures upon the culture of man, in the great room of the society in the Adelphi, notwithstanding their imperfections in the executive part, must ever remain a marked event in the annals of historical painting in England.

Still we cannot refrain from mentioning a few more artists of our own time, both living and dead.—Benjamin West, for whom the arts even yet mourn, was an American, but it was while those states belonged to the English crown; and he arrived early enough in England to be one of the original members of the Royal Academy, of which he was so long the chief ornament, and of which he died president, in March last, at the great age of 82.

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He painted a prodigious number of pictures; which very frequently remind us of the school of Raphael, on account of the correctness of the outlines.—Louthenbourg, though mad with the folly of animal magnetism, was however a great painter. His pencil blazes in battle with Bourguignon, or reposes among cattle and flocks with Berghem and Vandevelde. He died in 1812.—There are yet spared to us Fuseli, who emulates the boldness of Michael Angelo, whose admirably-expressed ideas he has taken for his guide in the enthusiastic regions of fancy; and Northcote, who takes Rubens and Snyders for his models in the delineation of the rational as well as the brute creation.—The loss we have sustained by the demise of Louthenbourg's worthy pupil, sir Francis Bourgeois, in whose lively tints, and correctness of imitation, P. Potter, Berghem, C. du Jardin, and Cuyp, seemed to revive, is somewhat compensated by the talents of Calcott, Constable, Collins, and other successful votaries of the pastoral muse. Hilton makes rapid progress towards the highest summit of the chromatic Parnassus, where Nicolo Poussin seems to direct his efforts and crown his attempts. Cooper, whose pencil blazes in battle with Wouvermans and the Parrocels, stands the rival of Chalons and of Ward. Can we not boast also of Beechey, Lawrence, Shee, Phillips, Dawe, &c. whose correct eye arrests on the canvas the features of fleeting beauty, and who approach so near to those luminaries in the temple of physiognomy, Rubens, Vandyke, and the great Titian?—Death has snatched Bird and Harlowe on the very threshold of the fane; but their name will last long among the worthies in the inside of the chromatic Pantheon. The two Smirkes, Westall, and many others, do honour to the end of the last and the beginning of the present century. Haydon and Hayter stand aloof, and boldly wield the pallet and the brush on the strength of their own originality; and Wilkie seems to be at once the Teniers, the Bruyere, the Ostade, and the Gerard-Dow, of Great Britain.—We have only to regret that modern fashion, that sways over academicians with as much tyranny as over the swarthy rivals Day and Martin, and Turner, for the glofs of their black paint, has paralyzed the hands of modern painters, by preventing their natural talents from being tried in large and important works, such as the decorations of domes, ceilings, and staircases, like what we see at St. Paul's, at Whitehall, and Montague-house; and we doubt not that, if proper opportunity were given, the genius of our English artists would soar to the highest peak of the chromatic Helicon.

Barry was certainly a discontented man; but many have joined in opinion with him, that the arts have wanted encouragement in Great Britain. What they have received has been principally from commerce; and that is of a nature by no means calculated to advance their progress towards perfection. It may give the artist bread, but we fear it will not give him fame. Academies have not always advanced the object of their establishments. Those composed of artists are found to be very subject to errors; especially as it too often happens that the heads of them obtain their advancement by favour and intrigue, rather than by the genius and talent displayed in their works. Vitruvius complained of it in his day; "*Animadverto potius indoctos quam doctos gratia superare.*" And the complaint may be continued to our own day, and our own country. The Royal Academy has given some eclat to the arts, but done them no very great service. Those of its members whose names have given it all the celebrity it possesses, were themselves celebrated before its establishment, or had laid the foundation of the fame they have since obtained, in the good old quiet unpretending school in St. Martin's Lane. We have at length, however, to congratulate our country on an establishment formed on such principles, governed by such regulations, supported by such liberality, and patronized by persons of such high distinction, superior knowledge, and refined taste, that every thing is to be

expected from it, in favour of the fine arts in the United Kingdom. We mean the British Institution; which may be considered in the light of a private school, where pupils may learn at once the art of drawing, composing, and colouring, after the manner of a particular master. For a certain time in the year, the governors and directors contrive to collect in their gallery a set of pictures from the best masters of the different schools; and artists properly qualified have admittance, under particular restrictions, to copy or paint after these chef-d'œuvres. Some of these pictures have been bought, and others are borrowed from noblemen and gentlemen who are the possessors of private collections. This institution has an annual exhibition of original pictures, which are also on sale at the prices marked; and we think that no other nation could fill such a gallery with works of equal merit from the pencil or the chisel of its native professors. For the incitement of young artists, handsome premiums are also given. See further, vol. xi. p. 149, 50.

Descriptive Catalogues accompany many of our exhibitions, as the British Gallery for instance; which are of vast utility to the generality of the public. No man was ever born without a certain share of taste, discrimination, and judgment; yet every one is not always ready or disposed to feel, as they ought to be felt, the beauties contained in the productions of the fine arts. He who stands by mere chance before the famous Laocoon, may admire that expression of agonizing pain so well wrought upon the face and the whole body of the unfortunate priest and upon his two sons; but his pleasure must increase considerably, when he reads the passage, in the second book of the *Æneid* of Virgil, in which the awful accident is so well described. The School of Athens, the cartoons of Raphael, the Luxemburg Gallery, and some other great performances of the best artists, speak loudly for themselves; yet the commentaries of Felibien, Du Piles, Richardson, and others, upon them, have opened the eyes of many. Simple and transitory notice has been raised up to admiration, and admiration fired into well-deserved enthusiasm. We are even authorized to say, that our description of Mr. West's picture, "Christ rejected by the Jews," vol. xiii. p. 572. has conveyed to many spectators the real meaning of the artist, and rendered their feelings congenial with those that directed his hand. A description points out harmonies and contrasts, which, although they produce the intended effect upon the mind, are not immediately guessed at by the most intelligent beholder; it tells us why and how we are pleased; and it is a received axiom, that we double our pleasure by ascertaining the real cause of it.

The English taste appears to be formed on the great masters of the Italian and the Flemish schools. Sir Joshua Reynolds was a great admirer of Michael Angelo, and particularly recommends him to the attention of the academicians. "I feel (says he, in his farewell-lecture) a self-congratulation in knowing myself capable of such sensations as he intended to excite. I reflect, not without vanity, that these discourses bear testimony of my admiration of that truly divine man; and I should desire that the last words which I should pronounce in this academy, and from this place, might be the name of—*Michael Angelo*."

In concluding our remarks upon the English school, it may perhaps be interesting to our readers to see an uninterrupted line of masters and pupils, through which the founder of it was descended from a very ancient Italian master.

Cosimo Roselli, who died 1484, taught
 Mariotto Albertinelli, died 1535.
 Innocenzio da Imola, born 1492.
 Prospero Fontana, born 1512.
 Denis Calvert, died 1619.
 Annibal Caracci, died 1609.
 Giovanni Lanfranco, died 1647.
 François Perrier, died 1650.

Isaac Fuller, died 1676.

John Riley, died 1691.

Jonathan Richardson, died 1745.

Thomas Hudson, died 1779, taught

Sir Joshua Reynolds, who died 1792, 308 years after the death of Cosimo.

Of all the different schools it may in general be observed, that it is easy to trace the reason of the characters which distinguish them. In the Roman school, it is the excellent education of the first artists, and the masterpieces of antique found among the ruins of ancient Rome. In the Venetian school, the magnificence brought to Venice by the commerce of the east, the frequency of fêtes and masquerades, the necessity for artists frequently to paint persons habited in rich stuffs. In the Dutch school, the ordinary lives of their artists, who frequented tippling-houses, and the shops of the lowest artificers; they were witnesses to scenes the most vulgarly grotesque, and were often in the way of observing the effect of a confined or narrow light, natural or artificial, in close places. The *Encyclopédie Methodique*, speaking of the English school, then in its infancy, says, "Beauty must naturally form part of the character of this school, because beauty is so common in England as continually to meet the eye of the artist: if this beauty is not precisely that of the antique, it is perhaps not inferior to it. The English school will be distinguished by truth of expression, because national liberty leaves the passions their own natural play. It will preserve its simplicity, and will not be degraded by theatrical imitation, by quaintness, and false graces, because simplicity is still preserved by the English in their manners. Examine the portrait of a Frenchwoman painted by a Frenchman: you will often find no expression but a forced smile, in which the eyes and forehead have no share, and which mark no affection of the mind. Look at an Englishwoman's portrait, by an English artist: you will most frequently find a naiveté of expression, which acquaints you with the character, the mind, of the person represented." *Ency. Meth. Beaux Arts*, i. 238.

PRINCIPLES OF PAINTING.

The rudiments, or first principles, of the art of painting, are *drawing* and *colouring*. Other component parts of painting are—perspective, symmetry, drapery, composition, disposition, chiaro-scuro, &c. Of all these we shall speak incidentally; but shall reduce them to as few heads as possible.

OF DRAWING.

DRAWING consists in forming the contour, or outline, of the piece. This, of course, is the chief and most important part of the work, since it includes every thing but the filling-up, shading, or *colouring*. We speak of course of the finished drawing, or composition; for some painters, as well as some poets, correct and alter a great deal as they proceed; others, like Shakespeare, little or nothing.

Drawing the outline is an arbitrary mode of conveying ideas of form, which has its foundation altogether in art, and was its first essay towards perfection; and, although the progress of painting has been so great, and it has so nearly approached to complete imitation by the help of chiaro-scuro and colour, yet *outline*, simple and unaided, still remains duly appreciated, as efficient to produce the greatest and most essential purposes of art; viz. the ideas of action and expression in the figures it represents.

There is not, in fact, any such thing as an outline in nature. The effect which natural objects produce upon our vision, is only that of a number of parts, or of distinct masses of form and colour, but no lines. We are obliged to aid invention in design, by resorting to a fiction; and the first and simplest means which presents itself to the mind is, to separate the objects we desire to represent upon a plane surface, by marking the boundary of each, the extreme

extreme extent of its dimensions in every direction; and this we call drawing its outline. We recollect more of a form by its boundary, or its separation from other objects, than by its projecting parts; hence arises the satisfaction we receive from a line which marks that boundary, though no such line in reality exists; our imagination immediately loses sight of the fallacy, and dwells upon the form within it. It is sufficient for this purpose, that the exterior of the form be exhibited correct enough to excite an image of the whole; and perhaps the impression a well-drawn outline makes upon the mind is seldom much increased, if at all, by the more complete imitation of form which light and shade can give it.

Such an outline is in itself a perfect thing. It has no exemplar in nature, but is received as an arbitrary token of a substance. The image it excites is, indeed, more or less perfect, according to the information or force of imagination of the beholder; but, as there is no other means of comparison than with the reasoning powers of his own mind, its impression must be considered as complete. Fill it with colour, give the form within it light and shade; in short, attempt to make it an imitation of the real object, and it becomes subject to comparisons, which, in well-informed minds, must necessarily diminish its force. Its simplicity is the basis of its power. The impression, as far as it goes, being complete, if the other requisites of art were not, when added to it, as perfect in their kind as the simple outline, it would certainly be weakened in its main points; a more full image might indeed be presented to the eye, but that fulness of effect which arises when the mind is simply excited to act for itself, would be disturbed, and withdrawn from the pathos of the design.

The value of outline will be most fully appreciated by those who, with Lavater, have observed the fulness of character displayed in silhouettes, or profile outlines filled up with only one colour; and still more by those who have examined the beautiful works in outline from Homer, Æschylus, and Dante, by Mr. Flaxman. In regarding many of those excellent designs, the mind is so entirely filled with figure, action, and expression, that it almost shrinks with fear at the idea of an attempt at further completion.

If, indeed, the art of painting were considered merely as an instrument of moral instruction, or even as a means of relating a fact, outline would be fully adequate to fulfil its purposes. But, although we are not inclined to depreciate the value of this noble art, we agree with those who regard its practice more in the light of ornament than of utility, generally speaking; and in that view of it, outline becomes merely a passive agent to prepare the way for the more splendid effects which *chiaro-scuro* and colour alone can produce.

It is outline which decides the character of a painting; for, according to the style in which this is drawn must be the one adopted in filling up the void: in other words, a figure must have complete union in its character, in the parts which appear to come forwards, and are produced within the outline, as well as in those which recede and form it.

As outline is thus essentially important in the art, it becomes necessarily an object worthy the most serious attention of the professor; and we cannot recommend to a young practitioner a more useful lesson than that he endeavour to attain, as early as possible, the power of drawing an outline free and characteristic; as that power can never be unaccompanied with a certain degree of freedom in the execution of a finished picture: but, if not attained while the hand is free, and the mind most alive to impression, the task is rendered proportionably difficult.

The revivers of painting in the thirteenth century followed the meagre taste in drawing of the Greek artists, their immediate predecessors, and appear to have selected for their models the most emaciated objects in nature. Donatello and Luca Signorelli broke through this in a

great degree; and its overthrow was completed by Michael Angelo. It required, however, two centuries to get entirely the better of this strange poverty of style. Michael Angelo himself, when he designed his celebrated Cartoon of Pisa, if we may judge from the Holkham copy, (which has every appearance of being an accurate transcript,) had not then adopted that fulness of form which characterises his subsequent works, and which he probably derived from some fine fragments of antiquity discovered in his time, particularly the *torso*. The sight of the Sistine chapel produced in Raphael an immediate change from the Gothic taste of his master Pietro Perugino, in which he commenced; and he seems to have been so pleased with this new style, as sometimes to carry it to excess: he usually surpassed his rival in grace, though he never equalled him in energy or grandeur.

Drawing degenerated rapidly with the successors of these two great men. After Giulio and Polidoro, the Roman school fell into insipidity; and the Florentine, endeavouring to imitate Michael Angelo, became tumid and extravagant. Correggio and Parmegiano, seduced by beauty of line, too often sacrificed correctness to elegance. The Caracci at Bologna composed a sort of middle style, in which they attempted to obviate all these defects; but it was heavy, and possessed little sentiment or character, though it has become the common-place historical manner of almost all their successors, and, we may add, of most academies in other parts of Europe. Ludovico Caracci, and Domenichino, are the best of this school, in regard to purity of taste. Poussin adopted another style, founded on a close imitation of the antique statues, but acquired too much of the hardness of the material in which they were wrought, without attaining, in general, their grace or symmetry. The present French school have pushed this still further, and fill their pictures with frigid copies of all the ideal forms of the ancients.

The *antique*, however, must always be considered the great source of true taste in drawing. It is here the artist may learn to separate the essential and generic from the accidental and individual; the great principle of the superiority of the ancients over the moderns. How much of this, which is properly called *style*, may be adopted in painting, is a question of some nicety: Rubens has expressed his admiration of the ancient statues, and given his opinion how far they may be studied with advantage by a painter, in a treatise quoted by Du Piles, but seems to have wholly neglected them in his practice. In this country, as it was formerly in the Venetian school, drawing is considered as the least important part of painting; fine tones and imposing effects compensate for all omissions of this kind. The pre-eminent talents of the late sir Joshua Reynolds have probably not a little contributed to give this direction to the taste of the English school; his successful example, though utterly at variance with his precepts, added to the natural fascination of colour and *chiaro-scuro*, has made the sensual triumph over the intellectual part of the art; and it is the more to be regretted, as he has merely left his followers to labour in a mine which he himself had almost exhausted. But, in spite of fashion or indolence, it may be safely affirmed, that drawing is the soul of beauty, character, and expression, and that its neglect will inevitably be followed by the extinction of all the higher styles of painting.

OF COLOURING.

COLOURING, one of the great component and essential parts of painting, is the art of giving to every object in a picture its true and proper hue, as it appears under all the various circumstances or combinations of light, middle-tint, and shadow; and of so blending and contrasting the colours, as to make each appear with the greatest advantage and beauty, at the same time that it contributes to the richness, the brilliancy, and the harmony, of the whole.

Colouring, like *chiaro-scuro*, may be divided into kinds, that

that which is *necessary* for rendering the imitation just and intelligible; and that which is *expedient*, or *ornamental*, as contributing to make the work at once more impressive to the imagination, and more harmonious and delightful to the eye. Truth in the local tints is alone required in the first kind; the second demands choice in their selection and distribution. For illustration, let us suppose the principal figure in a piece to be dressed in sky-blue, and another figure near it, of less consequence in the story, to be represented in scarlet, with an under-vestment of bright yellow; and let the light be made to strike equally on both: in such a case, it would be utterly impossible to give an effect agreeable or harmonious to the picture, although each of these objects should be painted with the utmost exactness and truth; nay, the combination, though found in nature itself, would excite feelings of disgust and aversion; whereas, if the principal figure were dressed in scarlet and white draperies, and the figure next it in blue of not too light or bold a tint, the effect would be harmonious and pleasing; and another point of great importance would be gained, as the eye would then be attracted by the principal figure, which could not have been the case in the former instance, where the gaudy combinations of yellow and red must infallibly, as is natural with all warm colours, have first obtruded itself into notice. However, as the eye has the same intuitive abhorrence of unharmonious combinations of colours that the ear has of discordant sounds, it is therefore not surprising if we so seldom meet with enormities like the one above supposed, even in the works of those artists who least of all can lay claim to the scientific arrangement of colours: to produce effects not unharmonious or disagreeable, requires no great exertion of talent; but, to perform all that can be done by the most skilful application of the various powers of the art, is the lot of few.

For the practice of the art of colouring, it is very difficult to give efficient rules. The principal objects which require attention, are, to let the preparatory colours be lighter and clearer (that is, rather more gay) than those with which it is intended to finish, and to take care that the full form be made out with the under-colour, before any proceeding is made with the finishing ones; which ought not to be disturbed in their hues; and to be employed only to strengthen those prepared, and give lightness and delicacy of execution. It is also desirable that the colours be disturbed as little as possible with the brush; and not be too much blended, or softened; but rather laid on with touches, beside each other, as that tends to keep them pure, whilst too much fretting causes them to become muddy, and to change in drying. The first part of the process of a picture, after the artist has fixed in his own mind a full idea of his composition in all its material parts, is, for him to draw correctly the general forms, and then begin to paint in his *chiaro-scuro*, with as simple a scale of colour as possible; and fully to satisfy himself on that head before he proceeds with his positive colours. This is the readiest mode of avoiding confusion, and the necessity of frequent repetition; but there are almost as many modes of process as there are painters; each varying in some respect from the other, and every man's practice, either by accident or principle, furnishing him with varieties. Too great an adherence to system, is certainly not favourable to advancement; yet, without a system, much time is necessarily lost; and it seems most reasonable, that every artist should commence with one, however he may find it necessary to vary from it in his progress.

But, after all, the pictures of the best colourists are, it is universally allowed, the books in which a young painter must chiefly look for the rules of colouring; that is, of that branch of painting which contributes so much to express the beauty of objects, and is so requisite to represent them as what they really are. Giorgione and Titian seem to have discovered circumstances in nature which others have entirely overlooked; and the last in

particular has been happy enough to express them with a pencil as delicate as his eye was quick and piercing. In his works we behold that sweetness of colouring which is produced by union, that beauty which is consistent with truth; and all the insensible transmutations, all the soft transitions, in a word, all the pleasing modulations, of tints and colours. When a young painter has, by close application, acquired from Titian, whom he can never sufficiently dwell upon, that art which, of all painters, he has best contrived to hide, he would do well to turn to Bassano and Paolo Veronese, on account of the beauty, boldness, and elegance, of their touches. That richness, softness, and freshness, of colouring, for which the Lombard school is so justly celebrated, may likewise be of great service to him. Nor will he reap less benefit by studying the principles and practice of the Flemish school; which, chiefly by means of her varnishes, has contrived to give a most enchanting lustre and transparency to her colours.

As soon, however, as a young painter has laid a proper foundation for good colouring, by studying the best masters, he should turn all his thoughts to truth and nature. And it would perhaps be well worth while to have, in the academies of painting, models for colouring as well as designing; that, as from the one the pupils learn to give their due proportion to the several members and muscles, they may learn from the other to make their carnations rich and warm, and faithfully copy the different local hues which appear quite distinct in the different parts of a fine body. To illustrate still farther the use of such a model, let us suppose it placed in different lights; now in that of the sun, now in that of the sky, and now again in that of a lamp or candle; one time placed in the shade, and another in a reflected light. Hence the pupil may learn all the different effects of the complexion in different circumstances, whether the livid, the lucid, or transparent; and, above all, that variety of tints and half-tints, occasioned in the colour of the skin by the epidermis having the bones immediately under it in some places, and in others a greater or less number of blood-vessels or quantity of fat. An artist, who had long studied such a model, would run no risk of degrading the beauties of nature by any particularity of style, or of giving into any preposterous fulness and floridness of colour: he would not "feed his figures with roses," as an ancient painter of Greece shrewdly expressed it, but with good beef; a difference which the learned eye of a modern writer could perceive between the colouring of Barocci and that of Titian. *Webb's Dialogues.*

What statues are in design, nature is in colouring; the fountain-head of that perfection to which every artist, ambitious to excel, should constantly aspire; and accordingly the Flemish painters, in consequence of their aiming solely to copy nature, are in colouring as excellent as they are wont to be awkward in designing.

Amongst the Flemish painters, Rubens undoubtedly holds the first place; and his works, as sir Joshua Reynolds observes, "have that peculiar property always attendant on genius, to attract attention, and enforce admiration, in spite of all their faults." His colouring evinces that exuberance and boldness of genius, which in every other part of the art peculiarly characterises him. It possesses neither the sober richness of Titian nor the delicate harmony of Corregio; but seems frequently, by the gorgeous assemblage of tints, to vie with the gaiety of the chaplet or nosegay. It is perhaps, however, a matter worthy of investigation, whether the great variety of colours introduced by Rubens in the draperies and other parts of his pictures, has not, by the too-great equality of their distribution, upon some occasions proved detrimental, rather than advantageous, to the richness and splendour of effect, which at all times seems to have been his principal object; and whether that object would not have been more effectually attained, had he followed the practice of the early Venetians, in giving to two or three colours a more decided pre-eminence. The style

of Vandyke is more pure and chaste. The modest tenderness of his tints gently, but irresistibly, persuade; and his numerous portraits, by their delicacy and truth of expression, still captivate and interest the beholder, even where the personages they represent have been long forgotten.

Rembrandt is, as Mr. Fuseli observes, a genius of the first class in every thing which relates not to form; but, though as a colourist he certainly holds a pre-eminent rank, the effect of his pictures is perhaps, as we have said of Guercino, more the consequence of his astonishing *chiaro-scuro* than of the freshness and vigour of his tints. His works present not the gorgeous combinations of colour found in those of Rubens, or that humid mellowness of tint in the flesh so much admired in the pictures of Titian and Giorgione; nevertheless, they evince a most powerful conception of harmony, a beautiful gradation of tint, and great solemnity of tone. His lights have a brilliancy peculiarly his own; scarcely more owing to the powerful opposition of his *chiaro-scuro*, than to the extraordinary method which he used of painting the luminous parts of his pictures with a very great body of colour in almost a dry state; whilst his broad masses of shadow possess a magic transparency, making, as it were, darkness visible.

It would be endless to enumerate the many admirable colourists of Flanders and Holland, who successively trod the footsteps of the great artists above-mentioned; indeed, there are few painters of those schools whose works may not be studied with advantage as to this part of the art; the richness and harmony of their tints, the beauty and strength of their *chiaro-scuro*, and the delicacy of their pencilling, comprising their chief excellence. Sir Joshua Reynolds, the great colourist of the last century, fully appreciated their merits; and, by combining somewhat of their principle with the different styles of Titian and Corregio, has succeeded in producing, in not a few instances, a richness and brilliancy of colour, inferior perhaps to neither, and at the same time different from all. Happy for his reputation, if, from an insatiable desire of surpassing, he had not, in so many of his pictures, indulged himself in the use of colours and varnishes, which, like the more delicate blossoms of nature, are the earliest subject to decay.

It has already been observed, that *chiaro-scuro* may exist in the greatest perfection, independently of colours; but colouring, without the aid of lights and shadows, would present us nothing more than the geographical chart, or the harlequin's coat; and the study of it must therefore necessarily imply some previous knowledge of *chiaro-scuro*.

That species or division of colouring which we have termed the *expedient*, or *ornamental*, is of a very extended range, and may be compared to rhetoric, which gives additional lustre to truth, and enables the orator, even where proof is wanting, to support his argument upon specious, though fallacious, grounds. By a judicious opposition of one colour to another, the skilful painter is enabled to give to each an increased delicacy or an additional splendour; and by the same means a colour may be made to appear different from that which it really is; and thus a semblance of truth in the local tint may be frequently attained, even where that truth is in reality very far from existing. If the tint of the flesh be of too warm a hue, a yellow drapery placed next it restores it to harmony; if too red, a crimson or a scarlet mantle takes away, or diminishes, the imperfection; if it appear cold, blue or purple opposed to it, gives it a proportionable degree of warmth; and thus, by contrasting one colour with another, the painter is enabled to give to each the degree of value he desires, according as his subject and the general effect of his work requires. It was the custom of Rubens, when he wished to give brilliancy to the principal figures in his picture, to oppose to the flesh a map of scarlet drapery, and another of pure white; by these means the tints of the naked parts acquired a won-

derful air of truth, at the same time that a splendid and harmonious effect was produced.

The balance of cold and warm colours in a picture seems to bear a strong affinity to the gradation or contrast of the *chiaro-scuro*, and demands equal attention. "A certain quantity of cold colours," says Sir Joshua Reynolds, "is necessary to give value and lustre to the warm colours;" he adds, "that the masses of light in a picture be always of a warm mellow colour, yellow, red, or a yellowish-white; and that the blue, the grey, or the green, colours, be kept almost entirely out of these masses, and be used only to support and set off these warm colours; and for this purpose a small proportion of cold colours will be sufficient." "Let this conduct be reversed," continues this excellent writer; "let the light be cold, and the surrounding colours warm, as we often see in the works of the Roman and Florentine painters, and it will be out of the power of art, even in the hands of Rubens or Titian, to make a picture splendid and harmonious. The illuminated parts of objects are in nature of a warmer tint than those that are in the shade; what I have recommended therefore is no more than that the same conduct be observed in the whole, which is acknowledged to be necessary in every individual part. It is presenting to the eye the same effect as that which it has been accustomed to feel, which in this case, as in every other, will always produce beauty; no principle therefore in our art can be more certain, or is derived from a higher source."

It is proper, in this place, to observe, that the body which receives a reflected light, receives, together with that light, somewhat of the colour of the object which gives the reflection; and this in proportion to the strength of light on the body reflecting, and the vicinity of such body to that receiving the reflection. The skilful management of *reflections* is so indispensable a part of colouring, that it cannot employ too great a share of the student's attention: an excellent insight into the principles of it will be afforded him by the works of Rubens and Jordaens; not perhaps the less so from these masters having marked the reflections in their pictures with a precision and distinctness, perhaps even beyond what is warranted by the appearances of Nature herself.

With respect to the application of colouring, it should always be remembered, that, like the other parts of the art, it is of a nature powerfully to contribute to the sentiment and expression of a picture; when the style adopted is in strict conformity with the character of the subject represented. This conformity is therefore the first thing to be considered. If the subject is awful or melancholy, a grave sombre tone of colour will be appropriate; if gay or magnificent, the most brilliant and gorgeous tints may be freely used. The dark hue given by Michael Angelo to his celebrated group in the boat, in the Last Judgment, with the cold light behind it, renders it perhaps not less a masterpiece of colour, than the Venus and Adonis of Titian, or the Sleeping Nymphs of Rubens.

There are more reasons than one why our colouring cannot equal that of the ancients.

The ancients (says Longerue) were not in possession of the art of painting in oil, invented by John of Bruges; yet their colours were more glowing and durable than ours. Our colours are considerably diminished, even since the last age: compare the colouring of Le Brun and Mignard, with that of their predecessors. This is said to proceed from the avarice of the Dutch, and others, who corrupt the drugs used in painting; perhaps, too, they have induced the natives themselves to corrupt them. The colouring of the two great painters above mentioned fades every day. It is the same in Italy; and this great evil has become general. Those who have inspected the paintings on vellum, or illuminated manuscripts, of which many fine specimens are preserved in the British Museum, will confess, that not only the artists of those times excelled us in the elaborate finishings of their pieces; or, in the language of Pope, "The patient touches of unwearied

unwearied art;" but that the brilliancy of their colours is such, that no just conception can be formed of their beauty but by inspection. They preserve all their vivid tints, though they are so ancient. We might perhaps hope to emulate them, if something could be effected to preserve the drugs from adulteration.

It is certain that, in Italy, France, Holland, and Flanders, they obtained much better oil than we do at this moment; nut-oil, drawn without the assistance, or rather violence, of fire, and bleached in the sun, in white glass bottles, at the bottom of which a few shot or thin pieces of lead are deposited, in order to attract and combine with the adipose part of the oil, was what they generally employed; and we doubt not that it is in a great measure owing to the simplicity and purity of this process, that the colouring of Titian and Rubens, of Veronese and of Teniers, is still the deserved object of our admiration, and baffles still the imitative powers of our contemporaries.

Another powerful, though imperceptible, agent, which contributes materially to create a difference between a copy and its prototype, is Time. Among the instructive and interesting dreams, allegories, and visions, with which Addison has interspersed his immortal *Spectator*, we read (N^o 83.) that, having been led into an immense gallery, full of masterpieces of all kinds of pictures, he remarked in one of the apartments a little old man, with a long beard, and much emaciated both by study and age, who seemed working slowly, but with undisturbed attention, upon some of the *tableaux* which composed the valuable collection. Turning to the cicerone who attended, he whispered him, "Pray, who is that old picture-cleaner, so busy upon those pieces?" "'Tis TIME," answered the man; "to him, to his minute touches, to his softening the glare, and deepening the shadows, we owe that undescribable harmony and inimitable mellowness which enhances so much the merit of pictures." This allegory, besides its lively ingenuity, contains an evident share of truth. It is obvious to any man who is acquainted with the principles and practice of the art, that time, by slow degrees, improves, generally, the value of a picture; not because the hand which has produced it lies cold in the grave, and can paint no more; but on account of that admirable varnish of softness which age, and the improving hands of passing centuries, spread upon the works of painters, as well as upon the metal of ancient medals and coins. Can a copy, fresh from the pallet and the brush, boast of such a quality? and, when the copier compares, impartially, his work with the beautiful exemplar which stands in judgment against him and his labours, is he not ready to despond? But, if he consider that, although there is a family-likeness between them, yet, as it happens among brothers, the youngest must naturally differ in proportion from the eldest, he will soon reconcile himself with his art, and be more pleased with his seemingly-unsuccessful exertions. Hence we must infer, that a copy never can entirely be a *fac-simile* of the original; or that, if it appear so at the moment it is done, it will, in a few years, lose more of its native sweetness and brilliancy than the type, which has boldly stood the test of years, will ever do in the same space of time. Lanfranc, a celebrated French painter, used to say, *Je fais tout ce que je peux; l'air fait le reste*; "I do all I can, the air (or time) performs the rest."

OF DRAPERY.

The DRAPERY contributes to the life, character, and expression, of the figure. The naked form should chiefly be considered; the drapery is only accessory to it, and should therefore seem to cover the limbs only, not to hide them. The garment must not be too tight, so as to seem to confine the limbs; nor too loose and large, so as to be troublesome. Many good artists draw their figures first naked, and lay on the drapery afterwards; an excellent method for avoiding absurdities. The colours and materials of the drapery should concur with the general ex-

pression. Gay and shining garments must not be introduced in melancholy or terrible subjects. Thyestes should not be arrayed in gay colours, when the flesh of his own son seems to agitate his bowels; nor Portia, when feeding upon ashes. But, where the subject is cheerful, let all the drapery be gay and light. The drapery should also agree with the age and character of the figures they cover: gay colours, and light stuffs, floating in the air, mark the young; darker colours, and heavier materials, the aged. A grave and austere person is not to be dressed like a light and voluptuous man; a majestic prince, a prudent mother, is not to be confounded with a courtesan.

If the artist represents a figure flying in the air, let him show by the drapery whether it is rising or descending. If mounting, a column of air from above weighs upon the drapery, and keeps it down; if descending, the under-current of air raises the garment accordingly.

Silk stuffs must be sparingly employed in subjects of ancient history, because among the ancients the fabrication of silk was but very partially known. Equal care should be taken to avoid that poverty which makes some masters look as if, through mere penury, they grudged clothes to their figures; and that profusion which Albani imputed to Guido, saying, that he was rather a tailor than a painter. The ornaments of dress should be used with great sobriety; and it will not be amiss to remember what was once said to an ancient painter: "I pity you greatly; unable to make Helen handsome, you have taken care to make her fine."

Drapery, also, comprehends all hangings, curtains, and other adjustments, made by means of stuffs or cloths of any kind, in the scenery of a picture; but it must be recollected, that it is not the name nor substance, but the *disposition* of those materials, that brings them under the denomination of *drapery*. Cloths of any kind may be made to fill whatever portion of his composition the painter may find suitable to his purpose; but, unless they be disposed in folds, they are still cloths only, and not drapery.

Drapery then, strictly regarded, consists in the disposition of folds; and the skillful disposition of folds; whether for clothing or other use, constitutes the *art* of drapery. In the general composition of a picture, drapery is connected with *costume* and character; as an object of study in a single figure, the beauty of drapery stands deservedly next in rank to beauty of form, as it not only powerfully co-operates with the latter, but is even found to be at times capable of enhancing its value, by artful management and partial concealment; and it is also capable of assisting *expression*, as far as it is displayed by the action of the figure.

To drape a figure well, it is necessary that the folds be large and few in number; because large folds produce great masses of light and shadow, while small ones multiply the objects of view and distract the attention. But, if the character of the drapery or kind of stuff requires small folds, they should at least be distributed in groups, in such a manner that a great number of small folds shall be subordinate to an equal mass formed by a principal fold.

It is also proper to observe, that the *colour* of the drapery contributes to the harmony of the whole, and produces effects which the *chiaro-scuro* cannot do alone. At the same time, the principles of the *chiaro-scuro* should preside over, or at least regulate, the art of drapery. If the folds of the stuff which cover the members exposed to the light are too strongly shaded, they will appear to enter into the members, and cut them.

The Greek and Roman artists understood so well the proportions of the human body, and the flowing elegance of drapery, that it was said of their statues and pictures, *Induitur, formosa est; exuitur, ipsa forma est*: "Covered, she is beautiful; naked, she is beauty itself."

Raphael is the model for drapery among the moderns. At first, says Mengs, he imitated his master Pietro Perugino's manner of drapery; and he brought this manner

to perfection, by studying the works of Massaccio and of Bartholomew; but he departed entirely from the taste of the school in which he was educated when he had seen the works of the ancients. It was the bas-reliefs of antiquity which pointed out to him the true flowing of drapery, and he was not backward to introduce it. He made his ample draperies without useless folds, and with bendings at the articulations. It was the form of the naked figure which pointed out to him the form of his folds, and on the great muscles he formed great masses. When any part required to be fore-shortened, he covered it with the same number of folds as if it had been straight; but then he crowded them in proportion to the fore-shortening. He frequently discovered the border of his drapery, to show that his figures were not dressed in a simple sack. The form of the principal parts, and the specific weight of the air, were always the causes of his folds. It was easy to discover in his works, by the folds of his drapery, the attitude of the figure previous to the one in which it was placed; and whether, for example, the arm was extended or otherwise, immediately before the action. This was an expression which he had carefully studied on all occasions, because he found it in nature. When the drapery was to cover the leg or arm but half, or in an imperfect manner, he made it cut obliquely the member which was partly to be covered. His folds were of a triangular form. The reason of this form is in nature; for all drapery has a tendency to enlarge itself and be extended; and, as at the same time its own weight obliges it to fall back on itself, it is naturally formed into triangles. He knew perfectly that the movements of the body and of its members are the causes of the actual situation of drapery, and of the formation of its folds. All his practice is nothing else but the unfolding and demonstrating of this theory; and drapery executed in any other manner must be in a false and vicious taste.

There can be no drapery more faulty in painting or sculpture, than that which, in either art, affects to resemble the productions of the other. It is not to be denied, that in the highest of all examples of sculpture, the works of Phidias, such drapery is to be found, as from its softness and breadth (founded on a knowledge of principles possessed only by himself) may safely be transferred to painting. Such, for instance, is the drapery of the two females sitting together, in the collection brought from Athens by the earl of Elgin, in which every quality of beauty of form and character is combined. But, without this consummate knowledge, the experiment, whenever it has been made, has been generally unsuccessful. Painting, imitating the drapery of sculpture, has produced garments of ropes; and sculpture, imitating that of painting, has left it doubtful if it designed to represent cloths or rocks. The requisite distinction between the proper management of drapery in painting and in sculpture, is most instructively exemplified in the practice of that great master of both arts, Michael Angelo. Du Fresnoy has justly pointed out this distinction: the large folds, he remarks, and massy garments, with which the Prophets, in the Sistine chapel, are invested, are confessedly such as correspond with the powers of painting, and are peculiarly adapted to the awful character of the persons who wear them; but, in the Monument of Julius II. in the church of San Pietro in Vincoli, the statue of Moses, although, by the character of the person represented, it evidently takes the same class as the figures of the Prophets, has nothing of the same kind of drapery. The dress is cast closer round the limbs, the folds are thinner, narrower, and, in every respect, such as the properties of sculpture render necessary for the just expression of the forms of the figure.

In the latter period of the Italian school, two great masters of the art of drapery, Guido and Carlo Maratti, have arisen to eclipse the fame of all preceding painters, except Raphael. Guido, in his picture of the "Doctors of the

Church revolving the Question of the immaculate Conception," and in his still more celebrated "Aurora," has left examples of the most perfect beauty, propriety, and character of drapery. In the former work, the light folds of unfulfilled whiteness of the drapery of the Virgin, mildly and generally illuminated by aerial splendours, and the larger foldings and graver hues of the garments of the doctors, are equally deserving our admiration. In the latter, he has exemplified all that is light, airy, elegant, and graceful, in female drapery, cast or falling into folds by the force of motion, or air. In the picture of the Doctors of the Church it is to be remarked, that Guido has entirely laid aside all reference to costume, although he did not want precedents for the dresses of the principal persons represented; and that the draperies are as purely ideal in that picture as in his other work of poetical imagination, the Aurora.

It is remarkable, in the progress of the Italian school, that, in proportion as the style of art deteriorated, attention to drapery continued to gain an ascendancy. In Guido, from the varied beauties which he gave to his drapery, from the union of lightness, softness, and breadth, in his folds, drapery first became a predominant feature of historical design. Pietro da Cortona, who corrupted art, clothed his female figures in the most seductive variety of attire. Andrea Sacchi's great work, in the church of St. Romualdo, the fourth wonder of Roman painting, derived the greater portion of its praise from the powerful management of the drapery in the dresses of the religious characters introduced in it; and, in the time of his scholar, Carlo Maratti, the whole study of painting consisted scarcely in any thing besides drapery. Indeed, Carlo Maratti was of opinion, that the disposition of drapery was a more difficult art than even that of drawing the human figure; that a student might be more easily taught the latter than the former; as the rules of drapery, he said, could not be so well ascertained as those for delineating a correct form. But this is only a proof how willingly we favour our own peculiar excellence. Carlo Maratti valued himself particularly upon his skill in this part of his art; yet, in him, the disposition appears so artificial, that he is inferior to Raphael, even in that which gave him his best claim to reputation.

Paul Veronese also gained much applause for his draperies; but it is smartly said by a French writer, "that Raphael is the best painter of *drapery*; Veronese the best painter of *stuffs*."

OF COSTUME.

Closely connected with the subject of drapery is that of *COSTUME*, or giving to the figures the proper dresses of the country and age they belong to. But *costume* has a much larger sense, and a much wider range: it may be said to correspond with the unities of time, place, and action, in tragedy and in epic poetry. It is chiefly confined to history-painting; and regards the *customs* and manners of different periods, as well as the *dresses* of different nations. Great exactness in the costume is scarcely practicable; but too sensible a departure from it denotes unpardonable negligence. The road of the painter is between these two extremes; not to despise beauty on the one hand, nor probability on the other. We mean that it is not necessary for the painter to cramp himself by an observance too minute. He should steer a middle course: let him give to a nation, the Romans for instance, the dress which they wore in the most flourishing times of the republic, without a tedious and minute enquiry into the various shades of fashion which luxury introduced among that famous people.

On the other hand, a departure from costume has rendered many a fine picture ridiculous. These offences are like grammatical solecisms in a beautiful composition. Several blunders of this kind are pointed out by Chevreau; and some connoisseurs will recollect the very pictures.

tures which are alluded to. "Those artists who paint Isaac on his knees before an altar, with Abraham behind him, who raises a knife in the act of striking at him, describe Isaac imperfectly. Before Abraham lifted his arm, Isaac was not prostrate at the altar, but lay on it, as clearly appears in the book of Genesis, where it is said, that Abraham, after having built an altar, *bound Isaac, laid him on the wood, and then took the knife to slay him.* Gen. xxii. 9, 10. In several pictures, Jesus is seen on the cross, with a perspective view of the city of Jerusalem behind him, in which place are represented pyramids, domes, cupolas, and obelisks. This is a gross blunder; because at Jerusalem, and all eastern cities, the tops of the houses were flat and open; there company walked, held assemblies, and celebrated the feast of tabernacles. The Virgin should not be painted with a book on the table, when the angel Gabriel salutes her; nor should St. John the Evangelist, when he wrote his Revelation, be represented young; nor Jesus be made to recline his head on the table, as if asleep, at the supper with his apostles. St. James is ridiculously represented by several, with a pilgrim's staff in his hand, and shells hung about him, because catholics go in pilgrimage to St. James of Compostella in Galicia. In the collection of the French king there is a celebrated picture, in which Jesus is represented at table, in the castle of Emmaus, with two of his disciples; one with a slouched hat, with broad brims hanging over his back, and a huge chaplet round his waist; the other has a scarf or shoulder-belt on his coat. They are served by a man, who wears a kind of handkerchief which only covers half his head; his arms naked to the elbows, like a cook; and by him stands a page, who has a little hat with a feather in it, according to the present Venetian fashion."

Perhaps the blunder of painters most susceptible of raillery, is that of representing Moses with *horns* on his head, when he descends from Mount Sinai with the tables in his hands. This is copied in many engravings, which are very common. Chevreau explains this blunder: it is owing to one in the Vulgate, which, however, was not detected by St. Jerome. The noun *keren*, in Hebrew, signifies "horns;" and the verb *karan* "to emit rays," or to glitter. When the Jews (observes Chevreau) come into our churches, they laugh at us for representing Moses like Satan. Our version renders the passage, not that Moses came down "with horns on his head," but that *the skin of his face shone.* Exod. xxxiv. 29, 30.

An ancient painter called Galaton gave likewise a fine proof of his genius in this line, by representing a great number of poets greedily quenching their thirst in the waters gushing from the mouth of Homer. And to this allegory, according to Guigni, Pliny has an eye, when he calls that prince of poets the *fountain of wits.*

The mythological taste of the learned Poussin is well known; but Rubens seems to claim the merit of having presented to the world a still greater number of supreme absurdities in this learned style: nor is it easy to conceive a more heterogeneous mixture of circumstances, real and imaginary, sacred and profane, than the Luxembourg Gallery, and the other works of that great master, perpetually exhibit. Thus he has united the queen-mother in council with two cardinals and Mercury. Nor is there less impropriety in his making Tritons and Nereids, in another piece of the same gallery, swim to the queen's vessel through the galleys of the knights of St. Stephen. Such freedoms are equally disgusting with the prophecies of Sannazaro's Proteus concerning the mystery of the incarnation, or the Indian kings of Camoens reasoning with the Portuguese on the adventures of Ulysses.

Mr. Strutt has detected some singular improprieties of our Saxon painters. He writes, "They were far from having the least idea of any thing more ancient than the manners and customs of their own particular times. They put Noah, Abraham, Christ, and king Edgar, all in the same habit; that is, the habit worn by themselves at that time; and in some manuscripts illuminated in the reign

of Henry VI. are exhibited the figures of Meleager, Hercules, Jason, &c. in the full dress of the great lords of that prince's court." In one of these manuscripts, the erudite artist having heard something about Hercules and his lion's skin, he has covered the shoulders of his athletic beau with a hide of that noble animal, but it is made to hang upon a splendid load of silk and gold embroidery!

In the third volume of the Transactions of the Manchester Society, we have an enumeration of some very curious violations of costume, and of common sense.

"When Raphael, in his cartoons, introduces monks and Swiss guards; when he puts into a boat more figures than it is evident the boat could actually contain; when, in the chastisement of Heliodorus, who attempted to despoil the temple of Jerusalem, pope Julius II. is depicted as being present; when, in the Donation of Constantine in the Vatican, a naked boy is placed conspicuous in the fore-ground, astride upon a dog, in the immediate presence of the pope and the emperor; when Venetian senators are introduced while pope Alexander excommunicates Barbarossa; when Aristotle, Plato, Dante, and Petrarch, are brought together in the School of Athens, to omit the minor improprieties of shoeless apostles, &c. every person must acknowledge that such offences as these against truths so obvious, if they do not arise from a defect of understanding, are instances of inexcusable carelessness. In like manner, when the same great master paints the dreams of Joseph and his fellow-prisoner in circles over their heads; when similar contrivances to express future events are used by Albani, Parmegiano and Fuseli; is it not evident that no possibility can make the fiction true, and that real and feigned existences are unnaturally introduced in one narration?"

"When Polydore chooses to represent the death of Cato, and exposes to the spectator the hero of the piece with his bowels gushing out; when Paul Veronese, at a banquet painted with his usual magnificence, places before us a dog gnawing a bone, and a boy making water: however such disgusting circumstances may be forgiven in the *chef d'œuvre* of a Michael Angelo, had he represented these instead of the horrible figures of his Day of Judgment, the performance of an inferior artist cannot atone for them. So also, when Paul Veronese introduces Benedictine monks at the Marriage of Cana; when, in a picture of the Crucifixion, he puts the Roman soldiers in the jerkins of the 16th century, and adorns their heads with turbans; when Guido, in a painting of Jesus appearing to his mother after his resurrection, places St. Charles Borromeo in a kind of desk in the back-ground as witness to the interview; when Tintoret, at the miraculous fall of manna, arms the Israelites with fusils; and Corregio appoints St. Jerome as the instructor of the child Jesus; common sense revolts at the impropriety, and we are compelled to exclaim, *Quicquid offends mihi sic, incredululis odi!*

"When so great an authority as sir Joshua Reynolds contends for the rejection of common sense in favour of somewhat which he terms a *higher sense*; when he laments, indirectly, that art is not in such high estimation with us, as to induce the generals, lawgivers, and kings, of modern times, to suffer themselves to be represented naked, as in the days of ancient Greece; when he defends even the ridiculous aberrations from possibility, which the extravagant pencil of Rubens has so plentifully produced; it is not surprising that the artists of the present day should be led to reject the company of common sense, or that sir Joshua's performances should furnish examples of his own precepts. For instance, Mrs. Siddons is represented by sir Joshua in the character (as it is said) of the Tragic Muse; she is placed in an old-fashioned arm-chair; this arm-chair is supported by clouds, suspended in the air; on each side of her head is a figure not unapt to suggest the idea of the attendant imps of an enchantress: of these figures one is supposed to represent Comedy, and the

the other Tragedy: Mrs. Siddons herself is decently attired in the fashionable habiliments of the year 1785. Now, if this be a picture of the Tragic Muse, she ought not to appear in a modern dress, nor ought she to be seated in an old arm-chair. If this be a portraiture of Mrs. Siddons, she has no business in the clouds, nor has she any thing to do with aerial attendants. If this be Mrs. Siddons in the character of the Tragic Muse, the first set of objections apply; for she is placed in a situation where Mrs. Siddons could never be.

"In the Death of Dido, sir Joshua Reynolds introduces her sister lamenting over the corpse of the unfortunate queen. This is possible: but he has also introduced Atropos cutting Dido's hair with a pair of scissors, as a being equally real and apparent in the painting with Dido or her sister. This is a gross offence against mythological probability; nor is it the only offence against the costume with which that picture is chargeable."

There is one other breach of costume, however common among painters, more gross and offensive than any of the instances hitherto alleged; we mean the perpetual and unnecessary display of the naked figure. We shall not stay to enquire whether more skill can be shown in painting the human body clothed or unclothed. If the personages introduced in any picture are more naked in the representation than can be justified by the probability of the times, persons, places, or circumstances, it is a breach of the costume proportionate to the deviation. This fault, however, is so common as hardly to be noticed; so slight indeed, when compared with that general taste for voluptuous imagery and obscene representation which has disgraced the art of painting in every stage of its progress, that science and morality are callous to the slight offence.

It is impossible to express how much a picture suffers by such looseness of fancy, and sinks as a bastard of the art in the esteem of good judges. Some people, indeed, are of opinion, that so scrupulous an observance of the costume is apt to hurt pictures, by depriving them of a certain air of truth, arising, they think, from those features and habits to which we are accustomed; and which are therefore apt to make a greater impression than can be expected from things drawn from the remote sources of antiquity: adding withal, that a certain degree of license has ever been allowed those artists who in their works must make fancy their chief guide. "See," say they, "the Greeks;" that is, the masters of Raphael and Poussin themselves; "do they ever trouble their heads about such niceties? The Rhodian statuary, for example, have not scrupled to represent Laocoon naked; that is, the priest of Apollo naked in the very act of sacrificing to the gods, and that too in presence of a whole people, of the virgins and matrons of Ilium. Now, (continue they,) if it was allowable in the ancient statuary to neglect probability and decency to such a degree, to have a better opportunity of displaying their skill in the anatomy of the human body; why may it not be allowable in modern painters, the better to attain the end of their art, which is deception, to depart now-and-then a little from the ancient manners and the too-rigorous laws of the costume? But these reasons, we beg leave to observe, are more absurd than they are ingenious. What! are we to draw conclusions from an example which, far from deciding the dispute, gives occasion to another? The learned are of opinion, that those Rhodian masters would have done much better, had they looked out for a subject in which, without offending so much against truth, and even probability, they might have had an equal opportunity of displaying their knowledge of the naked. And certainly no authority or example whatever should tempt us to do any thing contrary to what both decency and the reason of things require, unless we intend, like Carpi, to represent *Sogni d'inferni, e fole di romanzi*; "The dreams of sick men, and the tales of fools."

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OF COPYING AND OF IMITATION.

The art of COPYING requires the assistance of two mental qualities—judgment and discretion. The first will direct as to the choice, the other as to the application. Supported on either side by these two columns of strength, the artist must stand before his model and consider, till, out of the chaos excited at first in his mind by the confused influx of simultaneous ideas, judgment strikes a light, and discretion assigns their proper forms to the component elements of the whole. In his most instructive and constantly amusing "Entretiens," Felibien tells us, that, when Dominechino was on the point of beginning a picture, he never took hold of the chalk, struck a single line, or handled the brush, until he had long, silently and motionless, with his eyes fixed on the canvas, (the future field of action,) maturely meditated upon his subject, whether it were his own conceptions he had to embody, or another master's performance to imitate. One would have suspected, at first sight, that he was deprived of imagination, or courage; that timidity or sterility fettered his hand, or that he really did not know what he was about; but, when that inward tumult which nobody could witness but himself, when this turbid ebullition of the ideal elements, had subsided, his pencil darted with the rapidity of lightning across the canvas; and, as if bursting into a storm, his execution produced wonders. Some physicians are of opinion, that no man should eat until he feels the sharpness of hunger and a call for food. We may apply this principle to the student who copies, or to the master who meditates an original. If you stand in sight of your subject, contemplating the external or internal archetype, till you feel the impulse and the desire of inception; then your ideas will flow in emulative facility with the colours of your pallet; then you may expect your hand to keep equal pace with your imagination; a circumstance which seldom happens, but which, when it occurs, produces, at once, pleasure in the mind of the painter and pleasing effects on his canvas; for it has been properly remarked, that the corporeal agent is not always as ready as the mental director; *dislat ab ingenio manus*; and that the vivacity of our conceptions wanes and cools considerably during the time of execution.

Another circumstance, which is most worthy of attention, relates to the comparative size of the copy and the original. The art of reducing is simple as to geometrical rules; yet, although you may be correct as far as lineal imitation requires, it will often happen that the whole harmony of the one will not be translated upon the other. We will take as an instance that large picture by Paul Veronese of the "Vocation of St. Charles Borromeo to the See of Milan." Now a small copy of this picture may certainly have its merits, and a good effect, but will not work upon the feelings of the beholders the same impression which is excited by the original; and, besides the truth of the well-known axiom, that the sublime implies magnitude, this unavoidable difference will arise from two distinct causes, which it is proper to explain. In the first place, the element in which we move, the air, is a diaphanous body; but it carries with it, as other substances, its own share of density; hence the magic of aerial perspective in nature, and in the copies which we make of natural objects, either aggregate or single. The mass of air, circulating between the eye of the beholder and a performance of the size of Veronese's picture now under our consideration, is of much greater magnitude than what would intermediately exist between the sight and a highly-finished jewel of Mieris or Gerard Dow. This is, indeed, so far applicable to the original and the reduced copy, that, if the imitator were to work with the same freedom and the identical pigments which the master used, he certainly could not attain his object. The canvas, for instance, upon which the picture of Paolo is executed, is purposely of a very coarse nature, and pro-

duces a striking effect of clearness and brightness everywhere, and especially on the green vestment of St. Charles, (which, however, should have been red, as he had been made a cardinal some time before.) Indeed, the very cloth becomes the garment itself, and identifies its own woof with that of the painted dress. Can this be obtained when copied on a small primed cloth, or a well-pumiced pannel? Certainly not; for this very coarseness is softened by the intermediate air in a way which is entirely denied to the nearly-inspected copy. Lumps of colour issuing out of the scumbling-brush, when driven with enthusiasm and velocity over the pictorial field, have shadows of their own and their own points of reflected light, which, in combined exertions, produce a sensible effect from a cause imperceptible at a distance: again, the air harmonises all this, when profusely interposed; but not so, when the diminutive imitation is offered to the close inspection of the eye. Let us, therefore, take these hints into our consideration, and be persuaded, that a good copy of a good picture, when reduced in size, cannot be made, without allowing a great deal for the absence of that benevolent element which does so much for the artist, by dropping its gauze-like veil between the object and the eye, and thus creating a really perfect *tout ensemble* out of a heap of apparent imperfections. See also the section on COLOURING, p. 233.

Whatever a young painter's natural disposition may be, whether to paint boldly and freely like Tintoret and Rubens, or to labour his works like Titian or da Vinci, let him follow it. This kind of imitation is very commendable. It is thus that Dante, at the same time that he carefully avoided adopting the particular expressions of Virgil, endeavoured to seize his bold and free manner, and at last caught from him that elegance of style which has done him so much honour.

As to the rest, nothing should hinder an able master from making use now-and-then of any antique, or even modern figure, which he may find his account in employing. Raphael, in a St. Paul at Lystra, scrupled not to avail himself of an ancient sacrifice in basso-relievo; nor did Michael Angelo himself disdain to use in his paintings the figures upon the famous cornelian which tradition tells us he wore on his finger, and which was in the possession of the late king of France. Men like these avail themselves of the productions of others in such a manner as to make us apply to them what La Bruyere said of Despréaux, that one would imagine the thoughts of other men had been of his own creation.

In general, a painter should have his eye constantly fixed on Nature, that inexhaustible and varied source of every kind of beauty; and should study to imitate her in her most singular effects. As beauty, scattered over the whole universe, shines brighter in some objects than in others, he should never be without his little book and crayon, in order to make drawings of every beautiful or uncommon object that may happen to present itself; and take sketches of every fine building, every situation, every effect of light, every flight of clouds, every flow of drapery, every attitude, every expression of the passions, that may happen to strike him. He may afterwards employ these things as occasions offer; and in the mean time will have the advantage of acquiring a grand taste.

It is by carefully studying the best masters, and imitating nature, that a painter arrives at the style of perfection which the Italians call *gusto grande*, the French *le beau idéal*, and the English *the great style*.

When we speak of the habitual imitation and continued study of masters, it is not to be understood that we advise any endeavour to copy the exact peculiar colour and complexion of another man's mind; the success of such an attempt must always be like his who imitates exactly the air, manner, and gestures, of him whom he admires. His model may be excellent, but he himself will be ridiculous; and this ridicule arises, not from his hav-

ing imitated, but from his not having chosen the right mode of imitation.

It is a necessary warrantable pride to disdain to walk servilely behind any individual, however elevated his rank. The true and liberal ground of imitation is an open field, where, though he who precedes has had the advantage of starting before you, yet it is enough to pursue his course; you need not tread in his footsteps; and you certainly have a right to outstrip him if you can.

The great use of studying our predecessors is to open the mind, to shorten our labour, and to give us the result of the selection made by those great minds of what is grand or beautiful in nature: her rich stores are all spread out before us; but it is an art, and no easy art, to know how or what to choose, and how to attain and secure the object of our choice. Thus the highest beauty of form must be taken from Nature; but it is an art of long deduction and great experience to know how to find it.

To judge if a Painting be an Original or a Copy.

We shall not speak of indifferent copies, which the curious will find out at first sight; much less of bad ones, which are known to be so by all the world. We must suppose a copy made by a good master, which calls for serious reflection, and makes one doubt, for some time at least, whether it is a copy or an original. Of such copies there are three sorts. The first is done faithfully, but servilely; the second is light, easy, but not faithful; the third is both faithful and easy.

The first, which is servile and faithful, includes the design, the colouring, and the touches of the original; but the fear of passing beyond the bounds of this exactness, and to err against fidelity, makes the hand of the copyist stiff, and thus betrays it to a good judge.

The second is more likely to impose on the spectator, because of the lightness of the pencil; but the unfaithfulness of the contours or outlines will undeceive the best critics.

But the third, which is faithful and easy, made by a learned and skilful hand, and, above all, in the time of the original, may sometimes puzzle the greatest critics.

There is still another difficulty, greater perhaps than any of the foregoing; namely, the repetition of a picture. There is scarcely a painter but has re-created some of his own works: there are two Madonnas of Raphael, which, being placed side by side, it would hardly be possible to say which is the original, and which the repetition or copy. Titian has repeated the same picture seven or eight times; and we see several pictures of the best masters of Italy repeated, which divide the merits of their other pieces, and pass for originals in different places.

Luca Signorelli, of Cortona, was a disciple of Pietro della Francesca; and imitated his manner so exactly, that their works are often taken the one for the other.

There have indeed been copies that have deceived the most skilful painters. Among many examples of this kind, we shall relate one, which is the more remarkable, as it is of an artist who was deceived relative to his own performance.

Frederic II. duke of Mantua, being at Florence, in his way to Rome, to pay a visit to pope Clement VII. observed, in the palace of Medici, over one of the doors, the picture of Leo X. between the cardinal of Medici and cardinal di Rossi; the heads were by Raphael, the drapery by Julio Romano. The duke looked upon it earnestly, and became so enamoured of it, that he could not forbear begging it of the pope when he came to Rome. His holiness very graciously gave it him; and ordered his secretary to write to Octavian de Medici at Florence, to put the picture up in a case and send it to Mantua. Octavian, who was a great lover of painting, and loath to deprive Florence of such a rarity, invented an excuse to defer sending it, pretending that the frame was not rich enough, and that he would get one fitted-up for it. This

delay gave Octavian time to have it copied, which was done by Andrea del Sarto, who imitated even the little spots that were upon the canvas. This piece was so like the original, that Octavian himself could hardly distinguish the one from the other; and, that he might not be deceived, he put a private mark upon the copy, and in a few days after sent it to Mantua. The duke received it with all possible satisfaction, not doubting but it was the work of Raphael and Julio Romano: the latter, who was then in the service of that prince, had no suspicion that his part of the picture was not done by himself; and he would have remained in this error as long as he lived, if Vafari, who had seen the copy while it was drawing, had not undeceived him; for this Vafari, coming to Mantua, was well entertained by Julio Romano, who showed him all the duke's rarities, and, among the rest, this picture of Leo X. which, he informed him was done by Raphael. Vafari said, "It is a very good picture, but it is not Raphael's." Julio Romano, looking on it more attentively, replied, "How! is it not Raphael's! and do I not know my own work in it? do not I see the strokes of my pencil, and remember the striking them?" Vafari answered, "You do not observe it closely enough; I assure you I saw Andrea del Sarto draw this very picture; behind the canvas you will see a mark which was put upon it to distinguish it from the original." Julio Romano, turning the picture, and perceiving it was matter of fact, held up his hands with astonishment, saying, "I value it as much as if it were Raphael's, and even more; for it is very surprising to see so excellent a master so well imitated as to deceive one who is likewise a professor." Now, since Julio Romano, with all his skill, after having had notice given him, still persisted in the deceit of his judgment as to his own work, we must not think it strange that painters less skilful should sometimes be mistaken about the works of others.

An anecdote of Peter Mignard is not less curious. This great man painted a Magdalen on a canvas fabricated at Rome. A broker, in concert with Mignard, went to the chevalier de Clairville, and told him as a secret, that he was to receive from Italy a Magdalen of Guido, and his masterpiece. The chevalier caught the bait, begged the preference, and purchased the picture at a very high price. Some time afterwards he was informed he had been imposed upon, for that the Magdalen was painted by Mignard. Although Mignard himself caused the alarm to be given, the amateur would not believe it; all the connoisseurs agreed it was a Guido, and the famous Le Brun corroborated this opinion.

The chevalier came to Mignard: "There are (he says) some persons who assure me that my Magdalen is your work." "Mine! they do me great honour; I am sure that Le Brun is not of that opinion." "No: Le Brun swears it can be no other than a Guido. You shall dine with me, and meet several of the first connoisseurs." On the day of meeting, the picture was more closely inspected than ever. Mignard hinted his doubts whether the piece was the work of that great master; he insinuated that it was possible to be deceived; and added, that, if it was Guido's, he did not think it in his best manner. It is a Guido, sir, and in his very best manner, replied Le Brun with warmth; I am perfectly convinced. And all the critics unanimously agreed with him. Mignard then spoke in a firm tone of voice; "And I, gentlemen, will wager three hundred louis that it is not a Guido." The dispute now became violent: Le Brun was desirous of accepting the wager. In a word, the affair became such as could add nothing more to the glory of Mignard. "No, sir, (replied the latter,) I am too honest to bet when I am certain to win. Monsieur le Chevalier, this piece cost you 2000 crowns; the money must be returned; the painting is mine." Le Brun would not believe it. "The proof," Mignard continued, "is easy: on this canvas, which is a Roman one, was the portrait of a cardinal; I will show you his cap." The chevalier did not

know which of the rival artists to believe: the proposition alarmed him. "He who painted the picture shall mend it," said Mignard. He took a pencil dipped in oil; and, rubbing the hair of the Magdalen, discovered the cap of the cardinal. The honour of the ingenious painter could no longer be disputed.

We need not, then, wonder at the following mistake, which happened when the French were in Modena as conquerors, and were selecting the pictures they were to carry away. There was a very fine Crucifixion, the single figure of Our Saviour on the cross, by Guido; and an excellent copy of it hung not far distant. The French officer, commissioner, or whatever might be his title, who was entrusted to select those pictures which were to be presented to Parisian admiration, after much puzzling, fixed at length on the copy, which was accordingly carried off, and hung in the Louvre, where it passed for an undoubted original, to the great delight of the Modenese, who, besides keeping the picture itself, enjoyed the pleasure of knowing their oppressors to be thus notably deceived. *Sketches of Italy*; Lond. 1820.

It remains to say something of those pictures that are neither originals nor copies, which the Italians call *pasticci*, from *pasty*; because, as the several things which season a *pasty* are reduced to one taste, so counterfeiters that compose a *pasticci* tend only to effect one design. A painter that would deceive in this way ought to be well imbued with the manner and principles of the master of whom he would give an idea, whether he take any part of a picture which that master has made, and puts it in his own work, or whether the invention is his own, and he imitates only the *manner* of that particular master. It often happens that painters who thus propose to counterfeit another's manner, and aim at imitating such as are more skilful than themselves, really make better pictures of this kind than if they were to do something entirely of their own. Among those who took delight in counterfeiting the manner of other painters, we shall content ourselves with naming David Teniers, who has deceived, and ever will deceive, the curious, who are not aware of his dexterity in transforming himself into Bassano and Paolo Veronese. There are some of his *pasticci* made with so much art, that the most judicious are deceived by them at first sight; and it requires a very close inspection, and great judgment, to find out the trick that is played them.

QUALIFICATIONS OF A PAINTER.

The well-known aphorism of Hippocrates, that "Art is long, and life is short," applies to no peculiar art so well as to painting; since not only has no single man unaided been able to carry it to perfection, but, in the progressive accumulation of knowledge through the lapse of ages, succeeding ones benefiting by the experience and examples of the former, no man has yet arrived at that degree of excellence in the practice of it, which a perfect union of all its principles and qualities would produce.

The power of exercising this useful and delightful art has at all times been slow of acquirement, as the history we have given of its progress evidently shows. It has this diversity in its growth from that of poetry; which has shone with conspicuous lustre at very early periods of human culture, whilst painting has never flourished but in gradual advance with the general improvement of mankind; and has been truly conspicuous only at those times when the arts of civilization have risen to their highest pitch of excellence in the countries where it has been practised.

In no art has the professor greater or more numerous difficulties to encounter than in painting; since he not only is under a necessity, equally imposing as is the historian or the poet, of obtaining accurate ideas of the events he records, or the scenes he displays; but he has also to invent and perfect himself in the medium, or language, in which he communicates his ideas; before he proceeds to the

the use of it. This medium is utterly out of the ordinary way of human culture; and, whatever may be the aids derived from the advantages we now possess, in having the experience of our predecessors as our guide, there must have been infinite difficulty in bringing it so near to perfection as the great masters have done; and it has been only effected by an extremely gradual progress, and the union of successive exertions operating in one continued line of action. Even now, with the works of preceding painters in our hands, the language of the art (the value and use of its materials) is necessarily, in a very great degree, new to every professor who attains any tolerable degree of eminence. And though it must, no doubt, appear very extraordinary to those who have never made the practice of painting their study, that, when such exemplars of art remain to us, men possessed of good sense should hesitate in producing the like; or that, when they are become capable of making copies, perfect almost to deception, they should not be also capable of employing the means they have acquired, in a systematic mode, in works of original invention;—yet the reverse, in many instances, is a fact of universal notoriety; and proves incontrovertibly, that the art of painting, particularly when employed upon original matter, is more dependant upon mental exertion than manual dexterity in its execution, as well as in its object and effect; and well worthy of the rank assigned it by the Greeks among those arts which they denominated liberal.

Notwithstanding the high degree of perfection to which this art has been carried, no scientific or complete systematic arrangement has yet been adopted for the perfect guidance of the painter; nor does it appear probable that any one ever can be formed, that will effectually apply to the practice of an art which is capable of such an infinite diversity of character and effect. A man of enlarged mind, carefully consulting the pictures of preceding artists, cannot avoid acquiring information which may assist him in his labour; and it is by this means, more than by regular systematic instruction, that painters have arrived at eminence. Thus, then, as in other arts and sciences, something is ready done to the hands of the painter: he builds upon a foundation laid by his predecessors; but the benefit is derived principally from seeing what may be done, rather than in being informed how to do it. He has yet to discover what colours or materials will most effectively combine to attain his end, even in copying pictures; and, when he ventures to attempt the imitation of nature, to trace her varieties and intricacies through the numberless paths of light and shade, and colour, and in all the diversities of view in which objects present themselves, then the whole value of the information obtained by the study of the works of former masters in the practical part of the art, falls still lower in the scale of utility, from the extreme difficulty of applying it. Perhaps there cannot be a greater proof of the originality of thought required in the practice of this art, than the great diversity of the works produced in competition with old pictures, by those who have at different periods admired and studied them enthusiastically. No man of genius, or good sense, will, however, slight the advantages which the study of them may afford him. He may not, at first, obtain the full and actual information he seeks; but the attempt will lead him in a right way to the discovery of the true principles of art; and time may be saved for their application, which, without such helps, must have been lost in experiment.

No vulgar or uninformed man, no one who has not taken pains to cultivate and improve his mental faculties, can be a painter, in the exalted sense in which we view it. Whatever is requisite for the poet or the historian, in cultivation and information, ought not to be disregarded by the painter, whose desire is to exercise his art in an honourable or useful manner, as the great masters among the ancient Greeks, and in the more modern Italian schools, have done. If it be not required of him to be-

come as learned in natural philosophy as Newton, he ought not to be unacquainted with its principles; his business is not merely with the surface of things, if he wishes to represent their appearances in a sensible and characteristic manner. A knowledge in the sciences, sufficient to inform him of the principles which direct and govern the actions of animals, and cause the various appearances of natural unanimated objects, cannot or ought not to be uninteresting to him whose whole life is employed in contemplating and representing their forms or their effects. If he knows the natural structure of an animal, its modes and habits of life and action, he at once, and without hesitation, directs his attention to the parts most materially necessary to its delineation; and does not lose his time, as an ignorant person would do, in representing those parts which, though they may, from accidental causes, strike the eye, yet are, in effect, prejudicial to true character; and, if marked too strongly, even with the hand of ability, counteract the effect of those more efficient in general representation, which always ought to be the sole object of him who wishes to be a great painter. In the representation of objects of unanimated nature, a just comprehension of their causes and effects will in great measure operate in the same way. We do not mean to say, that if a man happens, for example, to know the cause of a rainbow, or can form a pleasing theory upon it, he will therefore be able to select and blend, in a proper manner, the colouring substances necessary to paint one with truth and taste: we have already said that this is a matter utterly unconnected with all other species of information; but, if he add to his technical and practical acquirements the scientific one alluded to, he will most undoubtedly set about the task with less confusion of mind than the most ingenious among those who are ignorant of it.

To this knowledge of the principles of nature, an unremitting attention to her productions is absolutely required of the painter. To him whose mind is devoted to the art, no scene can be vacant or uninteresting; every place affords him matter of observation and investigation. All appearances of natural objects, from the simplest to the most awful; all the actions of man, the varied expressions of his countenance when under the influence of his passions; the characters of health, of age, of beauty, and even deformity, are entitled to his regard, indeed demand his closest enquiry into their most characteristic lines and effects. All the varieties of country, the peculiar forms of animals, trees, rocks, &c. ought necessarily to be known to him; in fact, there is no object the observation of which may not, either immediately or collaterally, be useful to him. The trouble which attends this constant application of the mind, is in the end most highly rewarded. His sphere of vision is enlarged, almost to the creation of another sense, unknown to those who are uninitiated in the art, which finds continual nourishment in scenes even of apparent dulness and insipidity: imagination is strengthened by it, as the power of creating new images increases in proportion to the store of ideas he acquires; and the power of invention or combination, with whatsoever degree nature may have blessed him, is rendered so much the more effective, as he is careful and active in observation; whereas it would be utterly useless, or worse, if not thus supplied by a well-digested mass of materials, raised by continual study of nature; particularly of the beautiful, the grand, the interesting, and the characteristic.

This union of general knowledge with practical ability, may be regarded as the material, or the body, of the art, the servant of its more exalted and spiritual essence, the power of invention and expression, by which alone the charm of the art is acquired and imparted. In vain may the most skilful operator combine his colours, and arrange his lines; or the most scientific composer determine his groups, and perfect his forms, in exact imitation of nature; if a vivid and correct invention, amply supplied with

with the stores of nature and of art, has not formed the basis of the work; and if an enthusiastic feeling of expression does not pervade every part, and add, with its glowing energy, the true and forcible impression of life, of motive, and of motion.

The best mode of acquiring the practical part of painting, is certainly, in the first instance, to copy the works of good painters, under the guidance of an able instructor. Slight, however, in comparison with the object, is all that tuition can afford in this matter. The arrangement of the pallet, the preparation of colours, the general principles of their union or opposition, and consequently the order of their most agreeable arrangements and most powerful effects, together with the best or readiest mode of exercising the implements of the art, may of course be communicated and learnt. The mind may be directed to seek for refinement in taste of form and colour, and to select and combine them; but will be taught in vain, unless nature has implanted the seeds of discrimination, of judgment, and of taste, itself. And, even if somewhat of this should be imbibed, vain is every effort to impart imagination, invention, or the feeling of expression: these are qualities, improvable, when possessed, by exercise and study; but not to be created by the power of man. To those who, possessing them, feel the inclination to study the art of painting, we would say, The true mode of learning to rival the successful efforts of the great masters, is not by copying servilely the surfaces of their works; but, when the power of execution is in part obtained, endeavour, while copying, to search into the principles by which compositions are arranged, and upon which their execution is effected; what are the peculiar features of colour, or of handling, that give the character of grace and taste expressed in them; and what peculiar traits of imagination most beautifully and most justly develop their subjects. In investigating pictures with views dictated by such desires, it will frequently be found, that what appears to superficial observers mere freaks of fancy, mere recreation or indulgence of the pencil, is the result of the most deeply inventive faculty, and admitted, not for pleasure only, but for the most important purposes. Such, to instance in a work open every season to the inspection of artists by the liberality of the marquis of Stafford, is the little vase in the middle of Titian's picture of the Bath of Diana. To the common observer it presents, as intended, a proper accompaniment to the toilet of the goddess, perhaps a vessel containing perfume, no matter whether disposed of here or there, provided it were introduced; yet more an ornament than a necessary adjunct in the composition: in the eyes of the artist, it is beheld as an instrument of inestimable value, in preserving the brilliancy and richness of flesh in full yet just character, by its own superior power of reflection; and producing a brilliant focus to the light of the picture, without attracting the eye too powerfully to itself; not to speak of its interrupting, by its beautiful form, the too great regularity of the mass of stone-work on which it stands.

It should never be forgotten, that there is no mode of obtaining excellence in painting but by a regular and steady pursuit. Let the original foundation of genius and talent be as good as it may, nothing short of persevering industry can raise the superstructure. "There is no royal road to geometry," said an Egyptian philosopher to his sovereign. "I know of no easy way to become a good painter," was the frequent remark of sir Joshua Reynolds to his pupils. There is indeed no short cut whereby the painter may arrive at the end of his course, and escape the labours of study and exercise; and of this the practice of the very greatest artists are satisfactory proofs. Apelles, it is said, never allowed a day to pass without exercising his art in a greater or less degree. The industrious exertions of the most able of the Italian artists are on record; and our own great example, sir Joshua Reynolds, is a host in himself: the immense quantity of

his works amply testifying his industry, as well as his attachment to the art. Indeed, without that entire devotedness which supercedes, though it does not exclude, all attention to other objects, it is impossible to obtain that facility of hand, or intelligence of mind, which resorts to the proper sources for a supply of materials to fill the canvas, to improve or embellish a composition, to supply deficiencies or correct defects, by a prompt and happy recollection of the most appropriate objects in form or colour.

The power of *execution* in painting being secured, the next step is to *invent* compositions, and execute the parts from nature; combining them with the principles of the art. Then comes the proof, whether the student has felt in his previous studies like an artist, or only as a man possessing no higher qualifications, than those with which his fellow-mortals in general are endowed.

When we consider the general extent of the gratification and information afforded by painting, it is extraordinary that a due attention to its principles is not yet admitted as a portion of polite education; since the knowledge of them so evidently increases the pleasure the art is capable of producing: the more particularly when, among the higher classes of mankind, it forms so very constant and material a source of their delights, and is so constantly also a subject of discussion, although arising from, and pretty generally decided by, sensation, rather than reason; and necessarily so indeed! "What can we reason, but from what we know?" Pope has justly said; and how can they decide with reason upon the merits of a work, who are ignorant of the principles upon which it is constructed? Yet so much of it is felt to be desirable, that every gentleman and lady conceives it necessary to learn to draw, regarding the art as worthy of a partial devotion of time; but this is generally effected in so inferior a degree, as to leave the polished learner utterly uninformed of its higher claims, its worthier objects, and its real utility.

To be truly a connoisseur or a judge of the qualities of painting when exercised in its highest style, requires, notwithstanding the impertinent slippancy of thousands of pretenders, a peculiar cultivation of mind; quite as much so as any other art or science requires an initiation into its principles, to be a judge of its effects. Our art, however, appealing to the sense of sight more than to reason, and producing its effects from the representation of well-known objects, has a great advantage over others, in that its end is more easily comprehended, although the principles which govern its practice are not less abstruse and difficult of application. Most men, therefore, of good mental capacities, are capable of understanding and feeling the grand and general points; such as of colour, whether it be like that of natural objects under peculiar circumstances; of expression; and if the story be fully and clearly exhibited; and of the general effect of the *chiaro-scuro*, whether it present an agreeable surface to the eye, &c. but of the subtleties of arrangement and execution, whereby difficulties arising from the nature and disunion of the materials and parts are overcome; of the delicate hues, which are covertly introduced to produce harmony; and of the art which attaches light to light, and dark to dark; to produce masses, without violating the principles of nature; of these things, hidden as they are in the mystery of the art, none but an artist can well judge.

This valuable art has, in the course of the world, been generally regarded as worthy of the greatest honours, and its eminent professors of a proportional share of estimation and rewards. Some of the greatest among men have, at different periods, upheld this opinion of its excellence, as its history testifies; but Pericles, at the head of the Athenian republic, was the first who duly estimated its value as a national political instrument; and encouraging it, in conjunction with sculpture and architecture, laid, in part, the basis of the long-continued fame of the city.

He satisfied the people, who murmured at the expense he indulged in in the public works, that, by advancing the interests of the arts, he was promoting their own glory. The love of fame was the first object of the Greeks, and their leaders therefore very wisely employed every means to maintain so useful a spirit. In compliance with this, Panæus and Polygnotus were employed by Pericles to adorn the public buildings with paintings, the subjects of which were the heroic actions of the most renowned among their countrymen; thus perpetuating a record of those deeds which excited to emulation, which, appealing to the natural and instinctive pride of man in a becoming manner, necessarily leads, wherever it is strongly felt, to great and useful conduct. There is no denying that painting is peculiarly adapted to this species of excitement, its effect being full and instantaneous; as the impression made upon the mind by witnessing the exhibition of a scene of heroism, of distress, or of delight, is greater than any which can arise from a detail of it in description. The interest in the relation is the weaker, as impression succeeds to impression; whereas in the fact, or the representation of it, the whole rushes upon the sight at once.

It is scarcely credible that, in direct opposition to this sentiment of the Greeks, any one should assert, in this enlightened period, that no inculcation of moral or religious truth can be effected by painting; the more so, when the works of Hogarth, the most instructive of painters, are in our hands, and no one who ever thinks of art at all can plead ignorance of them. An assertion to that effect has, however, been made by a very learned and ingenious author, in a critique on the *Life and Works of J. Barry, Esq.* (see *Edinb. Review*, Aug. 1810.) and he has gone the length of saying, "that, as to conveying moral, religious, or political, instruction in pictures, it is the most absurd of all absurd notions." If the ingenious gentleman means, by the word *instruction*, that kind only which properly belongs to painting, and to which, when speaking of the art, he ought to confine himself, viz. that sudden and unavoidable impression of truth, which most men, not utterly destitute of sense, receive upon the first sight of a well-regulated moral or poetical composition; more particularly such as, being drawn from common nature, applies common objects to its purpose; surely every day's experience is against him. We would appeal to himself, if he has never received the impression of disgust at pride; abhorrence of avarice and of sensuality; disdain of vanity and idle waste of time, a prudential hint of the folly of extravagance, and of trusting to gay dissipation for the enjoyment of happiness; from the series of pictures called *The Marriage-a-la-Mode* by Hogarth. What moral lectures in rhetoric would, or could, more completely illustrate, in a more universally-intelligible manner, the fatal effects of vice, or the beneficial ones attendant upon virtue, than that ingenious painter has done in this and others of his productions; as the *Industrious and Idle Apprentices*, the *Rake's* and the *Harlot's Progress*, &c. and yet, with these designs in his hand, has he risked so unjust and ungenerous a sentiment as his assertion conveys. Ungenerous, because, if true, it can be productive of no good to extend such an opinion, and it tends to diminish the regard which painting has deservedly received from the world, wherever its highest powers have been engaged; and unjust, because it is contrary to the acknowledgment of ages, and is upheld by no reasoning at all applicable to the case.

The appeal of the pencil is not so much to the understanding as to the heart and mind; by that the first excitement is produced, and thence necessarily follow reflections, attached to the nature of the images presented to the eye. Do we not fearfully acknowledge its power to corrupt young minds, and take constant care to keep improper drawings from their view? What mode of information does it pursue in this case, but that of presenting images of agreeable vices in an engaging manner? And is it allowed to be so sufficiently potent for the produc-

tion of evil, that all our care is requisite to counteract or prevent its influence in that respect; and shall it be denied any influence in the promotion of good! Forbid it reason, sense, and justice! If the objection to its utility be just, how shall we estimate the wisdom of those whom the learned author alluded to sufficiently honours on other occasions; of those who employed sculpture and painting as political and religious agents, to stimulate the ardent minds of the Greeks to heroism or devotion. The opinions of almost all ancient authors who have noticed it, are most decidedly in favour of the utility of the pencil; and those of the wisest politicians among the moderns have been amply illustrated by the use they have made of its powers.

The STUDENT in his PAINTING ROOM.

We do not intend to give a minute description of the instruments and tools generally used by painters; but will just observe, that oil-painting may be executed on primed canvas, prepared pannel, copper, or any other smooth substance. The canvas is sold at the oil and colour shops in London, many of which keep canvas and colours, with tools, ready prepared for artists. The canvas is either sold at so much a yard, or strained on a frame of deal wood of a certain size. The common sizes are 9 inches by 10, 10 by 12, and 17 by 21. Then three-quarters, kit-cat, half-length, and whole-length, for portraits.

Pannels of all sorts of wood may be used in oil-painting; but mahogany, wainscot, beech, and deal, should never be made use of unless they are well seasoned and dry. Old coach-pannels are preferable to any, and prove most useful, cheap, and pleasant to the brush of the young artist. They are easily procured at the coach-makers.

The old painters, chiefly in Flanders and Holland, where the high-finish style was so much in vogue, made use of plates of copper. The metal, by its smoothness and steadiness, meets pleasingly the point of the brush; and, if you think proper to smooth down the ridges of your painting, you may more easily do it on this substance than upon any other. We are told that rotten-stone, cuttle-fish, and pumice-stone, were often used for this purpose; and that it is to this simple process that we owe the astonishing smoothness of the works of Vanderwerf, Mieris, Gerard Dow, &c.

Having chosen the substance you intend to paint upon, you must set it steady and safe on an *easel*. This machine you will be provided with it at the colour-shops.

The next part of the indispensable apparatus, is the *pallet*, which is a flat piece of wood, with a hole to receive the thumb that holds it, on the fore-arm. The resting-stick, which is held in the left hand, is a proper fulcrum for the right, when employed. The brushes are what is generally called small or fine tools, and made of bristles; the camel's-hair and fable pencils are used for the minutest parts of the piece.

Now that the young artist is armed, and ready to proceed to business, we must advise him to delineate carefully on the canvas, pannel, &c. what he intends to paint, with a colour that contrasts with the ground of the pannel or canvas.

The most celebrated of ancient painters, chiefly those whose landscapes are still admired for their clearness and glow, did always paint their ground of a reddish colour, composed of red ochre and a little umber.

Disposition of the Colours on the Pallet.—To begin from the thumb of the hand that holds the pallet: flake white; Naples-yellow; yellow ochre; unburnt terra di Sienna; burnt ditto; vermilion; light-red; Indian-red; lake; Antwerp blue; Prussian blue; Vandyke-brown; Bolonian earth; blue-black; ivory-black. You may also make use of many other colours, but they will be only required on particular occasions; of which the young artist ought to judge for himself, and use his own discretion.

Composition of Tints to colour a Face.—The best tint to sketch-out is made of a little ivory-black and Indian-red.

red. This is reckoned by the moderns, and seems to have been adopted by the ancients, as the best general shadow-tint. The best tint for human flesh is composed of red ochre and white: it works pleasantly, and ought to be compared with the complexion of the person whom you are going to paint. A celebrated painter at Paris used to lay-on a coat of Naples-yellow and white as a ground before he began to paint a female face, persuaded that it was a process generally adopted by Corregio and Guido.

Local Colours or Tints.—1. Light-red tint. Ochre and white, with a little vermilion, as occasion may require.

2. Vermilion tint. Vermilion and white.

3. Carmine tint, generally used in finishing the cheeks and lips. Carmine and white.

4. Rose tint. Red shade (see N^o 10.) and white mixed to a middle tint.

5. Yellow tint. Yellow Naples or light ochre and white. It follows the lighter tints, and ought to be laid before the blues.

6. Blue tint. Ultramarine and white. It follows the yellows, and with them makes that beautiful greenish hue which a discerning eye finds in the colouring of the best masters; mixing with the red tints, it produces the tender, purple, reflected, shadows.

7. A lead-tint is made of ivory-black and white, mixed to a middle degree: it is a retiring colour; and is used in the gradations and in the eyes.

8. Green tint. Prussian blue, light ochre, and white, are used in the red shadows when they are too strong. We often meet with that tint in the works of the Venetian school, as well as in the paintings of the best Dutch and Flemish artists.

9. A general ground for shadows is made of Indian red, lake, and black, brought, by mixing flake-white, to a murrey colour of a middle tint. It is a pleasant clean colour, a little inclined to reddish pearl.

10. Red shade; composed of lake and a little Indian-red.

11. The warm shade is made of lake and brown pink, to strengthen the shade-tint (N^o 9.) *Asphaltum* and lake answer the same purpose.

12. Dark shade. Ivory-black and a little Indian-red. A proper glazing for the eye-brows and dark shadows. It works delightfully.

The brown and black ought to be worked with drying oil; and, if you wish to have it sooner ready to paint over and finish, grind with your knife on the pallet a little saccharum saturni, with the least quantity possible of white-lead. You must observe, that, when you use turpentine with your colours, you must mix more dryers with them, except with the whites.

The brown colours, worked with drying oil, are very apt to run, which would spoil the delicacy of your touches, and muddle all the tints. To avoid this, you may employ what is called *megellip*. The etymology of this word is not known; but I shall give my opinion upon it. It is made of about half and half of good drying-oil and mastic-varnish, beat up in a small pot kept for that purpose: it is curious to see these two fluid substances make a body which has the solidity of a *jelly*; therefore, as it is made ready before you begin to paint, I suppose it was called originally *made jelly*, and by corruption *megellip*.

Detached Observations, of Importance to the young Artist.

1. The best heads, which time has spared from the wreck of ancient sculpture, are Niobe and her daughter, Ariadne, Nero when young, Silence, and the Nile.

2. In the whole body, the colouring ought to follow the same system. The colour of the hair should be a rule to decide the tone of that tint which, like the key-note in music, ought to pervade all the masses either of light or shade. As we perceive a very material difference between the complexion of a fair and a black haired person,

it is the same in a landscape, where all objects, and their shadows and light, ought to partake more or less of the warmth of the skies. The works of Claude Lorraine and Gaspar Poussin, of Horizonti and Zuccharelli, ought to be studied attentively for this last kind of painting, and those of Titian and Vandyke for the former.

3. Transitions from light to shade are beautifully expressed by Ovid, in the sixth book of his *Metamorphoses*, and will please the young artist, who ought to be aware that the study of the poets and other writers of antiquity is of great use to direct the mind, warm the fancy, and purify the taste, of a painter:

In quo diversimode niteant cum mille colores

Transitus ipse tamen spectantia lumine fallit,
Usque adeo quod tangit idem est, tamen ultima distant.

4. The study of the *antique* is next to the study of nature; and indeed the great men, known by the denomination of *the ancients*, had studied her so closely, and with so much discernment and taste, that, seen through their works, she seems to have improved herself.

5. Polycletus made a statue, which the artists of his time used to call *the rule*, and which they copied as the best specimen of proportions. Pliny says that "he had established the certainty of the art by the art itself;" *artem ipse fuisse artis opera judicatur*.

6. In some painters dark colours predominate, as in Caravaggio, Spagnoletto, Manfredi, Valentino, and sometimes Guercino and Salvator Rosa; in some a paleness, as in Vouet and Nicolo Poussin; the purple, in Bassano and Lingelback; and grey, in Teniers. This last tint seems to have originated in the works of Teniers from the Haerlem or Antwerp blue he freely used. We have to lament that those beautiful masterpieces which came from the hand of sir Joshua Reynolds have already lost their freshness and beauty of colouring; the paintings of that original genius, George Morland, are also losing every day the vanishing sweetness of their magic tints.

7. The young artist, who by dint of application to the art, and careful study of the best examples, is at the point of producing something worthy of himself, and honourable to his country, should endeavour to select those pigments which are likely to stand for ages. Too often does the painter labour for the pressing necessities of the moment, heedless of lasting fame: but the encouragement and powerful protection which the arts in general, and this especially, receive from the wealthy class of society, will enable him to have a greater meed in view than a pecuniary and momentaneous reward; therefore he ought to avoid, as much as possible, those pleasing glazings produced by lakes and pinks, which evaporate so quickly; the mineral pigments, well managed, are able to supply the place of the vegetable ones, and secure to the artist a more lasting reputation. Burnt terra di Sienna, well chosen and well ground, mixed with a little blue, will answer the purpose of brown pink; and unburnt Sienna, of the same nature, has a transparency nearly equal to Dutch pink and yellow lake. *Asphaltum* has been much in vogue of late years on the English pallet, and *mummy* had also a long run in France; but their use is very precarious, as they give a dingy tint, unless they are constantly employed by themselves. However, it is a very good colour in glazing, and produces in the shadows a depth seldom to be equalled by any other process.

8. It is with sorrow that we are obliged repeatedly to confess, that our modern performances do not keep their brightness as ancient pictures have done to this moment. To what is this change to be attributed? Some good judges are of opinion, that our oil is not so pure, or that we use it too freely; they add, that we are too impatient, and that the addition of dryers alters the colours. It is certain that the old masters used as little oil as possible, working their pigments with spirit of turpentine, and never admitting the help of saccharum saturni or drying-

oil

oil but when they painted pieces on which they built no part of their fame.

9. Let the student place his easel in such a way as to make the light pass over his head; one single light, of course, is necessary to paint by. Some artists, in their hurry of business, have painted small subjects by candle-light, and with great effect; but this supposes in them a great knowledge of the power of their pigments, as it is evident that all yellows lose a great deal of their intensity when seen by artificial light.

10. The question, whether it is better to paint with few or with many colours, has been long agitated, but has never been decided; every artist following and indulging, in this as in many other points of the art, his own ideas and fancy. As it is placed beyond doubt that *there are but three elemental colours in nature*, the mixture and composition of which produce those innumerable tints which delight the sight of man, and constitute the beauty of the universe, it seems natural to think that three pigments, yielding these three colours, viz. red, yellow, and blue, would be sufficient to transport from the pallet to the canvas all hues imaginable; white, however, being the result of these three colours mixed, and the black the absence of light, ought to be represented by pigments particular to themselves. According to this principle, no more than five pigments are required to paint any subject; this is true in theory; but, when we sit down to practise, we find that our colours, *as they are*, soon become very insufficient. We have no true red nor true yellow; the blue is the best; as the colour called Prussian blue approaches nearer to perfection, uniting the two most essential qualities, depth and transparency. Carmine and lake partake of these qualities, it is true; but their red implies blue, and therefore is not a perfect red. Vermilion blazes with great brightness, but inclines to yellow, and has no transparency. Terra di Sienna, well chosen, well ground, and unburnt, offers a good yellow, but not unmixed with red; and yellow ochre, so useful in local tints, a colour that works so pleasantly, and has so strong a body, wants both transparency and depth. After these observations, which might be exemplified to a great length, but are sufficient to make the student understand easily and perfectly the point we argue upon, it appears clear, that we must have recourse to other earths and minerals, or other preparations, to arrive at the several tints which nature offers to our ingenuity as models to copy after. There is, for instance, in *burnt sienna*, a certain kind of yellow and of red, which, if they could be separated and worked by themselves, would be of great use; but they are so united in the natural state, that man's industry is unable to part them; yet we may imitate their hue, by mixing a little lake with raw or unburnt sienna. But, what will be the result? In a few years the lake will lose half of its intensity, while, on the contrary, the sienna earth will keep steady, if not increase in strength, and then produce a discord where you had brought-in harmony. We may say the same of *Cologne earth*, of *Indian-red*, and, in fact, of all compound colours, whose genuine complex tints may be imitated by the union of two pigments. The reason of this we conceive to be that, in the first instance, viz. in burnt sienna the red and yellow are homogeneous elements of that kind of earth, both endowed with the same strength; whereas, in the latter case, *raw sienna* and *lake* are two heterogeneous principles, of unequal vigour and different tendency.

11. The room in which your easel stands, and supports the canvas ready to receive your thoughts embodied by the help of pigments; in one word, your *painting-room*, ought to be pervious to one ray of light only, that is, to have only one window; or else you will lose yourself in a maze of half-lights and half-shadows, out of which you will never be able to extricate your pencil. Louis the XIVth of France (who understood much better the art of war than the art of painting), having determined to fit

for his portrait to M. le Brun, one of the best artists of his realms, commanded his attendance in a well-known apartment of Versailles called *L'œil de Bœuf*, the Bull's Eye, a room surrounded with windows. The painter felt uneasy, but the awe excited by his sovereign forced him for some time to an involuntary silence: he sketched and rubbed out, drew again, and wiped off what he had done; till the king asked him what could be the cause of his uneasiness. The polite artist, in the true French style, answered, "The rays of glory which play around the head of your majesty are too strong for mortal sight; therefore I shall humbly crave the honour of painting my sovereign in a darker room." The king understood him; and ordered the easel to be removed to a single-windowed apartment.

OF THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF PAINTING.

As all the objects in nature are susceptible of imitation by the pencil, the masters of this art have applied themselves to different subjects, each one as his talents, his taste, or inclination, may have led him. From whence have arisen very minute divisions: the Encyclopædia Britannica enumerates no fewer than eighteen different classes of painting. The principal branches of the art are, however, History, Portrait, and Landscape. What has been said throughout the course of this article applies chiefly to the most important branch, history-painting; it remains therefore to insert some rules and observations upon the two other branches: and we shall then conclude with some remarks upon what may be called the *trade* of painting; namely Economical or House Painting.

It is of great importance that an artist should consult his own genius and ability before he engages in a particular line of art:

HISTORICAL PAINTING.	'Ere on the waiting ground his ready hand
	Sketches new forms, and bids his groups to stand;
	First let the painter pause, reflect, and find
	What subjects best may suit his pregnant mind.
	For various subjects various talents claim;
	And lofty souls at lofty laurels aim,
	While modest merit courts an humbler fame.
	Of <i>History</i> some boldly search the store;
	And dip their pencils in the reeking gore
	Of hard-contending hosts. The bloody fight,
LANDSCAPE.	And towns in flames, become their sole delight.
	They show the pallid virgin, struck with fear,
	And mothers weeping on their children's bier.
	Whilst others, fond of calm and rural schemes,
	Will seek the shades, and trace the winding streams;
	Place on their banks the shepherds and the flocks,
	And goats that seem to hang from shelving rocks.
	There Dryads meet with Satyrs in the dance;
	Here Phyllis treads with wonted elegance;
	And from the neighb'ring market brings with ease
PORTRAIT.	The lighter baskets of her barter'd cheese.
	Prometheus-like, fraught with celestial ray,
	Our dearer friends from nature these pourtray,
	And on the lasting canvas bid them live.
	A mother's face to orphans they revive;
	Or to the widow's mind, by magic art,
	Retrace the faithful partner of her heart,
	Whom death has doom'd to rest in calm repose:
	And thus, by fictitious joys, soothe real woes.
	Fresco.
Or porticoes, with rapid pencil roams;	
And boldly sweeps his giant figures o'er	
A work immense! Here swells the distant shore,	
With bright'ning rocks, beneath the azure sky.	
Here palaces allure the wond'ring eye	
In perspective; and, whilst our minds admire,	
Deceive the sight, and gradually retire.	

Others

MINIATURE. Others will choose, their talents to display,
A smaller field; and their inventions lay
On skin prepar'd, on vellum fine and smooth,
Or on thin plates of elephantine tooth;
Reduce all figures to a dwarfish size,
And bid, within a ring, abridged worlds arise!

OF PORTRAIT-PAINTING.

If painting be an imitation of nature, it is doubly so in a portrait; which not only represents a man in general, but such a one as may be distinguished from all others.

If any thing can be definitely ascertained concerning the significance of features, and the expression of the physiognomy, it must be effected by the diligent comparison of faces of which the history is accessible, and the character can be investigated; and, if a standard of beauty, binding on all nations, can ever be obtained, it must be accomplished through the selection of those traits from individual nature which indicate compatible excellences. Conscious that histories of the invisible are like biographies of the anonymous, Suetonius is careful to sketch in words the figure of every eminent emperor: but how weak a substitute is language for the pencil! when a correct personal idea is wanted of the active who are at a distance, or of the celebrated who are no more, it is only the portrait-painter who can overcome the impediments of space and time, and give ubiquity to the living, or immortality to the dead.

The connection between biography and portrait-painting is intimate indeed; "for as, in contemplating the portrait of an eminent person, we long to be instructed in his history, so, in reading of his actions, we long to behold his countenance."

The impression of a striking portrait or statue is great and lasting, and rivals that of the person whom it represents. When Antipater was accused of extortion, his young son Cassander was sent before Alexander to attempt the father's defence: but the king, frowning on the youth, exclaimed, "You shall pay for this, if what the people say be true." Twenty years afterward, Cassander went to visit Delphi, where stood a statue of Alexander; the sight of which so powerfully renewed the remembrance of this mortification, that he was seized with a violent trembling, and could not for a long time resume his self-command.

Most of the renowned painters, both of ancient and modern times, have blended the peculiar practice of portraiture with their other studies; and some have devoted their time to it as a principal object of attention. Among those whose talents assiduously to embalm the memory of ancient Greece, by the cultivation of this delightful art, the names of Panæus, Polygnotus, Apelles, Aristides, and some few others, have escaped oblivion: but, unfortunately, we enjoy only their renown; and must be content to form a judgment of their merits through the feelings and language of others. By the authors who mention their works, we are led to believe that they carried portraiture to the utmost degree of perfection; particularly Apelles, in honour of whose transcendent abilities the whole vocabulary of eulogium has been exhausted.

On the revival of the art of painting in the thirteenth century, portraiture soon became an object of attention, since we find that Giotto, who died in 1336, practised it with very considerable success; and to him we are indebted for the portraits of many of the most conspicuous characters of his time. His historical pictures, as well as those of Masaccio, and all the older artists, are full of figures which bear every appearance of portraits, and some are known to be such. Most probably they painted from those heads of their friends which suited the character they wished to introduce; and certainly that is a means of obtaining a greater degree of natural expression than mere fancy can supply. Raphael, in his greatest work, the labours of the Vatican, employed the same

means. Engaged by Julius II. and Leo X. to adorn the pontifical palace by the exercise of his extraordinary talents, and to celebrate the principles and triumphs of the Christian church, he did not lose sight of the renown due to such munificent patrons; and, by introducing their portraits in the series of pictures he there painted, secured to them a portion of his own immortal fame. Many portraits of the cardinals and nobility of Rome, who were either immediate friends of the artist or promoters of the work, were also admitted; but it must be acknowledged, that the anachronisms created by it are frequently offensive to the judgment, since it is scarcely possible to separate the ideas associated with the figure of one man whose history we are acquainted with, and imagine it to be the image of another of prior date, and character totally distinct. When portraiture is attached to an historical subject, and the real actors of the scene are introduced, it then adds a tenfold interest to the work.

It was not in historical pictures alone that Raphael practised portraiture; he has also left us several superior examples of portraits specifically such, of which those of Leo X. and of Julius II. in the gallery of the Louvre, demand the warmest praise for their individuality, dignity, and character. His works of this kind, however, were but few, compared with those of his great contemporary Titian, who is generally regarded as the father and head of this peculiar branch of the art, having executed it with a greater mixture of truth, simplicity, and grandeur, than any other. Giorgione died so young, that his productions in portraiture are necessarily few; but some of those are exquisitely beautiful; witness the small picture he painted of Gaston de Foix, and a servant putting on his armour; formerly in the Orleans gallery, but now in possession of the earl of Carlisle.

Leonardo da Vinci, Sebastian del Piombo, and most of those who obtained celebrity at the period when the art of painting flourished in Italy, attended to portraiture, and there are very few of whom some examples do not remain; but the number of those who attached themselves to it entirely was small. In Spain, Velasquez attained a degree of perfection nearly rivaling Titian; but we have very few of his works in England: more rich in the labours of Vandyke, we are better enabled to appreciate his powerful taste and talents, and may well boast of the treasures we possess, wrought by his inestimable skill. Next to him, Holbein, Janfen, More, Lely, and Kneller, are the names of those most estimable for their portraits, among the number of artists with which this country has abounded from the days of the former, till the sun of our pictorial hemisphere arose in Reynolds, the father of British art; of whom it may be doubted whether the art he displayed, in uniting taste and truth with style and effect in portraiture, in a degree far surpassing any other painter, added to a just feeling of character, does not more than counterbalance acknowledged deficiencies in drawing, and sometimes in execution, and decidedly place him at the head of this branch of the art.

The following remarks on producing likenesses are extracted chiefly from a work by Sig. Rubeys, of the Academies of Painting at Bologna and Venice, but printed at Paris, in Italian and French, in 1809.

As the face is the focus of expression with respect to the whole body, so that part of the face which may be covered by an oval patch, including both eyes and reaching half way down the nose, is the focus of expression with regard to the whole face. If a friend, a servant, or any other inmate, be wrapped up in a domino, so as to hide all the countenance except this focus of expression, we should know him instantly, any-where, in unexpected circumstances; but, place a patch, a mask, or goggle-spectacles, over this focus of expression, and a slight change of dress will deceive us as to the person.

The Dutch painter Ten Kate, in the preface to his translation of our Richardson, observes, that the artist should always make his outline with the object at a great

distance; but that, at every step in the progress of his portrait, he should approach nearer and nearer to his model, so that all the details may in the first instance escape his attention, and afterward attract it in the order of their conspicuousness. This rule, of which so many Dutch painters avail themselves, and which is the grand cause of their portraits uniting the merit of distant and that of contiguous effect, has escaped most of our modern portrait-painters, because their attention is principally occupied with the drawing of the figure.

Sig. Rubeys justly remarks, that improbable lights, *accidens de lumiere*, should always be avoided: they excite, by association, the idea that something extraordinary is about to be undertaken or undergone by the personage; an idea which excites the mind to conjecture, and which banishes the supposition of repose, so essential to a form of which the expression is tranquil. *Catching lights*, as our artists call them, are too common in English portraits. M. Rubeys is particularly averse to lights from above, which excite the idea of imprisonment in a dungeon, and darken the expressive concavity of the orbit of the eye. He prefers a level, or gently-slanting, light; a front or gentle side-light; a full to a faint, a diffuse to a concentrated, light. In this opinion he has Titian's sanction, who had no objection to paint in the open air, and who imitated without caricature the shadowings of nature. Rembrandt carried to excess the opposite method of representation.

Models commonly assume, during the slow process of delineation, an expression of *ennui* which painters rightly endeavour to avoid in the drawing; yet the attempt at a counter-expression, as of intense thought if the model be grave, or of hilarity if the model be gay, may not always be hazarded without the introduction of some appropriate and emblematic object. The scholar may be painted with his book, the soldier with his weapon, the voluptuary with his wine, or with the portrait of his mistress; but repose is the natural, and ought usually to be the prevailing, character of the portrait; and accidental expression, whenever it does not indicate the leading feature of the character, should be avoided. Great portrait-painters, such as Raphael and Titian, have occasionally bestowed much labour on the dress and the accompaniments: but these minutiae ought never to indicate a period of time, or a line of rank, in which the dress and appendages could not occur. In general, the method of Vandyke, who singles out for attention the physiognomy, and throws into obscurity the distracting but explanatory language of the paraphernalia, is most advisable. The French painter Rigaud erred in the opposite direction, and studiously rendered his draperies and appendages picturesquely but ostentatiously, attractively but glaringly, conspicuous.

The portrait-painter ought also to accommodate his pallet to the complexion of his model. A fair person requires, in the sketch as well as in the finishing, colours different from a dark-haired one; and, if the young artist does not at once mix a tint which ought to be the keynote of the whole performance, he is sure to wander in perplexing mazes, and will never produce any thing pleasing to himself or to others. Some painters have taken a different way to come to the same point: the author of these familiar observations remembers to have seen a foreigner of great note in the art of painting, cover the outlines of a face with patches of colours according to the tint which they were to produce in appearing through the colours used afterwards. The forehead was painted white, the temple blue, the cheeks and mouth with pure vermilion, the shadow of the neck brown, and the breast was divided into several pieces, according to its position and shape. He was astonished at this proceeding, but could not help admiring the result. The artist pretended to have inherited this manner of colouring from the first masters in Italy, Corregio, Guido, Guercino, and most of those whose talents have immortalized the name of the

school of Bologna. Another painter of great merit used to lay a coat of Naples-yellow on the canvas where he intended to paint the face of a young woman, and obtained from this process a general tint in his dead-colouring, which tended considerably to produce harmony.

Portrait-painting, when justly considered and executed, is not, as may be imagined, a tame business of imitation, a mere laborious exactness in copying the precise form which is placed before the artist. Mere likeness is a matter produced, as we see every day, by the dullest of the dull; or by men who will copy to deception the turn of a hair, or the folds of drapery. But, while such artists make the features of exact form, they leave them void of animation, of just colour, or of any degree of sense or sentiment; in short, it is merely a picture stuck against a wall. Unless the mind and character can be infused into the likeness, you certainly have not a man before you, but a picture. If the first sketch could be taken while the party was engaged in some interesting action or conversation, and unconscious of what was doing, then we might expect to have something fit to remain *upon record*. Hogarth sketched many (indeed most) of his portraits in this manner; and, in other cases, he was well acquainted with the *character* of those he had to delineate. But it is not always, perhaps not often, that a portrait-painter enjoys the opportunity of knowing enough of his subject, or sees enough of him, to avail himself decidedly of his natural propensities. In many cases, on the very first introduction, a sitting takes place; and then the only means of studying the character is by making *unnoticed* observations on the general manner of carriage, or of expression, by prolonging discourse before the sitting, by making occasional interruptions, and by throwing objects of attention in the way, which may in some measure elicit an unconfined freedom of action. But it is only by doing this *unobservedly*, that actual character can be discovered. The instant a person is aware that he is noticed, farewell to nature: restraint immediately usurps dominion, and baffles the most quick and intuitive perception. It will happen, however, very frequently in this portrait-painting age and country, that those who, by the calls of affection or of vanity, become subjects for the painter, have "no character at all" to distinguish them from their fellow-mortals; and, in these cases, the painter is entirely at liberty to choose his own action, and indulge his fancy, according to the sex, the age, and quality, of his employer.

Then naturally arises the question, "Whether it is proper, in portraiture, to correct the defects of nature?" Likeness being the essence of portraiture, it would seem that we ought to imitate defects as well as beauties, since, by this means, the imitation will be the more complete. It would be even hard to prove the contrary, to one who would undertake the defence of this position. But ladies and gentlemen do not much approve of those painters who entertain such sentiments, and put them in practice. It is certain that some complaisance in this respect is due to them; and there is little doubt but their pictures may be made to resemble, without displeasing, them; for the effectual likeness is a just agreement of the parts that are painted with those of nature; so that we may be at no loss to know the air of the face, and the temper of the person, whose picture is before us. All deformities, therefore, when the air and temper may be discovered without them, ought to be either corrected or omitted in women's and young men's portraits. A nose somewhat awry may be helped, or a shrivelled neck or high shoulders adapted to a good air, without going from one extreme to another. But this must be done with great discretion: for, by endeavouring to correct nature too much, we insensibly fall into a method of giving a general air to all our portraits; just as, by confining ourselves too much to the defects and littleness of nature, we are in danger of falling into the low and tasteless manner.

But, in the faces of heroes and men of rank, distinguished either

either by dignities, virtues, or great qualities, we cannot be too exact, whether the parts be beautiful or not: for portraits of such persons are to be standing monuments to posterity; in which case, every thing in a picture is precious that is faithful.

OF LANDSCAPE AND ARCHITECTURE.

We are now come to that peculiar application of the art of painting, which represents extended views of whatever is attached to the surface of the earth; as mountains, rocks, woods, buildings, &c. It is also applied to views of the sea, particularly when any portion of the land is seen.

When our young painter has made a sufficient progress in those principal branches of his art, the designing, perspective, colouring, and drapery, of human figures, he should turn his thoughts to landscape and architecture: for, by studying them, he will render himself universal, and qualified to undertake any subject.

The great points which the artist ought to aim at who practises landscape-painting, are, to mark just proportion and true perspective; to obtain a free and varying touch, which may fully characterize the various objects he must of necessity be called upon to imitate; and to produce the effect of space, or what is technically termed *distance*.

There are two kinds of proportion which require attention in order to produce a pleasing landscape. One is, between the quantum of the surface of the picture appropriated to the sky, and that allotted to the earth, or the figures intended to be introduced, be they mountains, houses, rocks, or trees; and the other is that of the various parts of the picture, reciprocally, according to their various distances in the scene. Of the latter, after the size of the objects on the fore-ground is determined, *perspective* is the sole regulator: therefore, a knowledge of the principal rules of that science is here absolutely requisite. With regard to the former of these proportions, the subject of the picture will undoubtedly furnish the best means of deciding justly. If the scene be mountainous, viewed from below, and at a short distance, the space allotted to the sky must be small, and near the top of the picture. If, on the contrary, the view be of an open champaign country, the reverse will be the just characteristic of the picture; and the sky will occupy by far the larger part. In general, much more grandeur is acquired by a low horizon, and an ample space of sky, than by any other proportion; and, next in effect to that, is the direct reverse.

Though landscape-painting has not the same powerful means to work with as historic painting, which enjoys the great advantage of animation and expression in its subjects, and likewise presents the greatest difficulty to overcome; yet, no true and enthusiastic lover and observer of nature can avoid acknowledging that it possesses the power of exciting great interest in the mind. A storm represented by the pencil of Gaspar Poussin, or a calm by that of Claude, will not fail to impress the observer with ideas of terror, or of gentleness. The one, who skilfully traced the paths of the wind in its ravages, and the deformity produced by the falling shower; and the other, who loved to dwell upon the beauties of the earth in moments of undisturbed tranquillity; equally interest our feelings, and excite those emotions which such varied circumstances in nature are calculated to inspire.

Compared with such views of the higher objects and aims of art, the practitioner in *landscape portrait-painting*, or one who paints views of particular spots, sinks into about the same ratio as the portrait-painter of mankind holds to him who engages his talents in the representations of history. Yet still his task is not devoid either of pleasure or interest. The same principles are required for practice, but they are unfortunately often obliged to yield to peculiarities which destroy their simplicity and prevent their effect; unless the artist has obtained that extraordinary talent of introducing casual circumstances, as ideal

shadows, accidental reflections, and agreeable figures, in such a manner as to unite or improve imperfect forms, and guide or attract the eye from disagreeable parts. As is the aim of the improver of grounds, or, as he is now termed, the landscape-gardener, such ought to be that of the landscape-painter. Wherever blemishes in form occur, they should be hidden, and, where natural beauties are bestowed, they should be exhibited to view; and adorned with the proper adjuncts of trees, water, clouds, or figures. A person not conversant with the powers of combination and contrast in design, can have no conception of their extraordinary power to heighten the effect of the dullest scenes, and the meanest objects. It should therefore be the principal task of the artist to observe those which are constantly occurring among natural objects, their effects, and the different sentiments they excite; so that he may possess a store to recur to, in time of need.

It is a wrong idea that has been often inculcated by ingenious writers on the art, that a landscape ought to exhibit Nature truly and exactly as it is represented on the retina of the eye. There are parts which ought to be hyperbolized, if we may use the expression, and others that are better kept down. The medium of the air between the object and the eye, throws harmony on the whole, which is not attainable on canvas but by a severe attention to the effect of light and shadow; observing at the same time, that allowance must also be made for the difference of size in the objects, and the disadvantage of being seen in an apartment; whereas the original landscape is unbounded, and animated by torrents of unimpeded light poured incessantly upon all its parts. It is curious to observe, that the mechanism of the eye is equally affected by a well-painted landscape as by the natural one; that is to say, that we experience a sensible motion in the orb of the eye to swell or flatten the crystalline, as we pass from a near to a distant object: this effect is less perceptible in looking at a print.

It is obvious that, in a landscape, the trees of the foreground cannot be introduced in the first drawing, or sketch, unless they are of so prominent a feature that the sky becomes subordinate to them.

The general tone of your *dead-colouring* must be determined in a landscape from the hour of the day, and the season of the year; from the state of the sky, whether clear and illuminated with a bright sunshine, or cloudy and overcast with misty vapours. The grey and tranquil tints of morn reject the brilliant pride of cinnabar and vermilion, of burnt sienna, and other warm pigments; the gentle warmth of Naples-yellow, the natural demitint of Cologne-earth, are here mostly required; but yield their province to the above-mentioned, when the dispenser of light rides up to his meridian station; and when, insensibly verging to the arms of his beloved Thetis, Apollo inclines his purple car to the west, then carmine, lake, Indian-red, mixed sometimes to the golden hue of ochre, or the azure brightness of ultramarine and Prussian blue, ought to assist the art in her way to give a good imitation of Nature. Even those parts of day ought to be modified by the season of the year; the finest morning in December ought not to be painted like a summer day; and the showery, yet pleasant, evenings of April and May, bear little resemblance to the sunset of autumn. No landscape-painter ought to expect any attention from the public, if he does not forcibly feel the justice of these observations, and put them in practice.

The Greeks were not at all addicted to landscape-painting. Pliny, who reckons as Greeks all those artists who practised in Sicily, at Alexandria, or on the Asian coast, mentions a hundred and thirty-three Greek painters; but, although he abounds with anecdotes of the figure or person painters, neither he nor Pausanias notice any one celebrated picture, or painter, of landscape.

Among the Romans there were painters of landscape. Pliny says, that Ludius, in the time of Augustus, first introduced that agreeable way of painting, on the walls of apartments

apartments and galleries, "towns, porticoes, shrubberies, groves, hills, pools, cascades, rivers, and pleasant shores." Here are all the elements of landscape. The same artist, he continues, also painted in alcoves, at a small expense, views of seaport-towns, pleasingly executed. Landscape-painting, then, began with the decoration of walls of rooms, as if man were born to live abroad, and can only banish from his home the idea of its being a prison, by giving to its boundaries a semblance of the horizon of Nature.

Vitruvius names Apaturius as a good painter of architectural scenery; and another prospect-painter of the Romans is characterised by Pliny, one Serapion, who painted scenes well, but could not paint a human figure. In those remains of ancient painting which occur in the baths of Vespasian, and the apartments at Pompeii, the pannels, which include landscape, exhibit a most imperfect perspective.

The following remarks on the rise and progress of landscape-painting, are extracted from a Discourse on Prospect Painting, delivered at Norwich, by W. Taylor, jun.

"The earlier writers on art, by which I mean those who flourished before the age of Trajan and the Antonines, constantly entitle their books *On zoographers*, *On zoography*; this was their only usual denomination for painting, as if still-life did not merit the name; but the later writers on art, (see the list in Junius De Picturâ Veterum, p. 57.) such as Hypsicrates, Protogenes, &c. treat *περί γραφικῆς*, which substitution of the word *design* to the word *life-drawing*, announces that art was got to include in its range other than living nature; and of these writers so great a number flourished at Constantinople, that one may infer that city to have become, instead of Rome, the seat of the fine arts, and to have cultivated a branch of it which never attained much rank at Rome. Indeed, no circumstance seems so adapted to give a fashion to prospect-painting as the transfer of a seat of empire. The personal reminiscences of the migrated, the historic curiosity of their descendants, must have given, at Constantinople, a high value to every representation of what was dear to personal affection, or beautiful, or celebrated, in the old country.

"These notices of the state of prospect-painting, among the ancients, are very scanty; yet I have not omitted to consult Junius De Picturâ Veterum, Winkelmann's *Geschichte der Kunst*, the *Antiquités de Caylus*, and the *Memoires de l'Académie des Inscriptions*; to say nothing of the domestic sources of information. No inferences can satisfactorily be drawn from them as to the natural progress of art, and the means most conducive to its perfection. The general law of progress must be sought in the history of modern painting.

"In order to form some idea of the probable course of practice, let us single-out an individual artist, who had regular opportunities of study, and habits of industry; one who is alike connected with the Italian and the Flemish schools. Paul Brill was born at Antwerp, in 1554. Formed under Volterman, his first delineations were of rustic objects, imitations of the ordinary nature which surrounded him. Invited by his brother Matthew, who was employed at the Vatican, into Italy, he there attached himself to Apennine scenery, to views of mountainous and woody expanse, whose natural sublimity and effect he heightened by the strength of his light and shadow. In a third stage of his progress, he was remarked as a painter of gardens the most green, of paradisaical groves, where nymphs were seeking sequestered baths in shaded rivulets. I still recollect in the gallery at Florence a painting of his on alabaster, which represents Christ healing the blind Bartimeus. The figures stand on an elevated foreground; in the distance are purple mountains peering above forests of palm; hills clad with the olive and the vine; the brook Kedron, shining as it winds, and bordered with dwellings of a beautiful architecture; a remote view of the majestic holy city; all together forming one of the richest land-

scapes on which the eye of man can rest; and all contributing to enhance the value of the miracle, and to inspire gratitude to the giver of sight. Few subjects are so well adapted for the prospect-painter, as this, to sink the figures in the scene serving to impress the topic. Finally, Paul Brill chose to delineate temples, columns, triumphal arches, classical ruins, and edifices, a taste which he bequeathed to his friend Nieuland, who completed his last productions."

Among the Italians, the earliest landscape-painters were, Bernazzano of Milan, and Muziano of Brescia. Both were remarkable for the rusticity of their scenery; inasmuch that the latter got the nick-name of *The Country Boy*, *Il Giovane dei Paesi*. Fabrizio Parmegiano and Giorgione Barbarelli have also left something of a name for imitating ordinary objects, and making trees distinguishable from one another.

Titian, by the accidental use of his pencil in the delineation of mountain-scenery, became the founder of heroic landscape. Fiorillo enumerates Viola and Angioli among those who first profited by the nobleness of his manner, and who carried aerial perspective, or the art of bedimming distances, to a new perfection. But Salvator Rosa, born in 1614, was in this line of art to attain the highest rank. Simplicity of design and sublimity of impression mark his every composition. In his landscapes he aims at exciting a shudder, a sort of panic fear, by the wild horrors of the scene. His forests have a gloom which announces to the passenger a homeless and inextricable labyrinth full of abysses. His mountains look like decaying pillars of the world. The approach of night is his darling hour, banditti his favourite company.

A Dutch artist, named Peter Molyn, attempted to compete with Salvator Rosa, and acquired among the Italians the nick-name of *Il Cavalier e Tempesta*, from his rage for painting storms, and violent accidents of life.

In the time of Salvator Rosa, two other artists acquired a rival celebrity. Gaspar Dughet, called also *Poussin*, after his relation and master, was born at Rome in 1613. He studied the bolder phenomena of nature, and imitated them successfully; but quitted this romantic scenery for a softer character of landscape, acquired by taking views at Tivoli, Albano, Fregcati, and in such enchanted grounds. His verdure is too uniform and diffuse; the shapes of his leaves he varies more than the moderns, who study gross effect; but the dingy colouring, especially of his foregrounds, delays the effect of his beautiful compositions. His figures are commonly heroic or mythologic, and operate, like a poetic inscription at the bottom of an engraving, in attuning the fancy to the scene. He made written descriptions of the pictures he exposed for sale; and his price, though moderate, was inexorable. The third man of this illustrious triumvirate, and now the most admired of the three, was Claude Gelée, called *de Lorraine*, from the province in which he was born, about the year 1600. He has all the grace and classical taste of Dughet, with a brighter and more various colouring; and he especially excels in the effects of sunshine. He may have been surpassed by Titian in wild and romantic scenery, and grandeur of style in design; but neither he nor any other has ever equalled Claude's truth and purity of colour and effect. Hitherto the perfection with which he has represented the effect of the atmosphere is unrivalled. Even Cuypp (his cotemporary) and our own Wilton, who have arrived the nearest to him, still lack his completion of effect. Their art is more apparent than his in his best works; and great chastity and sweetness of taste appear generally to have governed his choice of scene and of parts. Nicolo Poussin has left a great number of highly-interesting landscapes, in a style peculiarly his own. He appears to have delighted in the hues of the earth and trees after wet, and without sun; and in the tones of twilight; which admirably coincide with his choice of scenery and the classic objects he introduced into it. By Wilton, the taste and talent of Claude for producing the air-

air-teint (as that which produces the effect of the atmosphere is technically termed) has been most powerfully revived; and of him it may truly be said, that, had his patience in completing his pictures been equal to his taste in colour, composition, and effect, the ancient master might have fallen under the modern one; and we should have had to boast, that the greatest painter of landscapes the world ever produced was an Englishman.

Paolo Veronese is in *architecture* what Titian is in landscape. To excel in landscape, we must, above all things, study nature. To excel in architecture, we must chiefly regard the finest works of art; such as the fronts of ancient edifices, and the fabrics of those moderns who have best studied and best copied antiquity. Next to Brunelleschi and Alberti, who were the first revivers of architecture, came Bramante, Giulio Romano, Sanfivino, Sanmicheli, and, lastly, Palladio, whose works the young painter should, above all the rest, diligently study and imprint deeply on his mind. Nor is Vignola to be forgotten; for some think he was a more scrupulous copier of antiquity, and more exact, than Palladio himself, inasmuch that most people consider him as the first architect among the moderns. Amongst that great variety of proportions to be met with in ancient ruins, Palladio has been extremely happy in choosing the best. His profiles are well contrasted, yet easy. All the parts of his buildings hang well together. Grandeur, elegance, and beauty, walk hand in hand in them. In short, the very blemishes of Palladio, who was no slave to convenience, and sometimes perhaps was too profuse in his decorations, are picturesque. And we may reasonably believe, that it was by following so great a master, whose works he had continually before his eyes, that Paolo Veronese formed that fine and masterly taste which enabled him to embellish his compositions with such beautiful structures.

In this difficult path of the art, perspective rules every line, and yet begs the help of the eye to avoid dryness. Le Barbier l'Ainé, who long held a distinguished place among the members of the Academy of Painting at Paris, used to leave on his canvas all his lines drawn according to the strict rules of perspective, and then go out to study Nature on some building whose style was analogous to the back-ground of his picture. He was justly persuaded that the medium, the air, through which we perceive the objects, alters always, in some degree, the general rules of perspective; and that a painting, which is to represent Nature, would look like a mere architectural drawing, if the eye was not to be consulted, and Nature allowed to soften the rigidity of Art.

The study of architecture cannot fail, in another respect, of being very useful to the young painter, inasmuch as it will bring him acquainted with the form of the temples, theatres, basilics, theatres, and other buildings, of the Greeks and Romans. Besides, from the basso-relievos with which it was customary to adorn these buildings, he may gather, with equal delight and profit, the nature of their sacrifices, arms, military ensigns, and dresses.

OF ECONOMICAL PAINTING.

ECONOMICAL PAINTING is that application of artificial colours, compounded either with water or oil, which is employed in preserving or embellishing houses, ships, furniture, &c. The term *economical* applies more immediately to the power which oil and varnishes possess, of preventing the action of the atmosphere upon wood, iron, and stucco, by interposing an artificial surface.

Among the utensils of the painter, it is needless, but for rendering the article complete, to mention brushes and pencils of all sizes as absolutely necessary. The brushes are made of hog's bristles, or of hair with a mixture of bristles; they ought to be straight, very smooth, and of a round form. Half an hour before they are used, it is proper to soak them in water, in order to swell the wood of the handle, and prevent the hairs from

falling off; after this they may be applied to all purposes, either in water-colours or in oil; but it may be observed, that for the former they require less softening. The pencils are made of badger's-hair, or any fine hairs enshased in the pipes of quills of all sizes.

The pallet is made of the wood of the pear or apple tree, of an oval or square shape, very slender, but somewhat thicker at the centre than at the extremities. A hole is made in one of its sides sufficiently large to admit the thumb of the workman. When the pallet is new, it is covered with oil of walnuts; and, as often as it dries, the operation is repeated, till it is fully impregnated; it is afterwards polished, and finally rubbed with a piece of linen dipped in oil of common nuts.

The painter's knife is a thin flexible plate, equally slender on both sides, rounded at one extremity, and the other fixed into a handle of wood.

All the vessels employed to hold the colours should be varnished; a precaution necessary to prevent their drying too quickly.

To *grind*, is to reduce to powder the substances which give colours on a piece of marble or any hard stone by means of water, oil, or essence.

To *dilute*, is to impregnate a liquid with a tint in such a manner as to make it capable of being applied by a brush.

When the materials are ground in water, it is proper to dilute them in size made from parchment. If they are diluted in spirit of wine, there must be no more diluted than what serves the immediate occasion, as colours prepared in this manner dry very rapidly. Colours ground in oil are sometimes diluted with pure oil, more frequently with oil mixed with essence, and commonly with the pure essence of turpentine; the essence makes the colours easy to work. Those prepared in this manner are more solid, but they require more time to dry. When colours are ground with the essence of turpentine, and diluted in varnish, as they require to be immediately applied, it is necessary to prepare a small quantity at a time. This preparation of colours gives greater brilliancy, and dries more speedily, than those prepared in oil; but they require more art to manage them.

In every case, prepare only the quantity of colours necessary for the work you undertake, because they do not keep long; and those which are newly mixed are more vivid and beautiful. Hold the brush straight before you, and allow only the surface to be applied to the subject: if you hold it inclined in any other direction, you will run the hazard of painting unequally. Yet it is necessary to lay on the colours boldly, and with great strokes; taking care at the same time to spread them equally over the surface, and not to fill up the moulding and carved work. If this accident should happen, you must have a little brush to clean out the colours.

Stir the colours frequently in the vessel, that they may preserve always the same tint, and that no sediment may remain at the bottom. Never apply a second layer till the first or preceding one be perfectly dry; which it is easily known to be when, in bearing the hand gently over it, it does not adhere. In order to render this drying more speedy and uniform, make always the layers as thin as possible.

Before painting, it is necessary to *prime* the subject; that is, to give it a layer of size, or of white colouring-oil, to fill up the pores, and render the surface smooth; by this means fewer layers of colour or of varnish are afterwards necessary. Every subject to be painted or gilded ought to have first a white ground; this preserves the colours fresh and vivid, and repairs the damage which they occasionally receive from the air.

OF HOUSE-PAINTING IN WATER-COLOURS.

Works which require no great care or preparation, as ceilings and staircases, are generally painted in common

water-colours; that is, with earths infused in water and diluted in size.

For a common white kind of this painting, steep Spanish-white moderately pounded in water for two hours. Infuse a proper quantity of the black of charcoal in water for the same space of time; mix the black and white in the proportion that the tint requires; afterwards mix them up with a pretty strong size sufficiently thick and warm, and apply them to the subject in as many layers as may be thought necessary. It requires about two pounds of white in a pint of water, and a quantity of black in proportion to the tint, together with a part of size, to cover a square fathom. If this be employed on old walls, they must be well scraped, the dust brushed off with a hair becom, and washed carefully with lime-water. If on new plaster, the colours require more size.

All kinds of colours may be ground in water only when the tint is made; and, when they have been infused in water, they must be mixed up with size. In general, it requires about a pound of colours to paint a square fathom (six feet square) in water-colours. In making-up this quantity, take three-fourths of colours ground in water, and one-fourth of a pound, or six ounces, of size to dilute it.

Of Varnished Water-Colours.—The advantages of this kind of painting are, that the colours do not fade; that they reflect the light; that they give no offensive smell, but permit the places to be inhabited as soon as finished; and that the varnish preserves the wood from insects and moisture.

To make a fine varnish on water-colours, seven operations are necessary; namely, to size the wood, to prepare the white, to soften and rub the subject, to clean the moulding, to paint, to size, and to varnish.

1. To size the wood, is to give one or two layers of size to the subject which you intend to paint. Take three heads of garlic and a handful of wormwood-leaves; boil them in three pints of water till they are reduced to one; pass the juice through a linen cloth, and mix it with a pint of parchment-size; add half a handful of salt and half a pint of vinegar; and boil the whole on the fire. Size the wood with this boiling liquor; allow it to penetrate into the carved and smooth places of the wood, but take care at the same time to take it as clean off the work as possible, or at least to leave it at no place thicker than another. This first sizing serves to fill up the pores of the wood, and to prevent the materials afterwards from collecting in a body, which would cause the work to fall off in scales.

2. To prepare the white, take a quantity of strong parchment-size; and sprinkle lightly over it, with the hand, Spanish-white, till the size is covered with it about half an inch in thickness; allow it to soak for half an hour as near the fire as to keep it milk-warm; and then stir it with the brush till the lumps are broken, and it is sufficiently mixed. Give seven, eight, or ten, layers of this white, or as many as the nature of the work or the defects in the wood shall render necessary, giving more white to the parts which require to be softened; but, in general, the layers must be equal both with regard to the quantity of the white and the strength of the size. The last layer of the white ought to be clearer than the rest, which is made by adding water. It must be applied more slightly, taking care with small brushes to cover all the uneven places in the mouldings and carved work. It is necessary also, between the drying of the different layers, to fill up all the defects with white mastic and size.

3. To soften, is to give to the subject, after the whitening, a smooth and equal surface, and to rub it over with a pumice-stone. The wood being dry, take little pieces of white wood and of pumice-stone, ground for the purpose into all necessary forms, either for the pannels or the moulding. Take cold water, heat being destructive of this kind of work; in summer, it is common to add a little ice. Soften the wall with a brush, but only as much at a

time as you can easily work, as the water might dilute the white and spoil the whole: then smooth and rub it with the pumice-stones, and with the small pieces of wood: wash it with a brush as you smooth it, and rub it over with a piece of new linen, which gives a fine lustre to the work.

4. The mouldings and carved work are cleaned with an iron; and the only thing to be attended to in the operation is not to raise the grain of the wood.

5. The subject thus prepared is ready to receive the colour you intend to give it. Choose your tint; suppose a silver colour. Grind white ceruse and Spanish-white separately in water, of each an equal quantity, and mix them together. Add a little indigo, and a very small quantity of finely-powdered charcoal; more or less of the one or other gives the tint you require. Dilute this tint in strong parchment-size; pass it through a bolting-cloth of silk very fine, and lay the tint on your work, taking care to spread it very equally; and then give it two layers, and the colour is applied.

6. Make a weak, beautiful, and clean, size; stir it till it cools; strain it through a fine cloth, and give two layers to the work with a soft painting-brush. Take care not to choke-up the mouldings, nor to lay-on the size thicker on one place than another, and spread it over the work very slightly, otherwise you will dilute the colours, and occasion undulations in the painting. The beauty of the work depends on this last sizing; for, if any part is omitted, the varnish will penetrate into the colours, and give it a darker shade.

7. When the sizing is dry, lay on two or three layers of spirit-of-wine varnish, taking care that the place on which you lay it be warm; and the work is finished.

Of King's White.—This derives its name from having been used in the apartments of the French king. It is in all respects conducted like the former, except that there is only a small quantity of indigo, to take the yellow from the white, without any black of charcoal, and without varnish. This white answers extremely well for apartments which are seldom used; but otherwise it spoils easily, especially in bedchambers. It is the best white where there is any kind of gilding; and in this case a little varnish is added.

OF HOUSE-PAINTING IN OIL-COLOURS.

To paint in oil is to apply to all sorts of subjects, as walls, wood, cloths, and metals, coloured earths ground and diluted in oil. By means of oil, the colours are longer preserved; and, not drying so speedily, they give the painter a longer time to smooth, finish, and re-touch, his work; the colours being more marked, and mixing better together, give more distinguishable tints, and more vivid and agreeable gradations, and the colouring is more delicate.

In every branch of painting in oil, as applicable either to churches, theatres, houses, or any other public or private buildings, or edifices, the general process will be found very similar; or with such variations as will easily be suggested by the judicious workman.

The first coatings, or layers, if on wood or iron, ought always to be of ceruse, or white-lead; the very best that can be obtained; which should have been previously ground very fine in nut or linseed oil, either with a muller, or, as that mode is too tedious for large quantities, it may be passed through a mill. If used on wood, as shutters, doors, or wainscoting, made of fir or deal, it is highly requisite to destroy the effects of the knots, which are generally so completely saturated with turpentine, as to render it, perhaps, one of the most difficult processes in the business to conquer. The best mode in common cases, is to pass over the knots with ceruse ground in water, bound by a size made of parchment, or some other animal substance. When that is dry, paint the knots with white-lead ground in oil, to which add some powerful siccativ, or dryer; as red-lead, or litharge of lead, about one-fourth part of the

the latter. These preparations should be done carefully, and laid very smoothly with the grain of the wood. When the last coat is dry, which will be in twelve or twenty-four hours, then smooth it with pumice-stone, or give the work the first coat of paint, prepared, or diluted, with nut or linseed oil. When that is dry, all the nail-holes or other irregularities on the surface should be carefully stopped with a composition of oil and Spanish-white, a whitening commonly known by the name of *putty*; but which is frequently made and sold at the shops of very inferior articles. When that is done, let the work be painted over again, with the same mixture of white-lead and oil, somewhat diluted with the essence of oil of turpentine, which process should be repeated not less than three or four times, if the work is intended to be left, when finished, of a plain white or stone colour; if of the latter, the last coat should have a small quantity of ivory or lamp black added, to reduce its whiteness a little; and this is also of service in preserving the colour from changing; a circumstance which the oil is apt to produce. But, if the work is to be finished of any other colour, either grey, green, &c. it will be requisite to provide for such colour, after the third operation, particularly if it is to be finished flat, or, as the painters style it, dead-white, grey, fawn, &c. In order to finish the work flatted, or dead, (which is a mode much to be preferred for all superior works; not only for its appearance, but also for preserving the colour and purity of the tint,) after the work, supposing it to be wood, has been painted four times in oil-colour, as directed in general cases, one coat of the flatted colour, or colour mixed up with a considerable quantity of turpentine, will be found sufficient; although in large surfaces it will frequently be requisite to give two coats of the flattening-colour to make it quite complete.

It must be observed, that, in all the foregoing operations, it will be requisite to add some sort of siccatif. A very general and useful one is made by grinding in linseed (or perhaps prepared oils, boiled, are better) about two parts of the best white copperas, which must be well dried, with one part of litharge of lead: the quantity to be added will much depend on the dryness or humidity of the atmosphere at the time of painting, as well as the local situation of the building. It is highly proper here to observe, that there is a kind of copperas made in England, and said to be used for some purposes in medicine, that not only does not assist the operation of drying in the colours, but absolutely prevents those colours drying, which would otherwise have done so by themselves. The best dryer for all fine whites, and other delicate tints, is *saccharum saturni*, or sugar-of-lead, ground in nut-oil; but which being very active, a small quantity, about the size of a walnut, will be sufficient for twenty pounds of colours, where the basis is ceruse. The greatest care should be taken to keep all the utensils, brushes, &c. particularly clean; or the colours will soon become very foul, so as to destroy the surface of the work. If this should so happen, the colour should be passed through a fine sieve, or canvas; and the surface of the work be carefully rubbed down with sand-paper, or pumice-stone; and the latter should be prepared by being ground in water, if the paint be tender, or recently laid-on.

The above may suffice as to painting on wood, either on outside or inside works; the former being seldom finished otherways than in oil, four or five coats are generally quite sufficient.

We shall now proceed to note what is requisite for the painting of new walls, or *stucco*, not painted before, and prepared for oil-colours. It does not appear that any painting in oil can be done to any good or serviceable effect in stucco, unless not merely the surface appear dry, but that the walls have been erected a sufficient time to permit the mass of brick-work to have acquired a sufficient degree of dryness: when stucco is on battened work, it may be painted over much sooner than when prepared as brick. Indeed, the greatest part of the mystery of

painting stucco, so as to stand or wear well, certainly consists in attending to these observations; for, whoever has observed the expansive power of water, not only in congelation, but also in evaporation, must be well aware that, when it meets with any foreign body obstructing its escape, as oil-painting for instance, it immediately refits it; forming a number of vesicles, or particles containing an acrid lime-water, which forces off the layers of plaster, and frequently causes large defective patches, extremely difficult to get the better of.

Perhaps in general cases, where persons are building on their own-estate, or for themselves, two or three years are not too long to suffer the stucco to remain unpainted; though frequently, in speculative works, as many weeks are scarcely allowed. Indeed, there are some nostrums set forth, in favour of which it is stated, in spite of all the natural properties of bodies, that stucco may, after having been washed over with these liquids, be painted immediately with oil-colours. It is true there may be instances, and in many experiments some will be found, that appear to counteract the general laws of nature; but, on following them up to their causes, it will be found otherwise.

Supposing the foregoing precautions to have been attended to, there can be no better mode adopted for priming or laying-on the first coat on stucco, than by linseed or nut oil, boiled with dryers, as before mentioned, and laid-on with a proper brush; taking care, in all cases, not to lay-on too much, so as to render the surface rough and irregular, and not more than the stucco will absorb. It should then be covered with three or four coats of ceruse, or white-lead, prepared as described for painting on wainscoting; letting each coat have sufficient time to dry hard. If time will permit, two or three days betwixt each layer will not be too long.

If the stucco be intended to be finished of any given tint, as grey, light-green, apricot, &c. it will then be proper, about the third coat of painting, to prepare the ground for such tint, by a slight advance towards it. Grey is made with ceruse; Prussian-blue, ivory-black, and lake, sage-green, pea and sea greens, with white; Prussian-blue and fine yellows, apricot, and peach, with lake; white, Chinese vermilion, and fine yellow, fawn colour, with burnt terra Sienna, or umber and white; olive-greens, with fine Prussian-blue and Oxfordshire-ochre.

We shall conclude with an account of some processes which have been recommended, on account of their cheapness, for preparing different materials for economical painting.

Of HOUSE-PAINTING with MILK.

This process was invented by A. A. Cadet de Vaux, of the Academical Society of Sciences in France; and first described in the *Feuille Cultivateur*, about the year 1798; then in the *Decade Philosophique*; and afterwards translated into some of our English journals. The following are the directions for preparing this paint: Take of skimmed-milk a pint, which makes two pints of Paris, or nearly two quarts English; fresh-slaked lime, six ounces, (about six and a half ounces avoirdupois;) oil of carraways, or linseed, or nut, four ounces; Spanish-white (whiting), three pounds; put the lime into a stone vessel, and pour upon it a sufficient quantity of milk to make a mixture resembling thin cream; then add the oil a little at a time, stirring it with a small spatula; the remainder of the milk is then to be added, and, lastly, the Spanish-white. Skimmed-milk in summer is often clotted; but this is of no consequence, because the contact with the lime soon restores its fluidity. But it must on no account be sour, because in that case it would form with the lime a kind of calcareous acetate, capable of attracting moisture. The lime is slaked by dipping it in water, out of which it is to be immediately taken, and left to fall in pieces in the air.

The choice of either of the above-mentioned oils is indifferent;

different; nevertheless, for white paint, the oil of caraways is to be preferred, because colourless. The commonest oils may be used for painting with the ochres. The oil, when mixed-in with the milk and lime, disappears, and is totally dissolved by the lime, with which it forms a calcareous soap.

The Spanish-white is to be crumbled, or gently spread on the surface of the fluid, which it gradually imbibes, and at last sinks; at this period it must be well stirred-in. This paint may be coloured like distemper (or size colour), with levigated charcoal, yellow ochre, &c. and it is used in the same manner.

The quantity here prescribed is sufficient for the first coat of six toises, or 27 square yards English. The price of this quantity amounts to nine sols, which reduces the price of the square toise to one sol six deniers, or three halfpence English.

One of the properties of this paint is, that it will keep for whole months, and requires neither time nor fire; in ten minutes we may prepare enough of it to paint a whole house. Another advantage is, that one may sleep in a chamber the night after it has been painted; for the milk-distemper paint dries in the space of an hour, and the oil which enters into its composition loses its smell and character of oil by its combination with the lime, which converts it into a true soap; the smell of this colour, when fresh laid-on, is like that of a soap-ley, or like that of a place in which linen is bleached. A single coating is sufficient for places that have already been painted. It is not necessary to lay-on two, unless where grease-spots repel the first coating; these should be removed by washing them with strong lime-water, or a ley of soap, or scraped off. New wood requires two coatings. One coating is sufficient for a staircase, passage, or ceiling.

To give this paint a greater degree of solidity, that it may be employed as a substitute for *oil-paint*, the author adds to the proportions of the paint for out-door works, of slaked-lime, oil, and white Burgundy pitch, each two ounces. The pitch is to be melted with a gentle heat in the oil, and then added to the smooth mixture of the milk and lime. In cold weather this mixture is to be warmed, that it may not occasion too-speedy cooling of the pitch, and to facilitate its union with the milk of lime. This paint, it is said, has some analogy with that known by the name of *encaustic*. It has been employed, the author informs us, for outside shutters formerly painted with oil; and is preferable to painting with lead objects that are exposed to putrid exhalations, which are apt to blacken paint composed of metallic matters, especially of lead.

M. Devaux recommends this kind of paint as a substitute for common white-wash, in lime-whiting (as it is called) the wards of hospitals, and the infected cottages of the sick. "As lime (the author observes) enters into the composition of my milk-paint, it may be made the base of it, by substituting it instead of the Spanish-white. The painting will become still cheaper by this substitution, on account of the cheapness of the lime, so that the toise of the painting will cost only five centimes; as to the labour, there can be no want of hands in buildings where great numbers of individuals are collected together, and where every thing ought to be conducted as economically as possible.

"But of what advantage, it may be objected, is the addition of milk and of oil? It is not by a chemist that this objection will be made; however this is our answer to it: The addition is made because lime has no adhesion to the walls; it cannot be applied in a thick layer; and the slightest contact causes it to come off; on which account walls whitewashed in the common way soil the clothes that come in contact with them. The caseous part of milk, the addition of the oil, which forms a saponaceous substance with the lime, afford, on the contrary, after the evaporation of the moisture, a layer that possesses density and cohesion, and is capable of receiving thickness; it is a coating, in some measure varnished,

which annihilates the porosity of stone, plaster, brick, or wood; and from which we may wipe off the dust without laying bare the place which has been painted.

"Milk-painting affords another advantage, which I have not mentioned in my memoir; namely, that of checking the nitrification of the walls, which is accelerated by painting in distemper. In fact, glue is an animal substance, of which one of the constituent principles is azot; now the decomposition of the glue extricates this azot, which is also one of the constituent principles of the nitric acid, and enables it to combine with the oxygen, with which it forms this acid. As milk-painting produces no extrication of azot, one of the aliments of the nitrification is removed. Moreover, this painting stops up the pores of the stone, and interposes itself between the walls and the nitrifying action.

"Supported by the theory which I have just explained, by the authority of two of our first chemists, Fourcroy and Deyeux, to whom I have submitted my opinion, and, lastly, by my own experience, I think myself justified in recommending to the administrators of hospitals, to adopt the *resinous milk-painting* (always substituting lime in the place of Spanish-white), as the most efficacious, and at the same time the most economical, means of destroying the mephitification of the walls, and preventing it for the future."

PAINTS prepared from FISH-OIL.

In the Trans. of the Society of Arts for 1805, a method is proposed by Mr. Vanherman, of Golden-square, for making cheap and durable paints with fish-oil. For this communication, Mr. V. received the silver medal and twenty guineas.

The paints thus prepared, beside their cheapness, are not subject to blister or peel off by exposure to the weather. They may be manufactured of any colour, and laid-on by ordinary labourers. The price of some of them is so low as twopence, and the highest does not exceed threepence, per pound, in a state fit for use. The author adds, that white-lead ground with prepared fish-oil, and thinned with linseed-oil, surpasses any white hitherto employed for resisting all weathers, and retaining its whiteness. The following is an account of his processes:

To refine one Ton of Cod, Whale, or Seal, Oil, for Painting; with the Cost attending it.

One ton of fish-oil, or 252 gallons,	-	£36	0	0
32 gallons of vinegar, at 2s. per gallon,	-	3	4	0
12 lbs. litharge, at 5d. per lb.	-	0	5	0
12 lbs. white copperas, at 6d. ditto,	-	0	6	0
12 gallons of linseed-oil, at 4s. 6d. per gallon,	-	2	14	0
2 gallons of spirits of turpentine, at 8s. ditto,	-	0	16	0
		£43	5	0

252 gallons of fish-oil,
12 ditto linseed-oil,
2 ditto spirit of turpentine,
32 ditto vinegar.

298 gallons, worth 4s. 6d. per gallon.
Which produces £67 1 0
Deduct the expence 43 5 0

£23 16 0 profit.

To prepare the Vinegar for the Oil.—Into a cask which will contain about forty gallons, put 32 gallons of good common vinegar; add to this 12 pounds of litharge, and 12 pounds of white copperas in powder; bung-up the vessel, and shake and roll it well twice a-day for a week; when it will be fit to put into a ton of whale, cod, or seal, oil; (but the Southern-whale oil is to be preferred, on account of its good colour, and little or no smell.) Shake and mix all together, when it may settle until the next day;

day; then pour off the clear, which will be about seven-eighths of the whole. To this clear part add twelve gallons of linseed-oil, and two gallons of spirit of turpentine; shake them well together, and, after the whole has settled two or three days, it will be fit to grind white-lead and all fine colours in; and, when ground, cannot be distinguished from those ground in linseed-oil, unless by the superiority of its colour.

If the oil is wanted only for coarse purposes, the linseed-oil and oil of turpentine may be added at the same time that the prepared vinegar is put in; and, after being well shaken up, is fit for immediate use, without being suffered to settle. The vinegar is to dissolve the litharge; and the copperas accelerates the dissolution, and strengthens the drying quality. The residue, or bottom, when settled, by the addition of half its quantity of fresh lime-water, forms an excellent oil for mixing with all the coarse paints for preserving outside-work.

All colours ground in the above oil, and used for inside-work, must be thinned with linseed-oil and oil of turpentine. The oil mixed with lime-water, is called *incorporated oil*.

Expense of the various Impenetrable Paints, and Method of preparing them.

1. *Subdued Green.*

Fresh lime-water, 6 gallons,	£0 0 3
Road-dirt finely sifted, 112 pounds,	0 1 0
Whiting, 112 ditto,	0 2 4
Blue-black, 30 ditto,	0 2 6
Wet blue, 20 ditto,	0 10 0
Residue of the oil, 3 gallons,	0 6 0
Yellow-ochre in powder, 24 pounds,	0 2 0
	£1 4 1

This composition will weigh 368 pounds, which is scarcely one penny per pound. To render the above paint fit for use, to every eight pounds add one quart of the incorporated oil, and one quart of linseed-oil; and it will be found a paint with every requisite quality, both of beauty, durability, and cheapness; and in this state of preparation does not exceed twopence-halfpenny per pound, whereas the coal-tar of the same colour is sixpence.

2. *Bright Green.*

112 pounds yellow ochre in powder, at 2d. per lb.	£0 18 8
168 ditto road-dust,	0 1 8
112 ditto wet-blue, at 6d. per lb.	2 16 0
10 ditto blue-black, at 3d. ditto,	0 2 6
6 gallons of lime-water,	0 0 6
4 ditto fish-oil prepared,	0 12 0
7½ ditto incorporated oil,	0 15 0
7½ ditto linseed-oil, at 4s. 6d. per gallon	2 8 9
592lbs. weight.	£7 15 1

This excellent bright-green does not exceed threepence-farthing per pound ready to lay on; and the inventor challenges any colour-man or painter to produce a green equal to it for eighteen-pence. After painting, the colour left in the pot may be covered with water, to prevent it from skinning; and the brushes, as usual, should be cleaned with the painting-knife, and kept under water.

A brighter green may be formed by omitting the blue-black; and a lighter green may be made by the addition of ten pounds of ground white-lead. A variety of greens may be obtained, by varying the proportions of the blue

and yellow. Observe that the wet-blue must be ground with the incorporated oil, preparatory to its being mixed with the mass.

3. *Stone Colour.*

Lime-water, 4 gallons,	£0 0 4
Whiting, 112 pounds,	0 2 4
White-lead ground in oil, 28 pounds, at 6d. per lb.	0 14 0
Road-dust, 56 pounds,	0 0 6
Prepared fish-oil, 2 gallons,	0 6 0
Incorporated-oil, 3½ gallons,	0 7 0
Linseed-oil, 3½ ditto,	0 15 9
Weighs 293lbs.	£2 5 11

The above stone-colour, fit for use, is not twopence per pound.

4. *Brown-Red.*

Lime-water, 8 gallons,	£0 0 8
Spanish-brown, in powder, 112lbs.	1 0 0
Road-dust, 224lbs.	0 2 0
4 gallons of fish-oil,	0 12 0
4 ditto incorporated-oil,	0 8 0
4 ditto linseed-oil,	0 18 0
Weighs 501lbs.	£2 0 8

This most excellent paint is scarcely one penny per pound.

A good chocolate-colour is made by the addition of blue-black in powder or lamp-black, till the colour is to your mind, and a lighter brown may be formed by adding ground white-lead.

Yellow is prepared with yellow ochre in powder, in the same proportion as the Spanish-brown. Black is also prepared in the same proportion, using lamp-black or blue-black.

5. *White.*—In a subsequent communication, Mr. Van-herman added the following receipt for a constant white for inside-painting. This paint, the author observes, is not entirely free from smell in the operation, but becomes dry in four hours, at the end of which time the smell is entirely dissipated.

“To one gallon of spirits of turpentine add two pounds of frankincense; let it simmer over a clear fire until dissolved; strain it, and bottle it for use. To one gallon of my bleached linseed-oil, add one quart of the above, shake them well together, and bottle it also. Let any quantity of white-lead be ground with spirits of turpentine very fine; then add a sufficient portion of the last mixture to it, until you find it fit for laying-on. If in working it grows thick, it must be thinned with spirits of turpentine. It is a flat or dead white.”

Some of the sources from whence this article is derived are here pointed out.—Leonardi da Vinci on Composition. Mengs sobre la Belleza y Gusto en la Pintura. Encyclopédie méthodique. Sir Joshua Reynolds's Notes to Mason's Dufresnoy, and his Discourses at the Royal Academy. Abbé de Marfy's Art of Painting, and Dict. of Painting and Architecture. Edwards's Anecdotes of Painters. Webb's Dialogues on Painting. Fuseli's Lectures. Transf. of the Society of Manchester, vol. iii. Transf. of the Society of Arts, vol. xxiii. Rep. of Arts, vol. xv. Nicholson's Journal, vol. v. 4to. Tingri's Painter's and Varnisher's Guide. D'Israeli's Curiosities of Literature, vol. ii. Rubeys de' Ritratti, Paris, 1809. Discourse on Prospect-Painting, before the Norwich Phil. Soc. 1814. Essays on Painting, in the Phoenix and Harp newspaper, and private Communications from the Author of them.

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P A J

PAINTLICK, a town of the state of Kentucky: fourteen miles east-north-east of Stamford.

PAINTLICK CREEK, a river of Kentucky, which runs into the river Kentucky in lat. 37. 37. N. lon. 84. 43. W.

PAINTURE, *f.* [*peinture*, Fr.] The art of painting:

To the next realm she stretch'd her sway,

For *painture* near adjoining lay,

A plenteous province.

Dryden.

The showery arch

With lifted colours gay, or, azure, gules,

Delights and puzzles the beholder's eye,

That views the watry brede with thousand shews

Of *paintures* vary'd.

Philips.

PAINVILLE, a town of Virginia, with a post-office: 197 miles west of Washington.

PAJON' (Claude), a learned French protestant divine, was descended from a noble family, and born at Romorentin in the Orleanois, in the year 1626. Having made choice of the ministry for his profession, after receiving a preparatory education at his native place, he was sent to pursue his academical studies at Saumur, where he distinguished himself by his proficiency in the various branches of learning, as well as by an uncommon degree of penetration and sagacity in his academical exercises and persuasive powers of eloquence. Thus qualified, at the age of twenty-four he was admitted to the ministry, and became pastor of Marchenoir, in the little province of Duinois. While he continued at this place, the famous Jurieu, who was then settled at Mer, had entered into a controversy with a minister of the name of Buislot, who leaned somewhat towards the Arminian system, and addressed a letter written against him to M. Pajon. Repentful that our author did not enter into his views of the controversy, Jurieu turned his attack against him, and

accused the modifications under which Pajon exhibited some of the doctrines of the reformed church, of being erroneous and dangerous heresies. On the other hand, Pajon complained that his doctrine was either ill understood or wilfully perverted. In the mean time, he was elected to fill the chair of professor of divinity at Saumur. His complaints and declarations, however, instead of disposing his opponents to peace, served only to provoke them to renewed hostilities; and Jurieu wrote against him with his usual virulence, denouncing him as heterodox, and, from his station, a dangerous underminer of the true faith of the reformed church. M. Pajon defended himself against Jurieu and his party with learning and ingenuity, till at length the controversy between them became so warm, that he was cited before the synod of Anjou, in 1667, to give an account of his doctrine. In this assembly he disputed against his adversaries during several sessions with so much success, that he was dismissed without any censure, and permitted to retain his professorship. Afterwards, his enemies, becoming more powerful, procured a condemnation of his opinions to be passed, and the academy of Saumur obliged those students who applied for their testimonials to sign that condemnation. In these circumstances, perceiving that the Protestants, on account of the prejudices excited against him, declined sending their sons to study at Saumur, he was prevailed upon to resign his professorship, and to accept the vacant pastoral charge of the church of Orleans. Here he spent the remainder of his life, diligently occupied in the duties of his profession, and in writing a prodigious number of controversial and other treatises, which remain still in manuscript. He died in 1685, immediately before the revocation of the edict of Nantes, when he was in the sixtieth year of his age. As an author, he is principally entitled to notice for his excellent defence of the Protestant religion against father Nicole, entitled "*Examen*"

du Livre qui porte pour Titre, *Préjugez Légitimes contre les Calvinistes*, 1673, in 2 vols. 12mo. in which his learning, zeal, and judgment, are advantageously displayed. *Mohem's Hist. Eccl.*

PAJO'T (Louis Leo), Count d'Ansembray, a French nobleman, celebrated for his scientific knowledge, was born at Paris in the year 1678. He received the advantages of a liberal education; and, having early discovered an inclination for mathematical and philosophical studies, was intrusted in the philosophy of Des Cartes. Afterwards he took a tour to Holland, where he formed an acquaintance with Huygens, Ruysch, Boerhaave, and others distinguished by their eminence in literature and science. He was appointed director-general of the posts in France; and conducted the business of that department in such a manner as entitled him to the esteem of the public, and at the same time secured the confidence and favour of Louis XIV. That prince sent for him in his last illness to seal up his will, before it was sent to be deposited with the parliament. After the death of his father, the count came into the possession of a country-seat at Bercy, where he determined to establish a scientific museum; and he spared neither trouble nor expense to furnish it with curiosities of nature and art, and with philosophical and mechanical instruments and machines of every description. So famous did this collection become, that it induced Peter the Great of Russia, the emperor of Germany, and prince Charles of Lorraine, &c. to pay visits to the count d'Ansembray. It was perhaps the most curious museum in Europe; and was particularly unrivalled in articles connected with the science of mechanics. In this department of the mathematics, the count furnished several papers to the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences, of which he was a member. The principal of them are, On an Instrument for the Measurement of Liquids; On an Aerometer, or Wind-gage; and, On a Machine for beating regular Time in Music. So much at heart had he the interests of science, that he bequeathed his museum to the academy, upon the condition that it should be rendered useful to the public. He died in the year 1753, at the age of seventy-five, deeply regretted by the poor parishioners of Bercy and St. Germain l'Auxerrois, to whom he was a most kind and liberal benefactor, and universally respected among his acquaintance for his integrity, humanity, and other excellent qualities. *Gen. Biog.*

PAJOU', a town of France, in the department of the Cantal: 2 miles from Aurillac.

PAIPARÆ'A, *f.* in botany. See GREWIA.

PAIR, *f.* [*paire*, Fr. from *par*, Lat.] Two things suiting one another; as, a pair of gloves, shoes, &c. A man and wife:

Oh! when meet now,
Such pairs in love and mutual honour join'd? *Milton.*

Baucis and Philemon there
Had liv'd long marry'd, and a happy pair;
Now old in love. *Dryden.*

Two of a fort; a couple; a brace.—The many pairs of nerves branching themselves to all the parts of the body, are wonderful to behold. *Ray.*

All his lovely looks, his pleasing fires,
All his sweet motions, all his taking smiles,
He does into one pair of eyes convey. *Suckling.*

PAIR is also used in compound things, for two parts alike to each other, though they only make one whole; as, a pair of scissors, snuffers, &c.

To PAIR, *v. n.* To be joined in pairs; to couple; as male and female.—Your hand, my Perdita; so turtles pair. *Shakespeare.*—To suit; to fit as a counterpart.—My heart was made to fit and pair with thine. *Rowe.*

Had our prince seen the hour, he had pair'd
Well with this lord; there was not a full month
Between their births. *Shakespeare's Wint. Tale.*

To PAIR, *v. a.* To join in couples:

Minds are so hardly match'd, that e'en the first,
Tho' pair'd by heav'n, in Paradise were curs'd. *Dryden.*

To unite as correspondent or opposite:

Turtles and doves with differing hues unite,
And glossy jet is pair'd with shining white. *Pope.*

To PAIR, *v. a.* [*pæran*, Sax. The original form of *impair*. Wicliffe uses *pairing* in the sense of *hurt*: "What profitith it to a man, if he wyne al the world, and do *pegyrynge* to his soul?" St. Mark, viii.] To impair:

No faith so fast, quoth she, but flesh does *paire*.
Flesh may empaire, quoth he, but reason can repaire. *Spenser.*

PAIR OF CARDS, *f.* [an old name for] A pack of cards.—A pair of cards, Nic'las, and a carpet to cover the table. Where's Sis'ly with her counters and her box? *T. Heywood's Woman killed with Kindness.*

PAIR-ROYAL, *f.* [at some games at cards] Three of a fort.

Each one prov'd a fool,
Yet three knaves in the whole,
And that made up a pair-royal. *Butler's Remains.*

PAIRA, a river of Persia, which loses itself in a lake near Tadvan, in the province of Farsistan.

PAIRAN', a town of Sibu, one of the Philippine Islands, inhabited chiefly by Chinese merchants and artificers.

PAIRIER, a town of France, in the department of the Vendée: ten miles south of Beauvoir.

PAIRUMBAU'CUM, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic: thirty miles west of Madras.

PAIS, *f.* [Fr. country.] The people out of whom a jury is taken.—The subject of our next enquiries will be the nature and method of the trial by jury; called also the trial per *pais*, or by the country. *Blackstone.*

PAISAGE, *f.* [French.] A kind of landscape, the representation of some part of a country in painting. *Philips.*

PAISHA'WUR, a city of Candabar, and capital of a district, in Cabulistan, situated on the Kameh: 125 miles south-east of Cabul, and 170 north of Moultan. Lat. 33. 18. N. lon. 70. 36. E.

PAISLEY, a town of Renfrewshire, Scotland, situated about six miles and a half west of Glasgow, on the river White Cart, over which there are two stone bridges of two arches each, and one which consists of three arches. The town is very ancient; but was of much less consequence formerly than it is at present. No satisfactory etymology has hitherto occurred of the name *Paisley*. The following has been suggested by a good Gaelic scholar: A ridge of rocks that runs across the river, and forms a beautiful cascade, would, prior to the building of the town, be undoubtedly the most striking object that the place would present. The brow or face of a rock is in Gaelic *Pais-licht*. A church in front of the rock would be the church in *Pais-licht*. A church did stand here previous to 1160: it is named in the foundation-charter *Ecclesia de Paislet*, Latinized, in the records of the monastery, *Paistatum*, an easy derivative from *Pais-licht*, and in all probability the original of the modern *Paisley*.

Paisley was erected into a burgh of barony by James IV. in the year 1488, at that time probably deriving all its importance from the rich monastery which had been established there for several ages; for George Shaw, who was then abbot of that monastery, obtained this privilege from the king. Under this grant it enjoys all the privileges of a royal borough, except the right of being represented in parliament, and of sending delegates to the general convention at Edinburgh. The corporation or magistracy consists of three bailies, and seventeen counsellors, who are elected annually, besides a treasurer, town

town-clerk, and other inferior magistrates. The bailies are invested with the powers of justices of the peace; and take cognizance, in the first instance, of all offences committed within their jurisdiction.

At the commencement of the last century, Paisley is described as consisting only of one principal street, about half a mile in length, with a few narrow lanes branching out on either side. Now, however, it is an extensive and well-built town, and contains many excellent public and private edifices, especially in that part called the New Town, which stands on the eastern bank of the river Cart, and is laid-out with great regularity. The streets are in general well paved and lighted, and exhibit all the marks of opulence and industry, some of them being crowded with warehouses and manufactories, occupied by the merchants and tradesmen. The whole town is built of stone; and, in all the modern streets, the houses have squared and smooth free-stone fronts, in the same manner as those of Edinburgh and Glasgow.

A particular account of the abbey of Paisley would fill many pages; but the subject is very curious, since it is the most important remain of antiquity, not only in Paisley, but perhaps in the whole county of Renfrew, as having probably been the nucleus which determined the origin of the town. It was first founded as a priory for monks of the order of Clugni about the year 1160, by Walter, great-steward of Scotland. It was afterwards raised to the rank of an abbacy; and the lands belonging to it were by Robert II. erected into a regality, under the jurisdiction of the abbot. After the reformation, the abbacy was secularized by the pope in favour of lord Claude Hamilton, third son of the duke of Chatelherault, in reward of his steady adherence to the cause of queen Mary; and, in 1588, it was by the king and parliament erected into a temporal lordship, and Claude was created Lord Paisley. The revenues of the abbacy were very considerable: they consisted of the tythes of twenty-eight different parishes, with the property of the lordships of Paisley, of Kilpatrick in Dumbartonshire, and of Monkton in Ayrshire, extending each to a hundred merk land; and the forty-pound land of Glen in Lochwinnoch; with the lands of Achengown, Grange, &c. and a considerable detached property in different parts of the kingdom. All this property, with the patronage of the several churches, fell to lord Claude Hamilton, last abbot of Paisley. It continued in that family till 1563, when his grandson, James earl of Abercorn, sold the lordship of Paisley to the earl of Angus, who next year sold it to William lord Cochrane; he sold also Kilpatrick to sir John Hamiltoun of Orbistoun, Monkton to lord Bargenny, and Glen to lord Semple and others. Great part of the lordship of Paisley was at different times sold off by the family of Dundonald; and what remained of it was in 1764 re-purchased by the eighth earl of Abercorn. The fabric of the abbey owed much of its magnificence to abbot George Shaw, who about 1484 enlarged and beautified the building, surrounding the church, the precincts of the convent, the gardens, and a small deer-park, with a noble wall of hewn freestone. The abbey was, after the reformation, successively the seat of the earls of Abercorn and Dundonald. The late earl of Dundonald demolished the ancient gateway; and, by feuing-off the immediately-adjoining grounds for building, entirely changed the appearance of the place. As it was thus rendered totally unfit for a family-residence, it has since that time been let out into separate dwellings, and is now in a very mean and almost-ruinous state. The wall stood almost entire till 1781; when, the garden being feued-off for building upon by the late earl of Abercorn, the wall was sold to the feuers, and the stones of it employed in their houses.

The monks here are supposed to have been the authors of the *Chronicon Clugniense*, or Black Book of Paisley, as it is usually called, from the colour of its boards. This curious monument of antiquity is a chronicle of the pub-

lic affairs of Scotland during several centuries, and is frequently quoted by Buchanan. It was long in the possession of the president Spottiswood; after his death, it was carried into England by general Lambert, and was subsequently deposited in the king's library at St. James's.

The abbey-church, the only one which Paisley formerly required, was, when entire, a most noble building, and consisted of several distinct and separate places of worship. What now remains of this magnificent Gothic structure, is not yet unworthy the notice of the curious in antiquities. Mr. Pennant says, the great north window is a noble ruin, the arch very lofty, the middle pillar wonderfully light, and still entire; only the chancel now remains, which is divided into a middle and two side aisles, by very lofty pillars with Gothic arches; above these is another range of pillars much larger, being the segment of a circle; and surmounted by a row of arched niches from end to end, over which the roof ends in a sharp point. The outside of the building is decorated with a profusion of ornaments, especially the great west and north doors, than which scarcely any thing lighter or richer can be imagined.

Close by this church is the marquis of Abercorn's burial-place, the greatest curiosity in Paisley. It is a vaulted Gothic chapel, without pulpit, pew, or any other ornament; but has the finest *echo* perhaps in the world. When the end-door (the only one it has) is shut, the noise is equal to a loud and not very distant clap of thunder. If you strike a single note of music, you have the sound gradually ascending, with a great number of repetitions, till it dies away as if at an immense distance, and all the while diffusing itself through the circumambient air. If a good voice sings, or a musical instrument is well played upon, the effect is inexpressibly agreeable. The deepest as well as the most acute tones are distinctly reverberated, and these in regular intervals of time. When a musical instrument is sounded, it has the effect of a number of instruments of a like size and kind playing in concert. When a number of different instruments in unison sound the same note, a good ear is able to distinguish the variety of sound produced by each. A single instrument sounding a particular note, and then instantly its fifth, or any other concordant note, the two sounds can be heard as if were running into and uniting with each other in a manner peculiarly agreeable. But the effect of a variety of instruments playing in concert is particularly charming, and must excite such emotions in the soul as it is impossible to describe. In this chapel is the monument of Marjory Bruce, daughter of Robert Bruce, and mother of Robert II. Her story is singular: In the year 1317, when she was big with child, she broke her neck in hunting near this place: the Cæsarion operation was instantly performed, and the child taken out alive; but the operator chancing to hurt one eye with his instrument, occasioned the blemish that gave this king afterwards the epithet of *Blair-eye*; and the monument is also styled that of *Queen Bleary*.

The town of Paisley continued a part of the original or abbey-parish of Paisley till the year 1738; when, the magistrates and council having purchased the right of patronage from the then earl of Dundonald, a new church was built, and the town was erected into a separate parish. This is called the *Laigh Church*, is built in the form of a Greek cross, very well laid-out, and capable of containing a great number of people. In 1756 another church was built, upon a very extended plan, to accommodate its multiplied inhabitants; in which, though it is one of the largest in Scotland, yet the most distant of the congregation can hear with ease and distinctness; and, as it stands upon the highest part of the town, it was afterwards ornamented with a lofty and well-proportioned spire, visible at a great distance. This is called the *High Church*, and is a very fine building: it is an oblong square of 82 feet by 62 within the walls, built of free-stone well smoothed, having rustic corners, and an elegant stone cor-

nice at the top. In the construction of the roof (which is a pavilion covered with slate, having a platform covered with lead on the top), there is something very curious; and it is admired by every person of taste. In 1781, the number of the inhabitants still rapidly increasing, another church, called the *Middle Church*, was built, not quite so large as the former, but very handsomely and elegantly finished: and, in the following year, the town was divided and erected into three separate parishes, exclusive of the abbey-parish, and named according to their respective churches.

There are two large dissenting congregations in the town; those of the Antiburgher persuasion, and the Relief. The first of these has existed there for upwards of thirty years; the other is of a late date. There is, besides, a small congregation of Cameronians.

The edifices appropriated to public business, charity, or amusement, are all of modern erection. The hospital, or poor-house, was built in 1752, and is under the management of fifteen directors: it is a large structure, with an extensive garden attached, and is supported by a small assessment on the inhabitants at large. The town-hall is a handsome building of cut stone. The market is probably the neatest and most commodious range of shambles in Great Britain: the front is of hewn stone. No public theatre has yet been erected here; but there are rooms appropriated to concerts and assemblies. A large subscription-room, on the plan of the Glasgow tontine, has been erected within the last five years.

Paisley has attained its present rank and importance from its manufactures; and hence it seems proper to give a slight sketch of the rise, and of the progressive changes, which these have undergone at different periods since their first establishment. At the time of the union, and for some years after, scarcely any other goods were produced here but coarse linen checks, and a kind of striped cloths called Bengals; and even these were manufactured only on a very limited scale. When a free trade, however, was opened with England, the spirit of manufacture began to display itself at Paisley with a vigour seldom paralleled. This resulted in a great measure from the exertions of pedlars, or, as they are called in Scotland, *packmen*, many of whom, having accumulated a small capital, settled in this town and its vicinity, and became resident manufacturers. The experience of what would suit the taste of the people, and the connections they had established in the course of their travelling career, presented many advantages in their new occupation, of which they did not fail to avail themselves. They first improved the quality of the linen-cloths above-mentioned; but these in a few years gave way entirely to articles of a lighter and more fanciful description; such as linen gauze and lawns, both plain and ornamented. The manufacture of thread was introduced about the year 1750, and still continues to afford employment to a large portion of the inhabitants. In 1760, the manufacture of silk-gauze was begun by Mr. McKerral of Hillhouse, and soon displaced the linen-cloths as the staple-produce of Paisley. Before that period, the patterns and designs of all fancy-goods were made at Paris; but the Paisley manufacturers, disdaining the servility of imitation, established draughtsmen of their own, whose productions were thought not only to rival, but to excel, those of the French artists. Hence such a variety of elegant and richly-ornamented gauzes was issued from this town, as surpassed every thing that had hitherto appeared. Spitalfields was compelled almost to abandon the manufacture; and several companies came down from London to carry it on, on the banks of the Cart, where it flourished beyond any manufacture which any town of Scotland could boast of, till the invention of Arkwright's machinery for spinning cotton, by rendering fabrics of that material both cheap and elegant, almost excluded silks from any share in female dress, when it of course declined, and is now almost abandoned. Following the tide of fashion, the manufacturers of Paisley turned their exertions into the new channel, and soon

brought their cottons into competition with those of Manchester itself. The whole neighbouring waters were speedily occupied with spinning-mills and bleach-fields; and many thousand persons took up the employment of weaving cottons here and in the surrounding villages.

Besides these principal manufactures, Paisley has some others of a more local description, likewise conducted on an extensive scale: tan-works, and soap and candle works, are numerous; and there is also a calico-printing work, a copperas-work, and several manufactories for tape and ribbons.

The number of inhabitants in the town of Paisley amounted in 1695 to 2200; in 1755 they were 4290; in 1782, 11,100; and in 1792 they were 13,800. According to the parliamentary-returns of 1811, it contains 2951 houses, and a population of 36,785 persons, including the two suburb-parishes of Abbey, east and west.

Of the Roman camp mentioned by Camden, as situated close to Paisley, very few vestiges remain; the valla are nearly levelled, and the ditches filled up. Of the out-works no distinct marks are now visible, excepting of one which was constructed at a spot still bearing the name of Castle Head. A military road led to this entrenchment, which is supposed to have been the Vaudara of Ptolemy.

Elderlie, in the vicinity of this town, is noted, in the annals of Scotland, as the birth-place of the illustrious sir William Wallace. *Pennant's Tour in Scotland. Beauties of Scotland*, vol. iii. *Statistical Account of Scotland*, vol. vii.

PAITA. See PAYTA.

PAITAN', a town on the north coast of the island of Borneo. Lat. 6. 32. N. lon. 117. 28. E.

PAITLEY, or PATELEY BRIDGE, a small market-town in the parish and liberty of Ripon, in the west riding of Yorkshire, is situated on the river Nidd, at the distance of twelve miles west-south-west from Ripon. The market is held on Saturday, and here are four fairs annually. It is somewhat singular that this town is not named in any of our Gazetteers; neither is it mentioned in the late population-reports, though several townships in the same parish are there noticed. *Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. xvi.

PAITSEPON', a town of Little Bukharia: fifty miles east-north-east of Kashgar.

PA'KA, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Koniggratz: eighteen miles north-north-west of Koniggratz. Lat. 50. 25. N. lon. 15. 22. E.

PA'KANG-GAY', a town of the kingdom of Birmah, on the Irawaddy: twenty-five miles south of Pegham-mew.

PAKASHASA'NA, one of the names of the Hindoo deity Indra, regent of the visible heavens.

PAKEFIELD, a village in Suffolk, about two miles from Lowestoff: this parish is bounded on the east by the German Ocean, which, by frequent dashing against the bases of the cliffs, has often received large portions of ponderous masses, together with the buildings they supported, into its voracious bosom. The trade consists only in a very small part of the herring-fishery. The church is dedicated to Margaret, and consists of two aisles built nearly uniform: the steeple stands at the west end of the south aisle, and contains five bells. The Quakers have had a meeting-house here for a hundred and thirty years past.

PA'KENHAM, a village in Suffolk: four miles east-north-east of Bury St. Edmunds.

PA'KIR, or PECHER, a sea-port town of Arabia, in the province of Oman. The inhabitants carry on a considerable commerce to India. The environs abound in cattle, grain, dates, raisins, and other fruits: 132 miles south-west of Hassek, and twenty-five east of Dofar.

PAKOL'TSZ, a town of the duchy of Warsaw: thirty-four miles north of Gnesna.

PAK'RATZ, a town of Sclavonia: twenty miles north-west of Pozzega.

PAKUP'ZKI, a town of Croatia, on the Kulpa: twenty miles east of Carlstadt.

PA'LA,

PA'LA, a town on the west coast of the island of Celebes. Lat. 2. 32. S. lon. 119. 9. E.

PALA'BROS, *f.* [Ital. on my word.] A kind of petty oath. *Shakespeare.*

PAL'ACE, *f.* [*palais*, Fr. *palatium*, Lat.] A royal house; an house eminently splendid:

The sun's bright *palace*, on high columns rais'd,
With burning gold and flaming jewels blaz'd. *Addison.*

The etymon of this word must be *Palatinum* or *Palatinus Ager*, where, according to Varro, the *Palatini*, or Aborigines, dwelt before the arrival of Æneas in Italy. *Palatinum* is a compound word, which includes the name of the country, *Latium*, with a prefix, which may signify *Purum Latum*, or *Præ-Latium*; "the very Latium," the principal or head place of the Latium. All other words collected in dictionaries as etymons are mere derivatives: we cannot therefore look upon the German and Saxon *palast*, or the Welsh and Cornish *plás*, as themata. (See Todd's Johnson.) It is clear that our word *place*, borrowed from the French, originates in *palatium*. *Etymological Gleanings*, MS.

Procopius derives the word from a Grecian called Palas, who gave his own name to a magnificent house he had built; adding, that Augustus, after him, gave the name *palatium* to the house of the Roman emperors on the hill which, for that reason, was called the *Palatine mount*. Others take it the contrary way; and say that Romulus's house, in which Augustus lived, was properly called *palatium*, because situate on the Palatine mount. Be this as it will, it is certain that *palatium*, from a proper name, in time became common to all houses of kings.

And, as the kings usually heard and determined causes in their houses, in what part of the realm soever they were situate; hence also *palatium* became a name for a court of justice, which usage is still retained. See the next article.

PAL'ACE-COURT, *f.* A court of legal jurisdiction, now held once a-week (together with the court of Marshalsea) in the Borough of Southwark. *Mason*.—Charles I. in the sixth year of his reign, by his letters-patent, erected a new court of record, called the *Curia Palatii*, or *palace-court*, to be held before the steward of the household and knight-marshal, and the steward of the court, or his deputy, with jurisdiction to hold pleas of all manner of personal actions whatsoever which shall arise between any parties within twelve miles of his majesty's palace at Whitehall. *Blackstone*.—For the distinction between the Marshalsea-court and the Palace-court, see the article LONDON, vol. xiii. p. 512.

PALA'CIOS, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon: eight miles south of Astorga.

PALA'CIOS, (Los), a town of Spain, in the province of Seville: ten miles south-east of Seville.

PALA'CIOUS, *adj.* [from *palace*.] Royal; noble; magnificent.—London increases daily, turning of great *palacious* houses into small tenements. *Graunt*.

PAL'ADA, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Aurungabad: forty-eight miles south-east of Aurungabad.

PAL'ADINE, *adj.* [*paladinus*, barb. Lat.] An epithet for a noble of eminent rank in the time of Charlemagne.—Such hath Orlando, Countie *Paladine*. *Harrington*.

PA'LÆ, anciently a town at the south of Corfica; now *St. Bonifacio*.

PALÆ'MON, or PALEMON, a sea-deity, son of Athamas and Ino. His original name was *Melicerta*; and he assumed that of Palæmon, after he had been changed into a sea-deity by Neptune. See MELICERTA.

PALÆ'MON (Quintus Remmius), a celebrated Roman grammarian in the reigns of Tiberius and Claudius, was a native of Vicenza, and domestic slave to a woman of that place; but, by attending her son to the academy, he acquired so much knowledge, that she gave him his

freedom, and he opened a grammar-school at Rome. He gained great reputation as a rhetorician and poet; but his morals were so loose, that he was considered a very improper preceptor for young people. His income, however, as teacher, was very considerable, but quite inadequate to his luxurious mode of living. The remains of this writer, who was so arrogant as to say that letters were born and would die with him, are, 1. *Ars Grammatica*, printed among the *Grammatici Antiqui*, of which the best edition is that of 1605. 2. *A treatise De Ponderibus et Mensuris*, printed at Leyden in 1587; but which has been ascribed to another writer of the same name. *Gen. Biog.*

PALÆOCAS'TRO. See THURIA.

PALÆOCH'ORI, or the OLD TOWN, otherwise called *Magoula*, the real site of the ancient city of Sparta. The New Town, under the name of MISITRA, (see vol. xv.) lies about two leagues west of it. *D'Anville*.—Mr. Chateaubriand visited this place in 1806, and describes the appearance of the ruins with great enthusiasm: "but this Magoula, formerly a considerable Turkish village, has also perished in this scene of desolation: its buildings are overthrown, and the index of ruins is itself but a ruin!" *Travels in Egypt, Palestine, &c. Paris, 1811.*

PALÆOL'OGUS (Michael), a very able man, who was governor of Asia under the emperor Theodorus Lascaris; and who, by various stratagems and cruelties, procured the empire for himself and his posterity.

PALÆP'APHOS, the ancient town of Paphos, in Cyprus, where stood a temple of Venus; and adjoining was the town called *Neo Paphos*, where St. Paul struck Elymas blind, and converted the proconsul Sergius Paulus.

PALÆPHARSALUS, the ancient town of Pharfalus, in Thessaly.

PALÆPH'ATUS. Of this name several ancient writers are recorded. One, an Athenian, placed among the poets anterior to Homer; one, a native of Paros or Priene, who lived under Artaxerxes Mnemon; and one, a grammarian and philosopher, born either at Athens, or in Egypt, posterior to Aristotle. Which of these is the author of a work remaining in the name of Palæphatus, is uncertain. It is in Greek, entitled *Περὶ τῶν Ἀπίστων*, *De Incredibilibus*; and its subject is the explication of ancient fables. It has been several times published in Greek and Latin: the best edition is that of I. F. Fischer, Lips. 1761, 1789. *Gen. Biog.*

PALÆP'OLIS, a town of Campania, built by a Greek colony, where Naples afterwards was erected.

PALÆSTE, *f.* The name of a Greek measure of length, being the same with the *doche* and *doron*, and containing four finger-breadths, or digits.

PALÆSTINUS, an ancient name of the river Strymon. *Lempriere*.

PALÆS'TRA, *f.* [Gr. from *παλν*, wrestling.] Among the ancient Greeks, a public building, where the youth exercised themselves in wrestling, running, playing at quoits, &c. The length of the *palæstra* was marked out by stadia, each equal to one hundred and twenty-five geometrical paces; and hence the name *stadium* was given to the arena whereon they ran.

Thefeus, according to Plutarch, is reported to have been the first who reduced wrestling into a science; and in process of time, though the rules which he laid down are unknown, it became one of the chief exercises of the olympic stadium, having been first introduced into it in the 18th olympiad; and Eurybalus, a Spartan, was the first who received the wrestler's crown. The most remarkable difference between the ancient and modern practice of this art is, that the ancient wrestlers contended naked, and that their bodies were rubbed all over with oil, or with a certain ointment, composed of a due proportion of oil, wax, and dust, mixed up together, which they called *ceroma*. In order, however, to qualify the extreme lubricity of the skin, occasioned by this unction, the athletes were accustomed, before they came to an engagement,

ment, either to roll themselves in the mud of the palæstra (from which some persons derive the words *palæ* and *palæstra*, *πηλος* signifying mud), or in the sand kept for that purpose, or that with which the place of combat seems to have been covered. It is certain, whatever was the mode of doing it, that the athlete, who were anointed, were always, before they engaged, sprinkled with dust or sand; so that to say an athlete gained a victory, *ἀνίκητος*, and without being so sprinkled, was the same thing as to say he gained a victory without engaging; which indeed sometimes happened, when, either from the great reputation of the champion, or other reasons, none appeared to encounter him. The office of anointing and sprinkling the combatants was sometimes performed by themselves upon one another, and sometimes by the officers of the palæstra, called from thence *αἰπταί*, or anointers.

After the wrestlers were thus prepared for the engagement, they were matched by the judges or presidents of the games in the following manner. In a silver urn consecrated to Jupiter, and brought forth upon this occasion, were cast so many lots or dice, about the bigness of a bean, as answered to the number of competitors. These lots were all marked with letters; as for example, upon two of them was written the letter A, B upon two others, and so on in alphabetical order. This being done, the athletes approached in order, and, invoking Jupiter, put their hands into the urn, and drew out each his lot: to prevent all fraud, an officer appointed for that purpose attended upon every one as he came to draw, and held up his hand before him, to hinder his seeing the letters written upon the lot. When every one had drawn, the presidents of the games, going round to every athlete in order as they stood, inspected the lots. And thus the two, whose lots were both marked with the same letter, as with A or B, were by him matched and appointed to engage with each other. This was the case when the number of the combatants was even, as four, eight, twelve; but, when the number was odd, as five, seven, nine, &c. there was put into the urn, together with the duplicate lots, an odd one, marked with a letter to which there was none that corresponded. The athlete who was fortunate enough to obtain this lot was named *ephedrus*, was to wait till the others had contended, and was then to take up one of the conquerors. This, as Lucian observes, was a very considerable advantage; as the champion, who by virtue of his lot was to wait till the others had contended, came fresh and vigorous to the encounter against an adversary, animated indeed and flushed with conquest, but shattered and exhausted in obtaining it.

The wrestlers, being thus matched, proceeded to the combat, in which the victory was adjudged to him who gave his adversary *three falls*. This seems to be evident, from the famous epigram upon Milo, with which we shall conclude this article.

The champion who distinguished himself the most in this exercise, was Milo of Crotona, who gained no less than six Olympic and as many Pythian crowns. There are so many instances of the prodigious strength of this famous wrestler, and most of them so well known, that it would be endless and impertinent to cite them all. (See *Milo*, vol. xv.) This Milo, to give a proof of his astonishing strength, was wont to take a pomegranate, which, without squeezing or breaking it, he held so fast by the mere strength of his fingers, that nobody was able to take it from him; "nobody but his mistress," says Ælian. But, however weak he may have been with regard to the fair sex, his superior force was universally acknowledged by the men, as will appear by the following epigram:

When none adventur'd, in th' olympic sand,
The might of boist'rous Milo to withstand;
Th' unrivall'd chief advanc'd to seize the crown,
But, 'mid his triumph, slipp'd unwary down.

The people shouted, and forbade bestow
The wreath on him who fell without a foe.
But, rising, in the midst he stood, and cry'd,
Do not *three falls* the victory decide?
Fortune indeed hath giv'n me *one*, but who
Will undertake to throw meth' *other two*? *Wesli's Pindar.*

PALÆSTRIC, *adj.* Belonging to bodily exercise.—They were so skilled in the *palæstric* art, that they slew all strangers whom they forced to engage with them. *Bryant's Analysis of Anc. Myth.*—Gentlemanly and *palæstric* exercises should be somewhat encouraged. *Life of a Dissenting Minister*, 1812.

PALÆSTROPHYLAX, *f.* The director of a palæstra, and of the exercises performed therein.

PALAFOX' Y MENDOZA (Don Juan de), a Spanish prelate, was born of a noble family at Arragon, in the year 1600. He studied at Salamanca, after which he was appointed a member of the council of war, and next to that of the Indies; but he renounced civil distinctions for the ecclesiastical state, and was made a bishop in Spanish America, with the title of judge of the administration of the three viceroys of the Indies. Zeal for the interests of the church involved him in some difficulties, and he was compelled to secrete himself to save his life. His conduct was however in every respect approved by the king; and he was appointed to the bishopric of Osma in 1653, in which he continued till his death, in 1656. He was a voluminous writer; but the works by which he is chiefly known, are, *The History of the Siege of Fontarabia*, and *The History of the Conquest of China by the Tartars*.

PALAFU'GELL, a town of Spain, in Catalonia: twenty miles south-east of Gerona.

PALAGONIA, a town of Sicily, in the Val di Noto.

PALAI'S (Le), a seaport town of France, and capital of the island of Belle-Île, situated on the east coast, and defended by a citadel, with good anchoring in the road; but vessels of above fifteen tons cannot enter except at high-water. It contains two churches, and about 500 houses: twenty-four miles south-east of L'Orient. Lat. 47. 21. N. lon. 3. 4. W.

PALAI'S (St.), a town of France, in the department of the Lower Pyrenees, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Mauléon, seated on the Bidouze; twenty-one miles south-east of Bayonne. The town contains 1000 inhabitants. Lat. 43. 19. N. lon. 0. 50. W.

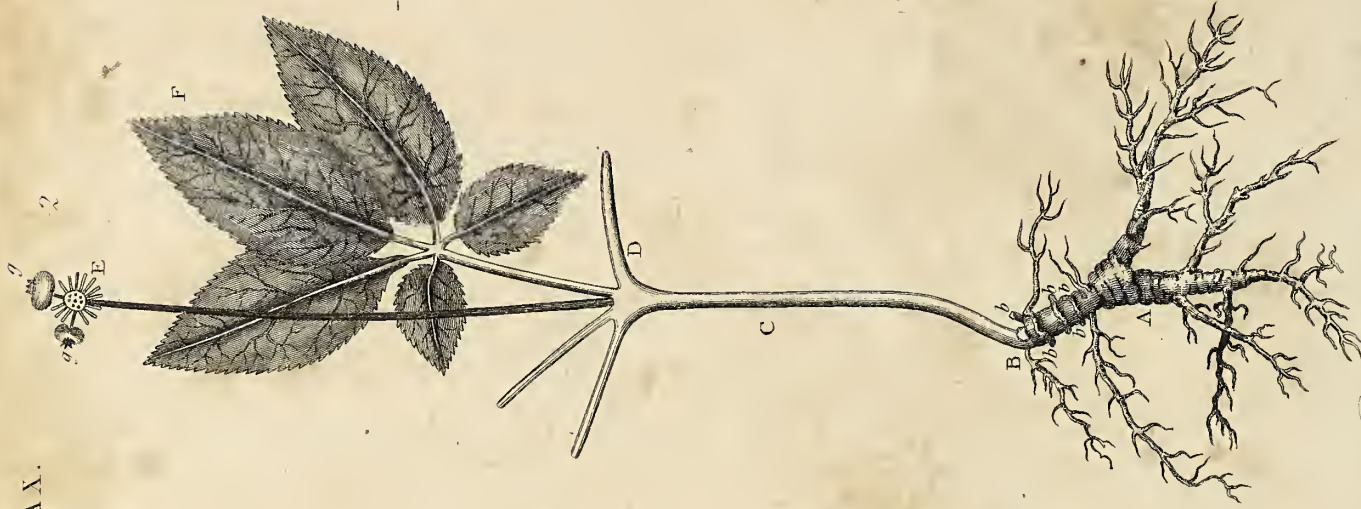
PALAISEAU'X, a town of France, in the department of the Seine and Oise: seven miles south-east of Versailles.

PALA'KA, a town of Turkish Armenia, in the government of Kars: sixty miles north-north-east of Kars.

PALAMA'DA, a town of Bengal: twenty-eight miles south of Doesa.

PALAMBANG', or **PALEMBANG**, a town of the island of Sumatra, situated on a river of the same name, about fifty miles from the sea; the capital of a kingdom, of which the dominions are extensive, and comprehend the island of Banca. Palambang is peopled mostly by Javans, in consequence of that part of the island being formerly under the jurisdiction of the Bantam empire, whence its sovereigns derived their appointment. It has been since under the immediate protection of the Dutch government at Batavia, who have had a chief and factory there, and procure from it pepper and tin. It has likewise been an useful mart to them, for vending opium and other commodities from the west of India. The tin, though exported from Palambang, is dug up in the island of Banca, which covers the mouth of the river, and constitutes a trade of considerable importance. The king of Palambang, whose dominions are very extensive, reaching as far as the hills of Lampooon to the southward, and comprehending the island of Banca, accumulates immense riches. It is said that the quantity of pepper brought annually from Palambang is about 2,000,000 lbs. which is

PALAMEDEA AND PANAX.



Chinese Ginseng.



The Horned Grebe.



Monogram of the printer Palmer.

is purchased at the rate of two stivers per lb. The Dutch company likewise take about 1000 carats of rough diamonds, and a considerable quantity of canes and rattans. For these commodities, a large sum in specie is yearly required to balance with the king. In 1771 the Dutch company rebuilt there an old ruined fort, in a pentagonal form, at the charge of about 7322l. sterling. Lat. 2. 50. S. lon. 104. 59. E. *Marsden's Sumatra. Stavorinus's Voyage*, vol. i.

PALAMBU'AN. See BALAMBUAN.

PALAMCOT'TA. See TINEVELLY.

PALAMEDE'A, *f.* the SCREAMER; in ornithology, a genus of birds of the order grallæ, of which the generic characters are—Bill conic, the upper mandible hooked; nostrils oval; feet four-toed, cleft, a very small membrane connecting the toes at the root. There are only two species of this genus; both natives of South America.

1. *Palamedea cornuta*, the horned screamer: wings with two spines at the bend; the front is horned; hence its specific name.

Amidst the discordant sounds of the aquatic birds and croaking reptiles of the marshes of Guiana, there is heard, at intervals, a powerful note which drowns the rest, and rebellow from the distant shores: it is the deep and tremulous voice of the screamer, a large dusky bird, distinguished by the singularity of its armour. On its head stands a pointed horn, three or four inches long, and two or three lines in diameter at the base: this horn, which is inserted on the top of the forehead, rises straight, and terminates in a sharp point bent somewhat forward; near the base it is sheathed like the quill of a feather. Besides the horn which grows out of the head, it has in each pinion two spurs, which project forward when the wing is closed. These spurs are the apophyses of the metacarpal bone, and rise from the anterior part of these extremities; the upper spur is largest, of a triangular form, two inches long, and nine lines broad at the base, somewhat curved, and terminating in a point; it is also invested with a sheath of the same substance at the base of the horn. The lower apophysis of the metacarpal bone is only four lines long, of the same breadth at its origin, and similarly sheathed. With this furniture of offensive arms, which would render it formidable in combat, the screamer never attacks other birds, but wages war only against reptiles. It seems even to have a gentle and feeling disposition; for the male and female keep constantly together. Love binds their affections by an indissoluble chain: if one happens to die, the survivor can hardly support the loss of its companion; it wanders, perpetually moaning, and consumes the wretched remainder of its life near the scenes of tender recollection, and of past joys.

If the affectionate character of this bird forms a contrast to its mode of life, a like opposition obtains in its physical structure. It subsists on prey, and yet it has the bill of a granivorous bird; and, notwithstanding its spurs and its horn, the head resembles that of a gallinaceous bird. Its legs are short, but its wings and tail are long; the upper mandible projects over the lower, and bends somewhat at the point; the head is clothed with small downy feathers, bristled and crisped, intermixed with black and white; the same curled plumage covers the top of the neck; the lower part is covered with broader thicker feathers, black at the edge, and grey within; the mantle is brownish-black, with greenish reflections, and sometimes mixed with white spots; the shoulders are marked with rufous, and that colour extends on the edge of the wings, which are spacious; they reach almost to the end of the tail, which is nine inches long. The bill is two inches long, eight lines broad, and ten thick at the base; the leg joins to a small naked part of the thigh, and is seven inches and a half high; it is covered with a rough and black skin, whose scales are strongly marked on the toes, which are very long; the middle

one, including the nail, is five inches, and the nails are half-hooked, scooped out below; the hind nail is slender, almost straight, and very long. The total length of the bird is three feet: we could not perceive the great difference, in point of size, noticed by Marcgrave, between the male and female. They appear to be nearly of the magnitude of the turkey-cock.

Willughby justly remarks, that nature has bestowed extraordinary qualities on this bird; the horn, which projects from its head, would alone discriminate it from the whole class of birds. Barrere was mistaken, therefore, in ranging it with the eagles; since it has neither their bill, their head, nor their feet. It builds its nest in the form of an oven, at the foot of some tree; it walks with its neck erect and its head lofty, and haunts the forests; but it is mostly found searching for its prey in the savannas. It lays two eggs, the size of those of a goose; yet in this authors differ. Bacon says also, that it makes the nest both in thickets, at some distance from the ground, and often among the rushes. Fermin tells us, that it builds on high trees. The young are brought up in the nest till able to shift for themselves: they have but one nest in the year, which is in January or February, except the first eggs are taken, in which case they make a second in April or May. The young birds are frequently eaten by the natives, though the colour of the flesh is very dark; that of the old ones is tough and ill-tasted. By some authors, this species is said to feed on crabs and birds, such as pigeons, poultry, &c. and even to attack sheep and goats; but this is denied by others, who say that its principal food is reptiles. In the stomach of one which M. Bajon dissected, there were only found herbs and seeds of plants; however, he adds that the bird has no gizzard. This is a rare species, found hitherto only in certain districts in Guiana, Surinam, and other parts of South America, chiefly in the marshes and wet savannas, and for the most part near the sea. These seem to be the birds mentioned by Ulloa, which are called, by the inhabitants of Quito, *dispertadores* or awakeners, from their giving notice to others of the approach of danger; as, on hearing the least noise, or seeing any one, though at a great distance, they rise from the ground, and make a loud screaming noise, hovering over the object which caused the alarm, whereby the rest of the birds, taking the hint, are able to escape impending danger. This screaming noise, which some authors relate as being exceedingly loud and terrible, occasioned Mr. Pennant to give the genus the name it bears. In the Hunterian Museum there is a fine specimen of this bird, brought from Cayenne. See the annexed Plate, fig. 1.

2. *Palamedea cristata*, the crested screamer: a crest instead of a horn; no spines at the wings. This (doubtful) species is about the size of a heron. The bill is short, bent like that of a bird of prey, and of a yellowish-brown; irides gold colour. On the forehead, just above the bill, is a tuft of black feathers, variegated with ash-colour: the head, neck, and body, are grey, mixed with rufous and brown, most inclining to the last on the wings and tail; the legs are pretty long, and of a dull-yellow: claws brown; the hind toe is placed high up, so as not to touch the ground in walking. This bird inhabits Brazil. Linnæus places it in the screamer genus, perhaps for its cry, for it is said to be heard far off. None of our later writers seem to have seen it, all of them relying on Marcgrave, both for description and figure. It is said to feed on the same food as the heron tribe: the flesh is good, and the bird by some kept tame.

PALAMEDES, a Grecian chief, son of Nauplius, king of Eubœa. He was sent by the Greek princes who were going to the Trojan war, to bring Ulysses to the camp; who, to withdraw himself from the expedition, pretended infamy; and the better to impose upon his friends, used to harness different animals to a plough, and sow salt instead of barley into the furrows. The deceit was soon perceived by Palamedes; he knew that the regret to part

from his wife Penelope, was the only reason of the pretended insanity of Ulysses; and, to demonstrate this, Palamedes took Telemachus, whom Penelope had lately brought into the world, and put him before the plough of his father. Ulysses showed that he was not insane, by turning the plough a different way not to hurt his child. This having been discovered, Ulysses was obliged to attend the Greek princes to the war; but a mortal enmity arose between Ulysses and Palamedes. The king of Ithaca resolved to take every opportunity to distress him, and, when all his expectations were frustrated, he had the meanness to bribe one of his servants, and to make him dig a hole in his master's tent, and there conceal a large sum of money. After this Ulysses forged a letter in Phrygian characters, which king Priam was supposed to have sent to Palamedes. In the letter the Trojan king seemed to entreat Palamedes to deliver into his hands the Grecian army, according to the conditions which had been previously agreed upon, when he received the money. This forged letter was carried by means of Ulysses before the princes of the Grecian army. Palamedes was summoned, and he made the most solemn protestations of innocence; but all was in vain; the money that was discovered in his tent served only to corroborate the accusation: he was found guilty by all the army, and stoned to death. Homer is silent about the miserable fate of Palamedes; and Pausanias mentions that it had been reported by some that Ulysses and Diomedes had drowned him in the sea as he was fishing on the coast. Philostratus, who mentions the tragical story above related, adds, that Achilles and Ajax buried his body with great pomp on the sea-shore, and that they raised upon it a small chapel, where sacrifices were regularly offered by the inhabitants of Troas.

Palamedes was a learned man as well as a soldier: and to him are ascribed the invention of weights and measures; the art of drawing up a battalion; the regulation of the year by the course of the sun, and of the month by that of the moon; likewise the games of dice, and even chess, are ascribed to him. Pliny affirms that during the siege of Troy he invented the four letters in the Greek alphabet θ , ξ , ϕ , χ ; but Philostratus ascribes to him only the ν , ϕ , and χ .

PALAMI'DA, a fortress of Sicily, on the north-west coast, in the valley of Mazara: fourteen miles west of Palermo.

PALAMOS, a seaport town of Spain, in Catalonia, situated on the coast of the Mediterranean, fortified, and defended by a citadel: twenty-two miles south-east of Gerona. Lat. 41. 50. N. lon. 2. 58. E.

PALAMO'W, a circar of Bengal; bounded on the north by Bahar, on the east by Koondah, Toree, and Nagpour, on the south-east by Burwah, on the south-west by Sirgooja, and on the west by Bittounga; about eighty miles long, and forty in its main breadth. Palamow, the capital, is 120 miles south-south-west of Patna, and 230 west-north-west of Calcutta. Lat. 23. 48. N. lon. 84. 20. E.

PALAMPONG', a town on the west coast of the island of Leyta. Lat. 10. 58. N. lon. 124. 14. E.

PALA'NA, a town of Peru, in the audience of Quito: fifty miles south of Loxa.

PALA'NA, a town on the west coast of the island of Lucón, at the entrance of Caiguran Bay. Lat. 16. 45. N. lon. 122. 14. E.

PAL'ANDER. See **PALENDER**.

PALAN'DO, a town of South America, in the province of Quito: forty-five miles south of Loxa.

PALA'NE, a river of Africa, which runs into the Indian Sea near Mozambique.

PALAN'KA, a town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria: forty miles south of Sophia.—Another in Bessarabia, on the Dneister: thirty-two miles north-west of Akerman, and forty south-east of Bender.

PALAN'KA, a castle of Hungary: twenty-two miles north-east of Gran.

PALAN'QUE, *f.* [French.] A kind of fortification so called in Hungary. It is made of stakes driven into the ground, interlaced with twigs, and covered with earth; and serves to stop the progress of an advancing enemy. *James's Mil. Dict.*

PALANQUIN, *f.* [Ind. *palkee*.] At first called by us *palanke*. "They ride on men's shoulders in a slight thing they call a *palanke*, made somewhat like a couch or standing pallat, covered with a canopie, wherein a man may lie at his full length." Terry's Voyage to East-India, &c. 1655.] A kind of covered carriage used in the eastern countries, supported on the shoulders of four men, and wherein persons of distinction are carried.—He appeared with all the pomp known among a simple people, being carried in a sort of *palanquin* upon the shoulders of four men. *Robertson*.—A kind of bier.—The little *palanquin*, into which they put the corpse, is carried by his kindred. *Hist. of the Kingdom of Macassar*, 1701.

PALANTO'NE, a town of Italy: twelve miles north-west of Ferrara.

PALA'NY, a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: seven miles south-east of Bahar.

PALAN'ZA, a town of Italy, on the west side of Lake Maggiore: fifteen miles south-east of Domo d'Ossello.

PALA'OS. See **NEW PHILIPPINES**.

PALAPET'TY, a town of Hindoostan, in the province of Dindigul: eighteen miles north of Dindigul.

PALAPOU'R, a town of Bengal: twenty-two miles east of Boglipour.

PALAPRAT' (John), a poet and dramatic writer, was born at Toulouse in the year 1650. He distinguished himself from his youth by a talent for poetry, and obtained several prizes at the Floral games of that city. He was brought up to the legal profession, and obtained some offices of consideration, in which he conducted himself with great credit. At length an attachment to literature gave him a distaste for business; and Paris became his principal abode. In 1691, the duke of Vendome attached him to his person in quality of secretary. He employed himself, at Paris, chiefly in theatrical compositions; and he contracted an intimacy with the abbé Brueys, in concert with whom he wrote several pieces for the stage, of the comic class. It is to their mutual credit, that their friendship continued unchanged by envy till death. Of their conjunct performances, three have kept their place on the stage, together with one of his sole composition. He also wrote eight discourses on different subjects, and published a volume of poems, mostly addressed to M. de Vendome. The character of his works is gaiety and vivacity, with an air of simplicity, but with little regard to correctness. His dramatic pieces are contained in the collection of those of Brueys. Palaprat died at Paris in 1721, at the age of seventy-two.

PALA'RIA, *f.* Among the Romans, a kind of exercise performed at a stake by the soldiers. The stake being fixed immovable in the ground, and six feet high above it, the young undisciplined soldiers advanced against it armed with a hurdle and cudgel, instead of a shield and sword, and went through all the rules of attack and defence, as if actually engaged with an adversary. Sometimes they stood at a distance, and attacked it with misfiring weapons, at the same time using all the requisite motions for defending themselves, and warding-off what might be thrown against them.

PALASBA'RY, a town of Bengal: six miles north-north-east of Goragot.

PALASBO'NA, a town of Bengal: sixteen miles south of Rajemal.

PALASCO, a town of the island of Corsica: fourteen miles north of Corte.

PALAS'Z, a town of European Turkey, in Servia: fifteen miles south-west of Belgrade.

PAL'ATABLE, *adj.* [from *palate*.] Gustful; pleasing to the taste.—There is nothing so difficult as the art of making advice agreeable. How many devices have been made

made use of to render this bitter potion *palatable*! *Addison*.

They, by the alluring odour drawn in haste,
Fly to the dulcet cates, and, crowding, sip
Their *palatable* bane.

Philips.

PALAT'CHA, or PALATSA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, situated near the coast of the Archipelago. It is eight miles north of Milet, and twenty-one south of Scalanova. Lat. 37. 31. N. lon. 27. 12. E.

PALAT'CHY, a town of Hindoostan: fifteen miles south of Coimbetore.

PAL'ATE, *f.* [*palatum*, Lat.] The instrument of taste; the upper part or roof of the mouth.—Light and colours come in only by the eyes; all kind of sounds only by the ears; the several tastes and smells by the nose and *palate*. *Loeke*.

By nerves about our *palate* plac'd
She likewise judges of the taste;
Else, dismal thought! our warlike men
Might drink thick port for fine champagne.

Prior.

The vulgar boil, the learned roast, an egg;
Hard task to hit the *palate* of such guests.

Pope.

Mental relish; intellectual taste.—It may be the *palate* of the soul is disposed by listlessness or sorrow. *Taylor*.—The men of nice *palates* could not relish Aristotle, as dress'd up by the schoolmen. *Baker on Learning*.

To PAL'ATE, *v. a.* To perceive by the taste.

He merits well to have her, that doth seek her
(Not making any scruple of her soileure)
With such a hell of pain, and world of charge;
And you as well to keep her, that defend her
(Not *palating* the taste of her dishonour)
With such a costly loss of wealth and friends. *Shakespeare*.

PALA'TIAL, *adj.* [from *palatum*, Lat.] Befitting a palace; magnificent.—A magnificent structure, said to have been a monastery: I rather suppose it to have been the grand-commanderie of the island, for it is built in the *palatial* stile of those days. *Drummond*.

PALAT'IC, *adj.* [from *palate*.] Belonging to the palate or roof of the mouth.—The three labials, *p*, *b*, *m*, are parallel to the three gingival, *t*, *d*, *n*, and to the three *palatine*, *h*, *g*, *l*. *Holder*.

PALATINATE, *f.* [*palatinatus*, Lat.] A province or signory possessed by a palatine, and from which he takes his title and dignity.

The palatinates now subsisting, are either those of Germany or Poland. Those of Germany are the principalities of the Upper and Lower Rhine; that is, of Bavaria, and the Rhine. The palatinates in Poland are the provinces and districts of the Polish grandees or senators, who are the governors thereof.

PALATINATE OF THE RHINE, or LOWER PALATINATE, a country of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine; bounded on the north by the electorate of Mentz and Catzenelnbogen; on the east by Catzenelnbogen, the electorate of Mentz, the bishopric of Worms, and a part of Franconia; on the south, by the duchy of Wurtemberg and the bishopric of Spire; and on the west by France, the duchies of Deux Ponts and Simmern, and the county of Sponheim. The greatest extent about eighty miles. This country indeed is partly mountainous, but yet uncommonly fertile, producing in abundance all manner of corn, pulse, fruit, chesnuts, and walnuts; and having also fine pasturage, and a good breed of cattle; together with plantations of tobacco, particularly between Heidelberg and Mannheim, as also good Neckar and Rhenish wine: the latter of these wines grows chiefly about Bacharach, and likewise on the Bergstrass. This Bergstrass is an agreeable highway, situated between Heidelberg and Darmstadt, which is planted with walnut-trees, and on both sides has fruitful fields and meadows, intermixed with hills and mountains, which on the right side of the road (namely, in travelling from Heidelberg to

Darmstadt), run to a considerable length, and are covered on the summits with woods, but towards the plain with vines. On all parts of the Bergstrass also grow almonds in great plenty, and in the vineyards up and down are chesnut-trees. The Rhine runs partly through the borders of this electorate-palatine, partly through its centre. In it also, near Germerheim and Seltz, out of the sands is washed the best gold; and to this gold the Rhenish gold florins owe their origin. The electorate-palatine contains in it forty-one towns and several boroughs. The ecclesiastical state has been subjected to a variety of alterations; the doctrines of Calvin and Luther having prevailed by turns, after the reformation had been at first introduced in the year 1518. The name and origin of the palatines, or phalzgraves, is deduced from the *palatia*, or palaces, (in the language of this country called *palzen*, *phalzen*, or *psalzen*) which the old Frankish and German kings and Roman emperors were possessed of in various places, and over which they appointed supreme stewards and judges, who were styled *psallenzgraves* or *psalzgraves*. The addition of *by* or *on the Rhine* first occurs in the year 1093. The electoral palatinate, ever since the resignation of the Upper Palatinate to the elector of Bavaria, paid only the half of the electoral evaluation. All that part of the palatinate which lay on the left side of the Rhine was by the peace of Luneville ceded to France, and formed the department of Mont Tonnerre. That department was, however, entirely taken from France at the peace of 1815; part of it was given to the grand-duke of Hesse, and the rest of it (we believe) to the emperor of Austria.

PALATINATE (Upper, or Bavarian), a part of Bavaria, bounded on the west and north-west by Franconia, on the east and north-east by Bohemia, and on the south by the duchy of Neuburg and Lower Bavaria. This country, in the twelfth century, belonged to the dukes of Swabia. They afterwards were annexed to the palatinate of the Rhine. In the year 1354, a great part was sold to Bohemia; and, after often changing its lords, at last, by the peace of Baden, in the year 1714, it was ceded to the elector of Bavaria; and was confirmed to him, with the title of king, by the treaty of Vienna, June 1815. Amberg is the capital of the Bavarian palatinate.

PALATINE, *adj.* Possessing royal privileges.—Many of those lords, to whom our kings had granted those petty kingdoms, did exercise *jura regalia*, inasmuch as there were no less than eight counties-palatine in Ireland at one time. *Davies on Ireland*.

PALATINE, or COUNT PALATINE, a title anciently given to all persons who had any office or employment in the prince's palace. The appellation is derived hence, that, anciently, the emperors sent the judges of their palace, whom they called *comites palatini*, or *pals-graves*, to correct the abuses of the other judges in the provinces of Saxony, Bavaria, Franconia, and the Rhine. Matthæus says, that the palatines were originally those who had the superintendence of the palace; the same with what the Greeks called *curopalata*, and the French *maîtres du palais*; though, in time, the name became more general.

PALATINE was afterwards a title conferred on those delegated by princes to hold courts of justice in the provinces; and on such among the lords as had a palace, that is, a court of justice, in their own houses. The French writers make the palatines of Champagne to be the first who bore that title; which, they will have it, the Germans and other people borrowed from them, not they from the Germans.

PAL'ATINE, *adj.* [from *palate*.] An epithet applied to many parts about the roof of the mouth: as the *palatine* artery, a branch of the internal maxillary; the *palatine* glands; the *palatine* ducts, which were supposed communications between the nose and mouth through the anterior palatine holes, or *foramina incisiva*; the *palatine* nerves, branches of the superior maxillary; the *palatine* processes of the superior maxillary and palate-bones. See ANATOMY.

PAL'ATINE,

PAL'ATINE, a post-town of the state of New-York, on the Mohawk river: 150 miles north of New-York.

PAL'ATINE BRID'GE, a bridge of ancient Rome, now called *St. Mary's Bridge*, which crosses over from the present church of St. Mary the Egyptian, at the lower end of the Forum Boarium to the Via Trans-tiberina. This bridge is supposed to be that which Livy speaks of (Decad. 4. l. 10.), built by M. Fulvius, washed down by the Tiber, and afterwards rebuilt by the censors Scipio Africanus and L. Mummius. Another inundation having damaged it, pope Gregory XIII. repaired it, partly upon the old piles, in the year 1575. But, another inundation sweeping away some of it in 1598, it has never since been repaired so as to be serviceable.

PALATINE COUNTRY. See COUNTRY, vol. iv.

PAL'ATINE GA'MES, among the Romans, were games instituted in honour of Julius Cæsar as some will have it, or, as others say, of Augustus, and celebrated in his palace during eight days, from the sixth calends of January. Suetonius informs us, that Caligula attended these games when he was assassinated.

PALATINE MOUNT, one of the seven principal hills inclosed within the walls of ancient Rome. Whether the Palatine-hill received its name from a people called *Palantes*, or *Palatini*, or from the beating or strolling of cattle, in Latin *balare* and *palare*; or from *Pales*, the pastoral goddess; or from the burying-place of *Pallas*; is disputed among the learned, and undetermined. (See PALACE.) Here, however, Romulus laid the foundation of his city, in a quadrangular form; and here the same king and Tullus Hostilius kept their courts; as did afterwards Augustus and all the succeeding emperors; on which account the word *palatium* came to signify a royal seat. To the east of this hill is Mons Cælius, to the south Mons Aventinus, to the west Mons Capitolinus, and to the north the forum. Its compass is 1200 paces. Romulus's house, preserved for several ages by the care of the senate, was on this hill, near the spot where the church of St. Anastasia now stands; as was also that of his foster-father Faustulus, near the place now occupied by the church of Sancta Maria Liberatrice.

PALATINE TRIBE, was one of the four tribes into which Rome was anciently divided. Servius Tullus added a fourth tribe to the three tribes into which Rome was divided by Romulus; and, having inclosed the seven hills within the city, and divided it into four quarters, which he named from the principal hills they contained, he assigned to each tribe its appropriate district. Thus, the inhabitants of the Capitoline Mount, the Palatine Mount, and the space between these two hills, composed the first tribe, called *Tribus Palatina*. They who dwelt in the quarter called Suburra, containing Mount Cælius, formed the second tribe, which retained the name of *Tribus Suburrana*. The inhabitants of the Esquiline Mount were called *Tribus Esquilina*. And they who lived on the Mounts Viminalis and Quirinalis, bore the name of the hills on which they were placed, and were called *Tribus Collina*, or *Collatina*.

PAL'ATIVE, *adj.* [from *palate*.] Pleasing to the taste. —Glut not thyself with *palative* delights. *Brown's Chr. Mor.*

PALA'TIUM, in ancient geography, a place in the territory of Reate, distant from it twenty-five stadia. Dionysius Halicarnæsis reckons it one of the first towns of the Aborigines; and from it Varro accounts for the name of the *Mons Palatinus*; namely, that a colony from Palatium settled there.

PALA'TIUM (Pliny), PALLANTIUM (Pausanias), PALANTEUM (Livy), or PALLANTEUM (Solinus). This last is the true writing; the great-grandfather of Evander, from whom it took its name, being called *Pallas*, not *Palas*. A town of Arcadia, which concurred to form Megalopolis. From it the *Palatium*, or *Mons Palatinus*, takes also its name, according to Virgil and Pliny.

PALA'TIUM DIOCLESIA'NI, the VILLA of DIOCLE-

SIAN, near Salonæ, where he died. Afterwards called *Spalatum*, which rose to a considerable city from the ruins of Salonæ; situated in Dalmatia, on the Adriatic. Now *Spalatro*.

PALA'TIUM LUCUL'LI, or VILLA LUCUL'LI; a place between Misenum and Baiæ in Campania, of wonderful structure. Now in ruins, and called *Piscina Mirabile*.

PALATULUN'GA, a town of Hindoostan, in Coim-betore: fifteen miles south-west of Errood.

PALAT'Z. See MILETS.

PALAVA'I, a town of the island of Ceylon: forty-eight miles west-north-west of Candy.

PALAVAS'ENY, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Joodpour: fifteen miles east of Joodpour.

PALA'VER, *f.* [supposed to be from the Spanish *palabra*, a word; whence, in Shakespeare, *palabras* is twice used in a cant sense, the context implying, Let us have no more talk, no more words. Hence also to *palabrize*, to flatter, to talk one over with fine stories, crept into the language, as in Cockeram's old vocabulary; which has been succeeded by the modern verb *palaver*, in the same sense: but it is used only by the vulgar.] Superfluous talk; deceitful conversation. *Todd.*—*Palaver* is derived from the ordinary Celtic word *parabl*, loquela. *Whiter Etym. Magn.*—Upon this quotation, furnished by Mr. Todd, our "Etymological Gleaner" very justly remarks, It is well known that *parabl* is not a Celtic word, but a Greek one, *παράβολον*; from which we have also made *parable*, an intricate speech, a circumlocution, an enigma, or simile.

PALAVÉ is also an African term, denoting a court of justice, or a public meeting of any kind. *New Cyclopædia.*

PALA'VIA, *f.* [so named in honour of Don Antonio Palau y Verdera, professor of botany in the royal garden at Madrid, who translated the *Philosophia Botanica* of Linnaeus into Spanish, and who, according to Cavanilles, has given much attention to the genera and species of plants. This gentleman is the author of several botanical or economical treatises in his native tongue.] In botany, a genus of the class monadelphia, order polyandria, natural order of columiferæ, (malvaceæ, *Juss.*) Generic characters—Calyx: perianthium one-leaved, half-five-cleft, permanent. Corolla: petals five, roundish, inserted into the base of the tube of stamens. Stamina: filaments very many, united below into a tube, in the top of the tube free; antheræ roundish. Pistillum: germ globular; style many-cleft at top, short; stigmas capitate. Perianthium: capsule roundish, many-celled: cells not opening, placed in a ball on the elevated central receptacle. Seeds solitary, roundish, angular.—*Essential Character.* Calyx half-five-cleft; style many-cleft; capsule many-celled: cells in a ball on the raised central receptacle. There are two species.

1. *Palavia malvifolia*: with smooth cordate leaves, either obtusely and deeply crenated, or lobed. This is an annual, with red, declinate, very-branched, stems, scarcely a palm long; leaves subobovate, smooth, alternate, with footstalks almost their own length: stipules small, blackish, lanceolate, and hispid. Flowers on long single peduncles, which are red, and shorter than the leaves: corolla rose-coloured. It is a native of sandy places at Lima in Peru, where it was first observed by Dombey: it flowers in that region in July, August, and September.

2. *Palavia moschata*: with tomentose, cordate, and ovate-crenated, leaves. This, which is the *Sida moschata* of Dombey, is also an annual; growing in sandy places in the neighbourhood of Lima, where it was also first observed by Dombey. The whole plant is downy, and has a musky smell. The stem is upright, branched, and two feet high: leaves somewhat wrinkled, cordate-ovate, sublobate, or obtusely and widely crenated; they stand alternate. Flowers solitary, axillary, and peduncled: peduncles jointed, and longer than the leaves; they are large, and of a yellowish purple.

PALAWAN'.

PALAWAN'. See PARAGUAY.

PALAZOL', a small island in the Adriatic. Lat. 44. 46. N. lon. 14. 47. E.

PALAZZO, a town of France, in the department of the Dora: five miles east of Ivrea.

PALAZZUO'LO, a town of Italy, in Friuli: fourteen miles south-west of Palma la Nuova.

PALAZZUO'LO, a town of Italy: fifteen miles west of Brescia.

PALAZZUO'LO, a town of the island of Sicily, in the valley of Noto: twenty miles west of Syracuse. Lat. 36. 55. N. lon. 15. 0. E.

PALCA'TI NOR', a lake of Tartary, in the country of the Eluths, called also *Tchoi*: thirty miles west of Harcas.

PAL'CIPAS, a town of South-America, in the province of Tucuman: fifty miles west-north-west of St. Fernando.

PALCOO'R, a town of Hindoostan: thirty miles south of Tinevelly.

PALCO'TE, a town of Bengal: sixteen miles south-west of Doofa. Lat. 22. 48. N. lon. 84. 53. E.

PALDA'MO, a town of Sweden, in the province of Cajana: five miles north of Cajanaborg.

PALDIA'NO, a town of the popedom, in the Campagna di Roma: five miles east-south-east of Palestrina.

PALE, *adj.* [Fr. from *pallidus*, Lat.] Not ruddy; not fresh of colour; wan; white of look.—Look I so *pale*, lord Dorset, as the rest? *Shakespeare*.

Was the hope drunk

Wherein you drest yourself? Hath it slept since?
And wakes it now to look so green and *pale*? *Shakespeare*.
Not high-coloured; approaching to colourless transparency.—When the urine turns *pale*, the patient is in danger. *Arbutnot*.—Not bright; not shining; faint of lustre; dim:

The night, methinks, is but the day-light sick;
It looks a little *paler*. *Shakespeare's Merch. of Ven.*

PALE, *f.* Palenefs:

His cheek, where love with beauty glow'd,
A deadly *pale* o'ercast. *Mallet's Edwin and Emma*.

To PALE, *v. a.* To make pale.—The sterre, dymmed,
paleth her white cheres by the flambes of the sunne that
overcommeth the sterre-light. *Chaucer's Boeth.*

The glow-worm shews the matin to be near,
And gins to *pale* his uneffectual fire. *Shakespeare*.

To teach it good and ill, disgrace or fame;
Pale it with rage, or redder it with shame. *Prior*.

PALE, *f.* [pal, Sax. *palus*, Lat.] A narrow piece of
wood joined above and below to a rail, to inclose grounds.
—Deer creep through when a *pale* tumbles down. *Mortimer*.

As their example still prevails,
She tempts the stream, or leaps the *pales*. *Prior*.

Any inclosure.—Thin enemyes schulen envyyrowne thee
with a *pale*. *Wicliffe's Luke* xix. 43.—Having been born
within the *pale* of the church, and so brought up in the
Christian religion, by which we have been partakers of
those precious advantages of the word and sacraments.
Whole Duty of Man.—He hath proposed a standing revelation,
so well confirmed by miracles, that it should be
needless to recur to them for the conviction of any man
born within the *pale* of Christianity. *Atterbury*.

Confine the thoughts to exercise the breath;
And keep them in the *pale* of words till death. *Pope*.

A district or territory.—There is no part but the bare
English *pale*, in which the Irish have not the greatest footing.
Spenser.—The lords justices put arms into the hands
of divers noblemen of that religion, within the *pale*.
Clarendon.—A perpendicular stripe; an heraldic term.—

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The *pale* is the third and middle part of the scutcheon,
being derived from the chief to the base, or nether part
of the scutcheon, with two lines. *Peascham*.

But what art thou, that saiest this tale,
That werist on thy hose a *pale*. *Chaucer*.

An instrument of death.—The *pale* was an instrument of
punishment and execution among the ancient Romans,
and still continues so among the Turks. Hence "em-
paling," the passing a sharp *pale* up the fundament
through the body. *Chambers*.

To PALE, *v. a.* To enclose with pales.—The diameter
of the hill of twenty foot, may be *paled*-in with twenty
deals of a foot broad. *Mortimer*.—To inclose; to encom-
pass:

Whate'er the ocean *pales*, or sky inclips,
Is thine. *Shakespeare's Ant. and Cleop.*

To PALE, or IMPALE, *v. a.* To stand in rows, like
pales.—In the first aisle stood seventy poor women, *paling*
the passage on either side.—Both sides of the passage, near
a quarter of a mile long, was *impaled* by many thousands
of people. *Smythe's MS. Hist. of the Berkeley Family*.
Gent. Mag. Jan. 1819.

PALE-EYED, *adj.* Having eyes dimmed.—Shrines,
where their vigils *pale-ey'd* virgins keep. *Pope*.

No nightly trance, or breathed spell,
Inspires the *pale-ey'd* priest from the prophetic cell. *Milton*.

PALE-FACED, *adj.* Having the face wan:

Let *pale-fac'd* fear keep with the mean-born man,
And find no harbour in a royal heart. *Shakespeare*.

PALE-HEARTED, *adj.* Having the heart dispirited:

That I may tell *pale-hearted* fear, it lies,
And sleep in spite of thunder. *Shakespeare*.

PALEA'CEOUS, *adj.* [from the Lat. *palea*, chaff.]
Chaffy, producing chaff, resembling chaff.

PALEA'RIOUS (Aonius), an elegant and liberal scholar,
and martyr to the cause of the reformation, was born
about the beginning of the sixteenth century at Veruli
in the Campagna of Rome. The name of his family was
Della Paglia, and his baptismal name was *Antonio*, both
which he changed to the classical form under which he is
known, according to the practice of that learned age.
After having studied six years at Rome, he quitted it on
the approach of the imperial army in 1527, and took up
his abode at Perugia, Sienna, Padua, and other places,
improving himself by attendance on the most celebrated
professors. He fixed at length at Sienna, where he mar-
ried in 1536, and opened a private school for some young
men of rank. Here he passed some years tranquilly in
the bosom of his family, till his merit, and the freedom
of his opinions, began to raise him enemies. The sus-
picion into which he fell, as being a favourer of the re-
formation, gave them a handle for the dreadful accusation
of heresy; and in 1542 he was brought on that account
before the governor and archbishop. Upon this occasion
he wrote an oration, published among his works, in which,
though he did not avow the opinions imputed to him, he
spoke of them in a way that showed what he thought on
those points. He was however absolved; but was after-
wards thwarted in his attempts to obtain a chair in the
university. In 1544 he published anonymously a work in
Italian "On the Merits of Christ," which was written in
the principles of the reformers. He received an invita-
tion in 1546 to take the professorship of eloquence at
Lucca, with which he complied, and exercised that office
for several years. Such was his reputation for elegant li-
terature, that it procured him several distinguished friends,
among whom was cardinal Sadoletto, and caused him to
be invited to Milan in 1555, to succeed Majoragio in the
chair of eloquence. In that city he resided quietly till
the accession of pope Pius V. who, having been a domini-
can and an inquisitor, began his reign with the severe
prosecution

prosecution of heresy. Palearius was arrested and brought to Rome, where he was committed to a close imprisonment, and accused of various errors of doctrine. These were, that he denied purgatory, disapproved the custom of burying the dead in churches, spoke unfavourably of the monastic state and the lives of the monks, and attributed justification to the merits of Christ alone. Upon these charges he was convicted and condemned to the flames. After having (it is said) retracted his errors, he was strangled, and his body was burnt, in the month of July 1570. This was the lamentable fate of a man whom all agree to have been pious, moral, and learned. Of the writings of Palearius, the best known is his poem "De Immortalitate Animorum," in three books, first printed at Lyons in 1536, with a highly commendatory letter from cardinal Sadoleto. Its versification is formed upon that of Luccretius rather than that of Virgil, and is said to be faulty. The poem, however, has been reprinted in several collections of select Latin poetry by Italians. His other works are, Fourteen Orations on different subjects; Letters, and Poems, all written in a pure Latin style. After his death was printed his "Actio in Pontifices Romanos et eorum Affectus," which he had composed a short time before the meeting of the council of Trent, with an intention of getting it presented by the ambassadors of the emperor; but this was never done. It is an eloquent plea in favour of protestantism. *Bayle. Morevi.*

PA'LEATED, *adj.* Mingled with chaff; chaffy.

PALECKE, a town of Prussia, in the province of Oberland: fourteen miles south-east of Mohrungen.

PA'LED, *adj.* Striped; an heraldic term:

Buskins he wore of costliest cordwayne,
Pinckt upon gold, and *paled* part by part,
As then the guize was for each gentle swayne. *Spenser.*

Set round with pales, or something similar.—*Paled flowers* are those which have thin leaves set about, or surrounding, a head, or thrum; as in marigolds, &c. *Chambers.*

PALE'E, a town of Hindoostan, in Oude: forty-five miles west of Kairabad.

PALE'GA PAIANEL'LI, in botany. See BIGNONIA.

PA'LELY, *adv.* Wanly; not freshly; not ruddily.

PALEN'CIA, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon, on the Carrion, the see of a bishop, suffragan of Burgos. It contains five churches, eleven convents, and two hospitals. It was anciently one of the strongest towns belonging to the Vaccæi, and named *Pallantia*. It is fifty-seven miles south-east of Leon, and one hundred north-north-west of Madrid. Lat. 41. 59. N. lon. 4. 34. W.

PALE'NDAR, or PADANDER, *f.* A kind of flat-bottomed boat used for the transportation of horses; it was furnished with a platform to be let down as a drawbridge for landing, but which at sea was closed into the side of the vessel.—Solyman sent over light horsemen in great *palendars*, which, running all along the sea-coast, carried the people and the cattle. *Knolles.*—From the version of Vigniere, I adopt the well-sounding word *palander*, which is still used, I believe, in the Mediterranean. *Gibbon*, ch. lx.

PA'LENESS, *f.* Wanness; want of colour; want of freshness; sickly whiteness of look.—Her blood durst not yet come to her face, to take away the name of *paleness* from her most pure whiteness. *Sidney.*

The blood the virgin's cheek forsook,
A livid *paleness* spreads o'er all her look.

Pope.

Want of colour; want of lustre:

The *paleness* of this flow'r
Bewray'd the faintness of my master's heart. *Shakespeare.*

PALE'NO, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Citra: fifteen miles south-west of Langiano, and nine east of Sulmona. Lat. 43. 3. N. lon. 14. 2. E.

PALEN'QUE, a town of Mexico, in the province of Chiapa: sixty miles north-east of Chiapa dos Espanoles.

PALEN'QUE, a small island in the Spanish Main. Lat. 9. 30. N. lon. 79. 5. W.

PAL'ENSEN, a town of Westphalia, in the principality of Calenberg: six miles south of Hanover.

PALENZUELA, a town of Spain, in Old Castile: twenty-five miles south-west of Burgos.

PALEOCAS'TRO. See POLICASTRO.

PALEOCAS'TRO, a town on the north coast of the island of Lemno. Lat. 40. 0. N. lon. 42. 55. E.

PALEOGRAP'HY, *f.* [*paleographie*, Fr. *παλαιος* and *γραφω*, Gr.] The art of explaining ancient writings. *Todd's Johnson.*—We have never met with this word before. Mr. Todd quotes no authority for it; but the French word from which he derives it is of recent use, having been coined since the revolution.

PALEOT'TI (Gabriel), a learned Italian cardinal, was born at Bologna in the year 1524. He was descended from a family which had produced several eminent characters in the profession of civil and canon law; and, being himself led by inclination to the same pursuit, he made a rapid and very successful proficiency in the study of literature and jurisprudence, at the university in his native city. The first preferment which he received, was a canonry of Bologna; after which he was appointed professor of civil and canon law at the university. The Farnese family obtained for him the post of auditor of the rota at Rome, when he was only thirty-three years of age. When pope Pius IV. opened the council of Trent, he sent Paleotti thither in the capacity of proctor and counsellor to his legates, who took no step of importance without his advice. Of this council Paleotti wrote a "History," still remaining in MS. of which Pallavicini freely availed himself, in his work on the same subject. After the breaking-up of this council, he returned to his office at Rome, which he held till 1565, when Pius IV. raised him to the dignity of the purple. By Pius V. he was created bishop of Bologna, and that see was erected into an archbishopric by the same pope, to do honour both to Paleotti and his native country. On his conduct in this dignity the highest commendations are bestowed by his biographers, who observe, that a kind of rivalry seemed to exist between him and the great cardinal Borromeo archbishop of Milan, who should most diligently discharge the duties of a good pastor. Paleotti died at Rome in 1597, when about seventy-three years of age. He was the author of several works of considerable merit, on subjects in antiquities, jurisprudence, and morals. The most considerable of them are, 2. *Archiepiscopale Bonnoniense*, 1594, folio. 3. *De Imaginibus Sacris et Profanis*. 4. *De Sacri Consistorii Consultationibus*. 5. *De Nothis, Spuriisque Filiis*, 8vo. 6. *De Bono Senectutis*, 8vo. 7. *Pastoral Letters, Instructions, &c.* *Landi's Hist. Lit. de l'Italie*, vol. iv.

PA'LEOUS, *adj.* [*palea*, Lat.] Husky; chaffy.—This attraction we tried in straws and *paleous* bodies. *Brown.*

PALEPAR'TO, a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra: ten miles south of Rosano.

PALE'POLI, a seaport-town of Asiatic Turkey, in Caramania, on the south-coast: 120 miles south of Cogni.

PALER'MO, a city of Sicily, in the Val-di-Mazara, with an archbishop's see and a large harbour. This city, which is the capital of Sicily, is of great antiquity; and, if a conjecture may be formed from its ancient name *Panormus*, which signifies "an universal harbour," it was formerly in a very flourishing condition. By whom it was founded is uncertain; nor have we any authentic accounts of its inhabitants till it became a colony of the Phœnicians, after which it passed into the hands of the various nations that became masters of this island. At different epochs it has held the rank of a metropolis. As it was the capital of the Saracens, we may readily account for many interesting and valuable monuments of that nation still existing. The palaces Zisa, Cuba, and Mare Dolce, were the habitations of the Saracen princes. The Zisa, together with a small mosque adjoining, on the battlements of which some Saracenic inscriptions appear, is in a perfect

perfect state of preservation. An ambassador from Morocco, who was there some time ago, was much struck with it, and said the plan of the building was similar to those of such edifices in his own country. A large apartment, in the third story, he pronounced to be the council-chamber. The summit of this edifice commands a striking view of the beautiful and fertile plain and garden of Palermo, surrounded by lofty and majestic mountains, broken into the most picturesque forms, together with the port, sea, &c. and the adjacent islands.

This city, according to Brydone's account, is greatly superior to Naples in beauty and elegance. Although it is not so large, yet the regularity, the uniformity, and the neatness, of its streets and buildings, render it much more pleasing; it is full of people, who have mostly an air of affluence and gaiety. It stands near the extremity of a kind of natural amphitheatre, formed by very high and rocky mountains; and the country that lies between the city and these mountains is one of the richest and most beautiful spots in the world. The whole appears a magnificent garden, filled with fruit-trees of every species, and watered by clear fountains and rivulets, that form a variety of windings through this delightful plain. From the singularity of this situation, as well as from the richness of the soil, Palermo has had many flattering epithets bestowed upon it, particularly by the poets; who have denominated it *Conca d'Oro*, the Golden Shell, expressing both its situation and richness. It has likewise been styled *Aurca Balli*, *Hortus Siciliæ*, &c. and, to include all these together, the lasting term *Felix* has been added to its name, by which it is even distinguished in the maps.

Palermo is built upon a very regular plan: its two great streets intersect each other in the centre of the city, where they form a beautiful and regular square called the Ottangolo, adorned with very handsome and uniform buildings. The centre of this square commands the whole of these noble streets and the four great gates of the city which terminate them, and which are at the distance of about half a mile; the diameter of the city being no more than a mile. These are elegant pieces of architecture richly adorned; particularly the Porta Nova and Porta Felice, that terminate the street called the Corso, which runs south-west and north-east. The smaller streets, in general, run parallel to these great ones. The Porta Felice (which is by much the handsomest of the gates) opens to the Marino, a delightful and much-frequented walk, bounded on one side by the wall of the city, and on the other by the sea, from which there is, in the hottest weather, an agreeable breeze. In the centre of the Marino there is an elegant kind of temple, which serves as an orchestra for music in the summer-months. It should have been mentioned, that the mode of building in this country differs greatly from ours. The ground-floor, even of magnificent palaces, frequently consists of shops: in each building there is a common stair-case, and each stage of apartments forms, as it were, a separate residence, being generally inhabited by different families; and this is always the case, except in the residences of some of the principal nobility.

Of the backward state of literature in Palermo we may form some idea, from the circumstance of there being only two regular bookellers in a city which is twice as large as Edinburgh. Till of late years, the Sicilian has been accounted a mere dialect of the Italian, and printed compositions have almost always appeared in the latter; but attempts are now making to raise the former from this comparative degradation, and to change it from a provincial to a national tongue. A Sicilian dictionary of large size has been printed, and several poets have set the example of publishing in their native language.

This city contains, besides an university, many churches, abbeys, seminaries, convents, and hospitals. Many of the churches are extremely rich and magnificent. The cathedral (Madre Chiesa) is a very venerable Gothic building, of a large size, supported within by eighty columns

of oriental granite, and divided into many chapels, some of which are extremely rich, particularly that of St. Rosalia, the patroness of Palermo, who is held here in greater veneration than even the Virgin Mary herself. Her relics are preserved in a large silver box, curiously wrought, and enriched with precious stones. These perform many miracles, and are looked upon as the greatest treasure of the city. The Jesuits' church is singularly magnificent; and the Chiesa del Pallazzo is entirely covered over with ancient mosaic. The church of Monreale, about five miles distant from this city, is the next in dignity in the island, after the cathedral of Palermo.

The population of this city is much greater, in proportion to its size, than that of Naples; and the number of carriages is astonishing. One of the grandest exhibitions is that of the feast of St. Rosalia. Palermo had anciently two ports, mentioned by Polybius and Diodorus; which were destroyed by an earthquake in 1327. At present it has two; one for barks, and another for vessels of war, with a light-house at its entrance. There is a magnificent castle built near the sea-side, wherein the viceroy resides six months in the year; and his presence draws a great number of nobility to this place. This city has suffered greatly by earthquakes, particularly in 1693; and it was greatly damaged by a fire in 1730, when a magazine of powder, containing 400 tons, was blown up. Palermo exports, in favourable years, about 40,000 bales of silk: it has moreover some manufactures of silks and stuffs. Its population is estimated at 200,000 persons.

It is very remarkable, that the dead in Palermo are never buried. Captain Sutherland gives the following account of this circumstance, in his Tour to Constantinople. The dead bodies are carried to the Capuchin convent, which is one of the largest in Italy; and there, after the funeral-service is performed, they are dried in a stove heated by a composition of lime, which makes the skin adhere to the bones. They are then placed erect in niches, and fastened to the wall by the back or neck. A piece of coarse drab is thrown over the shoulders and round the waist; and their hands are tied together, holding a piece of paper with their epitaph, which is simply their names, age, and when they died. We of course (says captain Sutherland) visited this famous repository; and it is natural to suppose that so many corpses would impress one with reverence and awe. It was nearly dusk when we arrived at the convent. We passed the chapel, where one of the order had just finished saying vespers by the gloomy glimmering of a dying lamp. We were then conducted through a garden, where the yew, the cypress, and the barren orange, obscured the remaining light; and where melancholy silence is only disturbed by the hollow murmuring of a feeble water-fall. All these circumstances tuned our minds for the dismal scene which we were going to behold; but we had still to descend a flight of steps impervious to the sun; and these, at last, conveyed us to the dreary mansion of the dead. But, (will you believe me?) notwithstanding the chilling scene through which we had passed, notwithstanding our being in the midst of more than a thousand lifeless bodies, neither our respect for the dead, nor for the holy fathers who conducted us, could prevent our smiling. The physiognomies of the deceased are so ridiculously mutilated, and their muscles so contracted and distorted in the drying, that no French mimic could equal their grimaces. Most of the corpses have lost the lower part of the nose; their necks are generally a little twisted; their mouths drawn awry in one direction, their noses in another; their eyes sunk and pointed different ways; one ear perhaps turned up, the other drawn down. The relations of the deceased are bound to send two wax-tapers every year for the use of the convent; in default of which, the corpse is taken down, and thrown into the charnel-house. Were it not for the number of vacancies occasioned by the non-payment of this stipend, the capuchins would be unable to find niches for the number of men who must die every year

year in so populous a city as this. Women are dried as well as the men, but are not exposed. The bodies of princes, and of the prime nobility, are enclosed in handsome chests, the keys of which are kept by the nearest relations of the family. This city lies 111 miles west of Messina, in lat. 38.10. N. lon. 13.25. E. See, for farther particulars of this beautiful city, Hill's Travels through Sicily and Calabria. Brydone's Tour through Sicily and Malta. Sutherland's Tour to Constantinople. Galt's Voyages and Travels, 1809, 10, 11. Sicily and its Inhabitants, by W. H. Thompson, 1813. Cockburn's Voyage to Cadiz and Gibraltar, 1815. Sir R. C. Hoare's Classical Tour through Italy and Sicily, 1819.

A revolution, which led to the quiet re-establishment of the Cortes and the constitution of the year 1812, had taken place in Spain, on the 6th of March, 1820. A similar and bloodless revolution, adopting the constitution of Spain, followed at Naples on the 6th of July. On the 14th, the vessel sent from Naples to announce the news that his majesty had sworn to the constitution, arrived at Palermo; and the first impulse of the people was to adopt the tri-coloured badge of the constitution. Accordingly, on the evening of that day, in the promenade near the cathedral, which was brilliantly illuminated in honour of the festival of St. Rosalia, the people spontaneously mounted the cockade of Naples, black, sky-blue, and red. But this harmony lasted only a single day; for, on the 16th, the yellow or Sicilian ribband was displayed in conjunction with the other colours; and the people began to express their desire to adopt the constitution of Spain, on condition that the kingdom of Sicily should be separated from that of Naples, and governed by a king which it should choose for itself out of the royal family. This first burst of independence might perhaps have passed over harmlessly, but that an accident, or an indiscretion, exasperated the people against the Neapolitan authorities and troops. General Church, an English officer in the pay of Naples, is said to have torn the badge of Sicilian independence from the breast of an unarmed citizen. Enraged at this act, the forts in the possession of the Neapolitan soldiery were attacked and carried by the islanders. On the morning of the 17th, 700 prisoners were released from confinement by the populace; and then the Neapolitans were furiously attacked, and indiscriminately butchered. The accounts estimate the loss of life at 2000 killed, and about 3000 wounded.

The next step, of course, was to form a Supreme Junta, or provisional government. This was effected on the 19th: it consisted of 10 Sicilian nobles, 10 opulent citizens, and 72 heads (consuls) of trades. A deputation of eight persons from this body sailed on the 26th from Palermo for Naples, to negotiate the independence of the Sicilians, and stating their determination not to remain a province of the kingdom of Naples. They returned on the 6th of August, having met with a refusal; in fact, we believe they were not permitted to land.

The return of the deputies from Naples was the signal of the most prompt and vigorous measures on the part of the provisional government at Palermo. A decree was immediately issued, for enrolling in the military service of the country the name of every inhabitant of Sicily capable of bearing arms, without exception of rank; and troops were sent to attack those places which still adhered to their dependence on Naples. Those were Messina, Trapani, Catania, and Syracuse. At Caltanissetta also strenuous resistance was made; and a division of the Army of National Independence, under the command of the Prince of St. Cataldo, invested the place on the 8th of August. After defeating a most treacherous attempt to surprise his army, the prince took the town by storm.

It appears that the Junta of Palermo have under their orders an armed, though undisciplined, force of 60,000 men, headed by the chief of the Sicilian nobility, and actuated by a strong repugnance to bear any longer the sway of their continental neighbours. Messina, Augusta,

and Trapani, are the only places that hold out; and, in consequence, the Neapolitan government has declared Messina to be the capital of the island of Sicily, instead of Palermo.

We trust, for the sake of all parties, that the Sicilians and the Neapolitans will be equally convinced of the necessity of their uniting, in some way or other, against all foreign aggressors; for both nations (if we may call them two) are threatened with foreign interference; and we shall have occasion to state the result under the article SICILY.

PALERMO, a town of North America, in the state of Maine, and county of Lincoln; with 761 inhabitants.

PALERNO, a town of Naples, in Principato Ultra: twelve miles west-north-west of Conza.—Also, a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra: six miles south-west of Cosenza.

PALES, in mythology, the divinity of shepherds, or the tutelar deity and protectress of flocks. Her festival was called PALILIA, which see.

PALESCIA'NO, a town of Naples, in the province of Otranto: three miles south-east of Motola.

To PAL'ESATE, *v. a.* [from *palefement*, old Fr. openly.] To manifest.—The counsel of the Turks had not *palefated* itself openly. *Sir A. Sherley.*

PAL'ESTINE, or the HOLY LAND, a country of Asia, once the habitation of God's chosen people, but now under the domination of the Turks.

This once fertile and happy spot was first called the Land of *Canaan*, from Noah's grandson. In Scripture, however, it is frequently distinguished by other names; such as the *Land of Promise*, the *Land of God*, the *Land of Israel*, &c. It received the name of *Palestine* from the Palestinians, or Philistines, who possessed a great part of it; and it had the name of *Judea*, or *Judea Palestina*, from *Judah*, the most considerable of the twelve sons of Jacob. The Christians have denominated it the *Holy Land*; partly on account of the many singular blessings it received from the Divine Providence, and partly on account of its metropolis being made the centre of God's worship, and his peculiar habitation; but much more for its being the place of our Saviour's birth, the scene of his preaching and manifold miracles, and lastly the place in which he accomplished the great work of our redemption. As to the name of *Judea*, it did not begin to receive that till after the return of the Jews from the Babylonish captivity, though it had been styled long before the *Kingdom of Judah*, in opposition to that of *Israel*, which revolted from it under Jeroboam, in the reign of Rehoboam, the son of Solomon. But, after the return, the tribe of Judah, the only one that made any figure, settling at Jerusalem, and in the countries adjacent, quickly gave its name to the whole territory. By profane authors it was called by many different names; such as Syria, Palestina Syria, Cœlosyria, Iduma, Idumæa, and Phœnicia or Phœnice; but these are supposed only to have been given out of contempt to the Jewish nation, whom they looked upon as unworthy of any other name than what distinguished the most obscure parts of the neighbouring provinces. See the Map, vol. viii. p. 388.

That part of the country which was properly called the *Land of Promise*, was enclosed on the west by the Mediterranean, on the east by the Lake Asphaltites, the Jordan, the Sea of Tiberias or of Galilee, and the Samachonite Lake; to the north it had the mountains of Libanus, or rather of Antilibanus, and the province of Phœnicia; and to the south, that of Edom or Idumæa, from which it was likewise parted by another ridge of high mountains. The boundaries of the other part, which belonged to the two tribes and a half beyond the river Jordan, are not so easily defined, as well as those of the conquests made by the more prosperous kings of the Jews. All that can be said with any probability is, that the river Arnon was the first northern boundary on that side; and, with respect to those on this side the Jordan, there is a considerable disagreement between the Hebrew and Samaritan versions of the Pentateuch.

Pentateuch. The extent of this country is likewise variously settled by geographers; some giving it no more than 170 or 180 miles from north to south, and 140 in breadth where broadest, though not much above half that breadth where narrowest. But, from the latest and most accurate maps, it appears to extend near 200 miles in length, and about 80 in breadth near the middle; and about 10 or 15, more or less, where it widens or contracts.

The land was divided by its original inhabitants into so many *toparchies*, or petty states, each of which had its chief, or king; and, in this respect, it was something like the ancient state of Britain, during the time of the Saxon heptarchy. All these were conquered and destroyed, one after another, by the children of Israel, as related in the book of Joshua, and other parts of the sacred Scriptures. After the conquest by the children of Israel, Judea, in its largest sense, was divided into maritime and inland, and into mountainous and champaign; and, as the river Jordan ran across it, it was again divided into Judea on this side, and Judea beyond, Jordan. But the most considerable division is that which was made, according to the divine appointment, among the twelve tribes, by lot, to prevent all murmuring and discontent among that stubborn people; and of which, two tribes and a half were seated beyond (or on the east of) Jordan, and the rest on this side. The next remarkable division was made by king Solomon; who divided his kingdom into twelve provinces, or districts, under peculiar officers, each of which was to supply the king with provisions for his household in their turn, that is, each for one month of the year. But the most fatal division was made under his imprudent son Rehoboam, when ten of the twelve tribes revolted from him, under the influence of Jeroboam, who became head of this new monarchy, styled the kingdom of *Israel*, in opposition to that of *Judah*; the title by which the dismembered kingdom of Rehoboam was known from that time downwards. Under the second temple, this distinction lasted a considerable time, and the same hatred continued between these two kingdoms; that of Israel, from its capital city, being called Samaria; and the inhabitants of this kingdom were a mixture of the old Israelites, and those sent thither by the kings of Assyria, after their conquest of it, till they were subdued by the Maccabees, and their metropolis destroyed. Under the Romans it began to be divided again into petty states, called tetrarchies and toparchies; some greater than others: the largest were those of Judea, Samaria, and Galilee Upper and Lower; the smaller those of Geraritica, Saron, and some others of less note; all which were on this side the Jordan: those on the other side, were Gilead, Peræa, Gaulonitis, Auranitis, Batanea, and Decapolis. Josephus mentions another division, made in Gabinius's time, into five districts, or, as he styles them, *συνοδικα*, or councils, agreeable to the Roman manner; and these were, Jerusalem, Jericho, and Sephoris, on this side Jordan; and Gadara and Amathus, on the other; but these did not last long. In process of time, during the reigns of the Christian emperors, it was divided afresh into *Palæstina Prima*, *Palæstina Secunda*, and *Palæstina Tertia*, or *Salutaris*, which included the far greater part, if not the whole country.

The division that principally prevailed in the time of our Saviour, was that which subsisted under the Romans, to whom the land of Judea was then subject, and by whom it was divided into the provinces of Judea, Samaria, and Galilee. Judah is the most southern part, and Galilee the most northerly; on which account Samaria, called at present the country of Nablousa, remained in the middle, and was, as it were, the centre of all Palestine: thus, when St. John, mentioning the travels of our Saviour, says, *He left Judea, and departed into Galilee*, he immediately adds, *and he must needs go through Samaria*; (John iv. 3, 4.) which evidently shows the situation of the pro-

vinces. The Holy Land even yet is considered as divided into the same three parts. The capital of Judea is Jerusalem; that of Galilee, the small city of Nazareth; and that of Samaria, the city of Nablousa, the ancient Sichem, and not the city of Samaria or Sebastia, which at present is only a paltry village. "These provinces, in different respects, excelled, and consequently were inferior to, each other. With respect to antiquity, Galilee has the preference; Judea next; Samaria, in a provincial view, being of much later date. In extent, Judea takes the lead, being on both sides the Jordan; Galilee, Upper and Lower, is the second; and Samaria, the most inconsiderable of the three. As to honour, Judea again asserts her superiority, on account of Jerusalem, her capital; Samaria next asserts her claim, without contention; for Galilee, though the most ancient, seems to be conscious of her meanness. Yet out of Galilee, whence no good thing was expected, came Jesus Christ, and most, if not all, his apostles. In point of safety from foreign invasions, Samaria, the middle province, was most secure; Judea next; and Galilee least. But, in fruitfulness, Galilee exceeds; Samaria follows; and Judea, without controversy, gives up the claim to both." Martin's Conquest of Canaan.

Palestine, in its present state, is a part of Asiatic Turkey, situated between $31^{\circ} 30'$ and $33^{\circ} 20'$ north latitude, and between $34^{\circ} 50'$ and $37^{\circ} 15'$ east longitude. It is bounded by Mount Libanus, which divides it from Syria, on the north; by Mount Hermon, which separates it from Arabia Deserta, on the east; by the mountains of Seir and the deserts of Arabia Petræa, on the south; and by the Mediterranean Sea, on the west.

We need scarcely remind our readers, that the Holy Land is in the sacred writings represented to have been exceedingly fertile, rich, populous, and powerful. Its vast population is an evident proof of the fertility of its soil. In the time of king David, there were 1,100,000 combatants in the kingdom of Israel, and 470,000 in the tribe of Judah alone, without reckoning those of Benjamin or of Levi. Some writers conclude therefore that its inhabitants, comprehending women, children, old people, and those unfit for bearing arms, might amount in all to eight millions. The Land of Canaan contained a prodigious number of cities and villages, as may be seen in the 25th chapter of Joshua, where we are told that 112 walled cities fell to the lot of the tribe of Judah alone. Of all its ancient cities, however, a few only remain; the rest being either destroyed, or their names given to paltry villages, now almost in ruins. The population of this country is also greatly diminished; but at present no certain calculation can be given of it, as the number of inhabitants continually varies, on account of the Bedouin Arabs, who always come hither at certain periods from Arabia, and the country beyond the Jordan, in order to feed their flocks.

If this country has lost its ancient splendour by the destruction of its cities, and the decrease of its population, it still retains its natural advantages, being beautifully variegated with mountains, hills, and delightful plains. Its climate is exceedingly good, the situation being neither too far south nor too far north. But the limits of Palestine appear so small, considering that the country is likewise intersected by high ridges of mountains, woods, deserts, &c. that many learned men have been induced to question what we read of its fertility and populousness in former times. It must be owned, indeed, that when we compare its ancient and flourishing state, when it was cultivated with the utmost diligence by persons well skilled in every branch of agriculture, with what it has been since the total extirpation of the Jews out of it, and more especially since it fell into the hands of the Turks, the contrast is amazingly great; but, when we consider the many evident causes which have contributed to effect this change, and even yet consider the nature of the country itself, we find not the least reason to doubt the truth of what the sacred

historians

historians have related. Moses describes the richness of it in the strongest terms, even before the Israelites got possession of it. (Deut. viii.) It even exceeded the land of Egypt, so much celebrated by ancient historians; especially in the vast numbers of cattle which it produced, in the quantity and excellence of its wine, oil, and fruits. With respect to the oil and fruits, it is plain, that the olives and oil of Canaan exceeded in goodness those of Egypt, since the tribes sent them thither from thence; and as for vines, Herodotus tells us that the Egyptians had none at all, but supplied the want of them by a liquor brewed from barley. The presents which Jacob sent to his son Joseph, of honey, spices, myrrh, almonds, and other fruits of Palestine, shew that they must have been much better in the land of Judea than in Egypt. The wines of Gaza, Ascalon, and Sarepta, were famous among the most remote nations; though it is allowed, that the wine which was made at, and in the neighbourhood of, Bethlehem, in great quantities, was equal at least, if not superior, to any of the rest; and that of Libanus, mentioned by the prophet Hosea, was no less celebrated for its excellent flavour.

Several circumstances contributed to this wonderful fecundity: such as the excellent temperature of the air, which was never subject to excessive heats or colds; the regularity of its seasons, especially the former and latter rain; and the natural fatness and fertility of its soil, which required neither dunging nor manuring, and could be ploughed with a single yoke of oxen and a small kind of plough; for the soil was, and is still, so shallow, that to have gone deep into it would rather have endangered than improved the crop. With respect to the excellency of its corn, we are told, that the bread of Jerusalem was preferred above all other; and the tribe of Asher produced the best of both, and in greater quantity than any other tribe; and such plenty was there of it, that, besides what sufficed the inhabitants, who made it their chief sustenance, Solomon, we read, could afford to send 20,000 cors, or measures, of it, and as many of oil, yearly, to Hiram king of Tyre; besides what they exported into other countries. And we find, even so late as king Herod, surnamed Agrippa, the countries of Tyre and Sidon received most of their sustenance from his tetrarchy.

As to their fruits, the grapes were delicious, finely flavoured, and very large. The palm-tree, and its dates, were in no less request; and the plain of Jericho, among other places, was famed for the great plenty and excellence of that fruit; inasmuch, that the metropolis of that territory was emphatically styled *the city of palm-trees*. But, what both this plain and other parts of Palestine were most celebrated for, was the balsam-shrub, whose balm was esteemed so precious a drug among the Greeks, Romans, Egyptians, and other nations, and is still to this day under the name of *balm of Gilead*. They had likewise the greatest variety of other fruit-trees in the highest perfection; and which might be, in some sense, styled *perpetual*, because they were not only covered with a constant verdure, but because the new buds always appeared on the same boughs before the old fruit was ripe; and of those buds, which were in too great quantities to be allowed to come to maturity, they gathered enough to make very delightful pickles and sweetmeats, especially of their citrons, oranges, and apples of paradise, which last commonly hung by hundreds in a cluster, and as big as hens' eggs, and of an excellent taste and flavour. Their vines yield grapes twice, and sometimes three times, a-year, great quantities of which were dried and preserved for use, as well as their figs, plums, and other fruits. They had plenty of honey; the very trees distilled it; and the rocks yielded it in great quantities: but, whether that of the latter kind was there deposited by the industrious bees, or produced some other way, is much disputed by travellers and naturalists. They likewise cultivated sugar-canes in great abundance; and the

cotton, hemp, and flax, were mostly of their own growth and manufacture, except some of a finer sort, that were brought to them from Egypt, and worn by those of the higher rank. Their vicinity to Libanus made the cedars, cypresses, and other stately fragrant trees, very common in most parts of the land, but more especially in Jerusalem. Cattle, both large and small, they fed in vast quantities; and the hilly countries not only afforded them variety and plenty of pasture, but also of water, which descended thence into the valleys and low lands, and fertilized them to the degree we have seen; besides several other rivers and brooks, some of the most remarkable of which we shall speak of in their proper places.

As to the deserts and forests, which were sometimes called wildernesses, upon which some stress has been laid, some were indeed horrible, but others, when the Jews possessed the land, as delightful: for many of them were then inhabited, and surrounded by cities and villages, rich and well peopled; and, indeed, there were but few cities, which had not some *desert*, according to the scripture-idiom, belonging to it, for feeding their cattle; so that the word commonly meant no more than a land, or tract, that bore neither corn, wine, nor oil; but was left to its natural production; and generally abounded with thyme, marjoram, sage, and other aromatic herbs. But the most fertile pasture-grounds were those on each side of the river Jordan; besides those of Sharon, or Sarona, the plains of Lydda, Jamnia, and some others, then justly famed for their fecundity. As for fish, the river above-mentioned, the lake of Tiberias, and the Mediterranean Sea, afforded, as they do to this day, great plenty and variety. Vast quantities were brought to Jerusalem, on which the inhabitants mostly subsisted; and hence one of the gates of that metropolis was, according to St. Jerome, called the *fish-gate*. The Lake Asphaltites yielded salt in abundance, wherewith to season and preserve their fish, which Galen affirms to have been preferable to any other for wholesomeness, digestion, and extenuation. In short, the Scripture is so pregnant with proofs of the extraordinary richness and fecundity of this once-happy land, and the vast number of people that lived in it, almost wholly upon its product, to say nothing of the vast exports of its corn, wine, oil, raisins, and other fruits, &c. that a man must have taken a strange warp to infidelity, that can call it in question, merely on account of the melancholy figure it makes under its present tyrannical government.

We may further observe, after the judicious Mr. Maundrell, that there is no forming an idea of its ancient flourishing state, when under the influence of heaven, from what it is now, *under a visible curse*. And, if we had not several concurring testimonies from profane authors, who have extolled the fecundity of Palestine, that single one of Julian the Apostate, a sworn enemy to Jews and Christians, would be more than sufficient: he frequently makes mention, in his Epistles, of the perpetuity, as well as excellence and great abundance, of its fruits and products. The visible effects of God's anger, which this country has felt, not only under Titus Vespasian, (when myriads of inhabitants were either slain, or perished by the most severe famine, pestilence, and other calamities, and the rest sold for slaves into all lands;) but much more since that emperor's time, in the inundations of the northern barbarians, of the Saracens, and of the more cruel and destructive Christians during the crusades; and in the oppression it now feels under the Turkish yoke; may be easily owned to be more than sufficient to have wrought the dismal change we are speaking of, and to have reduced the far greater part into a mere desert.

Nevertheless, if we may credit those who have viewed it in this doleful condition, they will tell us, there are still such visible signs of its natural richness and fertility, as plainly shew, that the bare want of culture is the main, if not the only, cause of its present poverty and barrenness.

"The

"The Holy Land (says Dr. Shaw), were it as well peopled and cultivated as in former times, would still be more fruitful than the very best part of the coast of Syria and Phœnicie; for the soil is generally much richer, and, all things considered, yields a preferable crop. Thus the cotton that is gathered in the plains of Ramah, Esdraelon, and Zabulun, is in greater esteem than what is cultivated near Sidon and Tripoli. Neither is it possible for pulse, wheat, or any sort of grain, to be more excellent than what is sold at Jerusalem. The barrenness, or scarcity rather, which some authors may, either ignorantly or maliciously, complain of, doth not proceed from the incapacity or natural unfruitfulness of the country, but from the want of inhabitants, and the great aversion there is to labour and industry in those few who possess it. There are, besides, such perpetual discords and depredations among the petty princes who share this fine country, that, allowing it was better peopled, yet there would be small encouragement to sow, when it was uncertain who should gather in the harvest. Otherwise, the land is a good land, and still capable of affording its neighbours the like supplies of corn and oil which it is known to have done in the time of Solomon."

Nothing can afford, even in the present day, a more agreeable change than the fertile valley of Palestine, on quitting the parched sands of Arabia. The impression made on Ali Bey seems exactly the same as that which was experienced by the progenitors of the Jews, and in our own day by a very different description of combatants; we mean the French soldiers who marched in 1799 from Egypt under Bonaparte. To all these the land of Canaan appeared still to be *the land flowing with milk and honey*.

"All the country of Palestine which I saw from Khan-younes to Jaffa (says Ali Bey) is beautiful. It is composed of round undulated hills, of a rich soil, similar to the slime of the Nile, and is covered with the richest and finest vegetation; but there is not a single river in all the district, not even a spring; all the torrents I crossed were dry, and the inhabitants have no other water to drink than that which they collect in the rainy season, nor any other means of irrigation than rain-water, and that of the wells, which is very good. Such was the cause of the frequent famines which are recorded in history to have happened in this country. A territory in which there is no spring, and no river to bring to it the waters of other countries, and whose subsistence depends absolutely upon the local rains, is necessarily exposed to a scarcity, when this blessing from heaven fails, or is insufficient.

"It is worthy of remark, that all the inhabited places which I have seen in Arabia are situated in valleys or hollows; and, on the contrary, all the towns and villages in Palestine are built upon hills or heights. This difference may be attributed to the scarcity of the rains in Arabia, and their abundance in Palestine. Game abounds in Palestine; partridges are found in large coveys, so fat and heavy, that no other weapon than a stick is requisite to take them. But, at the same time, we meet with a number of lizards, different kinds of serpents, vipers, scorpions, and other venomous insects. The multitude of flies of every species in this country is such, that the camels, mules, and horses, become almost mad, and roll themselves upon the ground, and among the bushes, to get rid of them. But what shall I say of the ants? Let the reader imagine an immense ant-hill, extending over the earth for three days' journey, and he will have an idea of what I have absolutely seen. The road is a continued ant-hill, entirely covered with the eggs and remains of these little animals, upon which are seen myriads of ants running in all directions, to complete their daily labours." *Travels of Ali Bey, 1803-7.*

Referring to our article JERUSALEM, it is now proper to observe, that the Church of the Sepulchre no longer exists: it was destroyed by fire after M. de Chateaubriand's return from Judea, which was in the year 1807. "I am (says he) the last traveller by whom it was visited;

and, for the same reason, I shall be its last historian." *Travels in Greece, Palestine, &c. 1806, 7, published at Paris, in 2 vols. 8vo. 1811* — We may also add, as to the present state of Jerusalem, that it contains 9000 Mahometans, 3000 Jews, 2000 Greek Christians, 600 Latins, 300 Armenians, 100 Jacobites or Syrians, and two or three families of Copts or Maronites. *Professor Carlyle, in Walpole's Mem. relating to Turkey.*

About the year 1809, a society was formed, under the auspices of Dr. Hamilton, the Earl of Aberdeen, and Mr. Spencer Smith, to be called the "Palestine Association." Its object was to forward and assist discoveries in the interior of Syria and the Holy Land. Whether this society subsists at present we really do not know, as we have met with no report of its proceedings. Its plan was very laudable. The following are the various subjects to which the attention of the travellers, selected by the committee, to be sent into Syria, and other regions of the East, at the expense of the Association, were to be directed.

1. Astronomical observations, to ascertain the situations of the most remarkable places.
2. Ranges and heights of mountains.
3. Breadth and depth of rivers, with their courses, fords, and bridges; wells and fountains; whether of sweet, salt, or brackish, water.
4. Times and extent of inundations.
5. Every other observation relative to the geography and topography of Palestine, which may be of use in the formation of a more accurate map of the country than has hitherto appeared.
6. Process of agriculture in all parts.
7. To compose a meteorological journal, according to a form prepared for the purpose in England, and in which shall be comprised an accurate statement of the winds and temperature for the whole year, mentioning the place, time, and exposure.
8. A list of the natural productions of Palestine, with a description of the soil and situation of those that are more rare; particular attention to be paid to the culture and use of the date and the palm tree.
9. To observe the uses, of any kind whatever, to which the botanical productions of the country are applied; whether these uses are publicly known, or kept secret in particular families; and what is their medicinal or chemical value.
10. To detect the errors of former travellers.
11. To make accurate drawings of the implements of masonry, carpenters' work, and other handicrafts.
12. Substance and quantity of food consumed in the families of the inhabitants in the different situations in life.
13. Whence the neighbourhood of Jerusalem is supplied with fuel and timber for building.
14. To endeavour to trace the progress of the Israelites under Moses and Joshua, in their operations against the possessors of the Promised Land, and the subsequent distribution of the Tribes; verifying characteristic epithets given to the several countries mentioned in the Scriptures; and to continue the same observations throughout the whole of Palestine, with reference to the latter periods of the Jewish history.
15. To write in Arabic and English characters the name of every town, village, river, mountain, &c. by which the traveller may pass; and to observe the greatest accuracy in marking down their respective bearings, and their distances, in computed miles, and in hours.
16. The strictest attention must be paid to the draughts, plans, and sketches, of the country; and drawings to be made of those buildings which appear to be of importance, from their undoubted antiquity, or architectural peculiarities.
17. It would be extremely desirable to form an ample collection of inscriptions, manuscripts, and medals, and other valuable monuments of antiquity, whether Hebrew, Phœnician, Greek, or Roman.
18. Estimate

18. Estimate of the present population of Palestine, with details of the manners and customs of the inhabitants.

19. Vestiges of ancient cultivation in parts of the country now desolate and unproductive.

20. Weights; and measures of time, distance, and capacity.

21. The present modes of dividing the year and day in use among the Arabs, Turks, Christians of each denomination, and Jews; as well as the state of trade and manufactures within the limits of Palestine, and its vicinity.

PALESTRINA, one of the islands near the city of Venice, twelve miles long, but narrow. It contains a large market-town of the same name, and about 7000 inhabitants. It is six miles south of Venice.

PALESTRINA, a town of Italy, in the province of Campagna, anciently *Præneste*, near which formerly stood a temple dedicated to Fortune, and another to Hercules, in a bay on the west coast. It is the see of a bishop, who is also a cardinal. It is eighteen miles east-south-east of Rome. Lat. 41. 51. N. lon. 12. 49. E.

PALESTRINA (Giovanni Pierluigi da), a very eminent composer of church-music, was born in 1529, at Palestrina in Italy, the ancient *Præneste*. His instructor in the musical science is said to have been one Gaudio Mell, a Fleming, in which name some have recognised Claude Goudimel, a musician of Franche Comté, and a huguenot, who was one of the first that set the translation of the Psalms, by Clement Marot and Theodore Beza, to music; and who was murdered at Lyons in 1572, on the fatal day of the massacre of Paris. Who Mell was, if different from Goudimel, we know not; of his works or name we have met with no memorial.

Of Palestrina's early life nothing is known; but it appears, that in 1555 he was admitted into the pope's chapel in Rome. He had already formed that simple, grave, and noble, style for which he became so famous; for we are told that the pope and conclave, having been scandalized at the light and injudicious manner in which the masses had been usually set and performed, had determined to banish music in parts entirely from the church; but that Palestrina, at the age of twenty-six, during the pontificate of Marcellus Cervinus, interceded with his holiness to suspend the sentence till he should have heard a mass composed in a different style. Accordingly, at Easter 1555, he presented before the pope and cardinals his celebrated composition entitled "*Missa Papæ Marcelli*," which was heard by them with so much pleasure and admiration, that music in divine-service was restored to favour.

In 1562 Palestrina was elected chapel-master to the church of Santa-Maria-Maggiore, and in 1571 was appointed to the same office at St. Peter's. He opened a school of music at Rome, in conjunction with his friend and fellow-pupil Gio. Maria Nanino, and greatly contributed to establish the superior reputation of the Italian musicians. He died in 1594, and was interred at St. Peter's, whither his funeral was attended by all the musicians at Rome, and a great concourse of other persons. His own composition, "*Libera nos Domine*," was performed on the occasion. No musician has been mentioned with more honour by writers on the same science than Palestrina, who was undoubtedly a great and original genius. Although the inventions of fugue, canon, and other elaborate compositions, have been banished from dramatic music, they have been retained in the church, on account of their gravity and solemnity; and this composer, by his fine taste and admirable skill in harmony, brought choral music to a degree of perfection that (says Dr. Burney) has never been exceeded. The best church-compositions since his time, have indeed been proverbially called *alla Palestrina*, as professedly imitations of his manner. His works were numerous, and most of them are still extant. The principal of them are masses and motets. *Hawkins's and Burney's Histories of Music.*

PALESTRUM, a town of European Turkey, in Livadia: thirty-four miles north of Lepanto.

PALET, *f.* [*pelote*, Fr. a ball.] The crown of the head. *Obsolete.*

Then Elinour say'd, Ye calettes,
I shall breake your *palettes*,
Without ye now cease;
And so was made the drunken peace.

Shelton.

PALETTE, *f.* [Fr. from *plat*, a dish; or from *plat*, flat.] A light thin plate of wood or ivory, on which a painter holds his colours.—Let the ground of the picture be of such a mixture, as there may be something in it of every colour that composes your work, as it were the contents of your *palette*. *Dryden.*

PALEY (William), a justly-celebrated divine and philosopher, was born at Peterborough, in July 1743, of the cathedral church of which place his father was a minor canon. Soon after the birth of his son he was appointed head-master of Giggleswick school, in Yorkshire, to which place he removed. Young Paley was now educated under his father's eye; at school he soon surpassed his contemporaries, and at length obtained a pre-eminence over them all. He was even at this period more attentive to things than to words, and was ardent in the pursuit of knowledge of every kind. He was very curious in his enquiries about mechanism, whenever he had an opportunity of conversing with any workmen, or others capable of affording him information. In his *mind* he was uncommonly active; in his *body* quite the reverse.

Soon after he had completed his fifteenth year he accompanied his father to Cambridge, and was admitted a sizar of Christ's college, November 16, 1758. In October 1759, he became a resident member of Christ's college, and on the 5th of December he was appointed to one of the scholarships founded by Mr. Carr; was elected a scholar on the foundation of his college, and appointed to the exhibition founded by sir Walter Mildmay. At college he distinguished himself by his diligence and great proficiency, and attracted considerable notice in the university, at the first opportunities which he enjoyed of displaying his talents in the public schools. According to the system of education followed at Cambridge, students, about the middle of their third year, who are then called *senior sophs*, dispute in the schools on questions of natural and moral philosophy. In these exercises Mr. Paley discovered such extraordinary quickness and sagacity, that, whenever he was expected to enter the lists, the schools were crowded with auditors.

In 1763 he was admitted to the degree of B. A. having had the honour of appearing the first man of his year in the previous examinations. After he had thus become a graduate, being too young to enter into holy orders, he obtained the place of assistant in a school at Greenwich, which he retained about three years. In 1765 he became a candidate for one of the prizes given annually by the representatives of the university of Cambridge to senior bachelors, to the authors of the two best dissertations in Latin prose. The subject proposed was "*A Comparison between the Stoic and Epicurean Philosophy, with respect to the influence of each on the morals of a people.*" Mr. Paley took the Epicurean side, and obtained the first prize.

Being ordained a deacon at a proper age, he engaged himself as curate to Dr. Hinchliffe, then vicar of Greenwich, and afterwards bishop of Peterborough. Soon after this he left the academy, but continued to officiate in the church. In June 1766, he was elected a fellow on the foundation of Christ's college, which was worth about 100*l.* per annum, in consequence of which he returned to a residence in the university, took his degree of M. A. and engaged in the business of private tuition, which was soon followed by his appointment to the office of one of the college-tutors. On the 21st of December, 1767, he was ordained a priest by bishop Terrick.

The duties of college-tutor Mr. Paley discharged with uncommon assiduity and zeal. Not contented with following

lowing the usual method of college-lectures, by which the progress of a student is left to depend chiefly on his own industry, or private assistance, he endeavoured to introduce his pupils to an acquaintance with the most important truths by arguments and illustrations which were equally pleasing and forcible. His lectures on moral philosophy, and on the Greek Testament, contained the outlines of the works by which he afterwards so much benefitted the world, and extended his own reputation; and those works may be said to have owed their origin to the situation which imposed upon him the duty of delivering the lectures. Mr. Paley at this time acted in conjunction with Dr. John Law, the late bishop of Elphin, and son of the celebrated bishop of Carlisle. The exertions and talents of these kindred souls rendered Christ's college extremely popular; and, while they retained their offices, that society rose to a flourishing state, unequalled perhaps in the history of the university. To his engagements as a public tutor, Mr. Paley added others, still more numerous, as a private one; and by these united labours was in the receipt of a very considerable income.

Mr. Paley, after having spent about ten years in discharging these laborious duties, quitted the university in 1776, and married. His first benefice was the rectory of Musgrove in Westmoreland, worth only about eighty pounds a year: this was in the month of May 1775; and in December 1776, he was inducted into the vicarage of Dalston in Cumberland, after which he was presented to the living of Appleby in Westmoreland, worth about 300*l.* per annum; and in a short time he was promoted to a prebendal stall in the cathedral church of Carlisle. While vicar of Appleby, he gave the world a small volume, selected from the Book of Common Prayer, and the writings of some eminent divines, entitled "*The Clergyman's Companion in visiting the Sick.*" This was first published without his name; but it has passed through many editions, and is now printed among his works. In the year 1782, upon the resignation of Dr. Law, who was created an Irish bishop, Mr. Paley was made archdeacon of the diocese; and not long after he succeeded Dr. Burn, author of "*The Justice of Peace,*" in the chancellorship.

While his residence was divided between Carlisle and Dalston, Mr. Paley engaged in the composition of his celebrated work, "*The Elements of Moral and Political Philosophy.*" This production would probably have never seen the light, had not the instigations of Dr. John Law urged him to the undertaking. Mr. Paley for a considerable time objected to the risk of publishing, imagining there would be but few readers for a work on that subject; and he was the more determined on this point after he had entered on the married state, thinking it a duty that he owed his family, not to print a book that would probably not find purchasers. To remove the objection, a living having become vacant, of which Dr. Law had the disposal, he presented it to Mr. Paley, on the promise that he would consider it as a compensation for the hazard of printing; and he immediately set about preparing his work for the press. When the MS. was completed, he offered it to Mr. Faulder for 300*l.* which he refused, proposing 250*l.* as the full value. In the mean time the author was offered by another person in the trade 1000*l.* for the copy-right; he felt it his duty to give Mr. Faulder the refusal, rising, however, in his demands from 300*l.* to 1000*l.* which the publisher agreed to pay. In 1785 the work was brought out in 4*to.* with an excellent dedication to the bishop of Carlisle, bearing honourable testimony to the purity of the motives by which that prelate was actuated in his religious researches, and avowing sentiments which reflect the highest credit on the author's ingenuousness and liberality. Concerning this work, we may say, in the words of an able periodical critic, that "those who are fond of novelty, of ingenious theories, curious speculations, abstract and metaphysical notions, will find little in it to amuse or entertain them; but those

who are solicitous to have their consciences properly directed in the general conduct of human life, to see their duties and obligations delineated with perspicuity and accuracy, will be fully gratified." His reasoning on subscription to articles of religion, and on the British constitution, in which he disputes the expediency of reform in the house of commons, and vindicates the undue influence of the crown in that branch of parliament, is liable to great objection, and has been attacked, deservedly and severely, by persons of considerable reputation in the literary world. That the prevalent opinion of the public was, however, in favour of the value and utility of these *Elements*, may be presumed from the numerous impressions of them which were speedily demanded; (the sixteenth now lies before us;) and we think that whatever is objectionable in this work is infinitely counterbalanced by its very high general merits. The author's political speculations, in which his talents are most eminently displayed, have been studied, and quoted, and admired, by the most illustrious statesmen of modern times; and it was an enviable compliment which was paid him by the late Mr. Fox, during the debate in the house of commons on the Catholic question, in May 1805, after reading two passages from his work, "that no man who valued learning, no man who valued genius, no man who valued moderation, could hear his opinions without deference and respect."

On the death of the venerable bishop of Carlisle, in 1787, Mr. Paley drew up a short memoir of him, which has been inserted in Hutchinson's History of Cumberland, and in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, and which, in 1803, was prefixed, with notes supposed to have been written by the Rev. Dr. Disney, to an edition of the bishop's *Reflections on the Life and Character of Christ*, intended for popular circulation.

The next work which Mr. Paley presented to the public, places him in a high rank among the advocates for the truth and authenticity of the Christian Scriptures. It is entitled "*Horæ Paulinæ; or, the Truth of the Scripture History of St. Paul evinced, by a Comparison of the Epistles which bear his Name, with the Acts of the Apostles, and with one another,*" which he dedicated to his friend Dr. Law, at that time bishop of Killala. The grand object of this work is to show, that, by a comparison of several *indirect* allusions and references in the Acts and Epistles, independently of all *collateral testimony*, their *undesigned coincidence* affords the strongest proof of their genuineness, and of the reality of the transactions to which they relate. The design was original, and the execution admirable. Notwithstanding the title, the utility of the work was not confined to the learned: the *Horæ Paulinæ* will furnish the common reader, as well as the biblical student, with ingenious criticisms and remarks, which will afford valuable assistance in the right understanding of St. Paul's Epistles.

Soon after the appearance of this work, Dr. Yorke, bishop of Ely, made an offer to Mr. Paley of the mastership of Jesus-college, Cambridge; in which the worthy prelate was solely influenced by the reputation of Mr. Paley's extraordinary talents, and by a wish to render them serviceable in a high academical situation. After deliberate consideration, he declined the honour intended him; but his sense of gratitude for his lordship's kindness he publicly expressed in a dedication, prefixed to his next work, which he published in 1794, and which is entitled "*A View of the Evidences of Christianity, in three Parts;*" first published in 3 vols. 12*mo.* but, after a few months, in 2 vols. 8*vo.* and has been continued in this form through many successive editions. It is perhaps the most complete summary of the evidences of our holy religion that has ever appeared. It also possesses the merit of offering a defence of Christianity, which every Christian may read without seeing the tenets peculiar to the sect to which he is attached in the least decried.

After the publication of the *Evidences of Christianity*, the bishop of London, Dr. Porteus, instituted him to the

prebend of St. Pancras, in the cathedral of St. Paul. This was in August 1794; and in a very short time he was promoted to the subdeanery of Lincoln, a preferment of 700l. per ann. by Dr. Prettyman, bishop of that diocese. In January 1795 he proceeded to Cambridge to take his degree of D.D. and, before he left that place, he was surprised by a letter from the bishop of Durham, Dr. Barrington, with whom he had not the smallest acquaintance, offering him the valuable rectory of Bishop-Wearmouth, estimated at 1200l. a-year. When he waited on his new patron to express his gratitude, his lordship instantly interrupted his acknowledgments: "Not a word," said he; "you cannot have greater pleasure in accepting the living of Bishop-Wearmouth, than I have in offering it to you." After reading himself in, as a prebend, at St. Paul's cathedral, March 8th, Dr. Paley, for he now assumed that title, immediately proceeded to Bishop-Wearmouth, took possession of his valuable cure, and then returned to Cambridge against the Commencement, to complete the doctor's degree, and on Sunday July 5th preached before the university his sermon "On the Dangers incidental to the Clerical Character." From this time he divided his residence principally between Lincoln and Bishop-Wearmouth, spending his summers at the latter, and his winters at the former, of those places. At Bishop-Wearmouth the principal land-owners, wishing to remove even the probability of future dispute, offered him an annual compensation for the tythes. He readily acquiesced, and granted them leases for his life; and thus, by sacrificing any eventual interest of his own in the agricultural improvement of the parish, avoided one great source of disquietude and vexation. In his writings he had already reprobated tythes as noxious to cultivation and improvement, and recommended their conversion into corn-rents, as a practicable and beneficial alteration, in which the interest of all parties might be equitably adjusted; and he now acted in conformity to these principles, leaving to the industry of his parishioners its full operation and entire reward.

He now undertook the composition of his last work, entitled "Natural Theology; or, Evidences of the Existence and Attributes of the Deity, collected from the Appearances of Nature." In this he proceeded very slowly, and was much interrupted by ill health. This work was published in the summer of 1802; it was dedicated to the bishop of Durham, for the purpose of making the most acceptable return he was able for a great and important benefit conferred upon him. "A weak, and of late a painful, state of health," he says, in his dedication, "deprived me of the power of discharging the duties of my station in a manner at all suitable either to my sense of those duties, or to my most anxious wishes concerning them. My inability for the public functions of my profession, among other consequences, left me much at leisure. That leisure was not to be lost. It was only in my study that I could repair my deficiencies in the church. It was only through the press that I could speak. These circumstances, in particular, entitled your lordship to call upon me for the only species of exertion of which I was capable, and disposed me without hesitation to obey the call in the best manner that I could. In the choice of a subject I had no place left for doubt: the following discourse alone was wanted to make up my works into a system; in which works, such as they are, the public have now before them, the evidences of natural religion; the evidences of revealed religion; and an account of the duties that result from both."

Mr. Meadley, to whose work we are greatly indebted for the facts in this article, says, he saw him for the last time in December 1804. His valuable life was then drawing fast towards a close; and the powers of nature, gradually exhausted by repeated sufferings, were becoming daily less able to resist the force of his disease. At length, on his return from his annual residence at Lincoln, early in the month of May 1805, he experienced a very violent

attack, in which the usual remedies were found ineffectual. He soon sunk under the accumulated influence of debility and disease. He met the approach of death with firmness, comforted his afflicted family with the consolation of that religion which he had so successfully taught, and on Saturday, May 25th, 1805, he breathed his last. His remains were conveyed to Carlisle, and were interred in one of the aisles of the cathedral by the side of his first wife, by whom he had eight children, viz. four sons and four daughters. His second wife survived him.

In private life Dr. Paley had nothing of the philosopher about him. He entered into little amusements with a degree of ardour, which, when contrasted with the superiority of his mind, had a pleasing effect, and constituted a very amiable trait of his character. He was fond of company, which he had extraordinary powers of entertaining; nor was he at any time more happy than when communicating the pleasure he could give, by exerting his unrivalled talents of wit and humour. No man was ever more beloved by his particular friends, or returned their affection with greater sincerity and ardour. As a divine, the great aim of Dr. Paley's labours was to maintain the authority of the Gospel as an authentic revelation, and to enforce the practice of virtue by the sanctions of a future life. His views of the Christian system were at once cheerful and enlightened, and in strict unison with the benevolent spirit of the founder. As an author, he is not remarkable for what is called fine writing; though in this he could excel, as is evident from certain parts of his Moral Philosophy, and the conclusion of the Natural Theology, which contains some passages scarcely to be excelled in the English language. He had higher objects in view; he wished to inform the understanding, and impress the heart with important truth; and for these purposes his style and method are admirably adapted. The general characteristics of his writings are plainness and simplicity; but there is, at the same time, both in his language and his ideas, a peculiarity of manner stamped by the vigour and independence of his mind, which cannot be borrowed, and which will therefore perpetuate his reputation. Dr. Paley was author of several other works besides those referred to; of these Mr. Meadley has given a complete catalogue. Since his death a collection of thirty-five Sermons has been published. In compliance with a codicil to his will they were at first printed and given away among the inhabitants of Bishop-Wearmouth. His family have since acquiesced in the general wish, and presented them to the world, as it would not have been possible to have prevented a surreptitious sale of them. *Monthly and Gent. Mag.* 1805. *Meadley's Memoirs of Paley*, 1810.

PALFA, a town of the duchy of Stiria: eighteen miles north of Leoben.

PALFREY, *f.* [*palefroi*, old Fr. Lacombe. "Cheval palefrotin, petit cheval fort et trapu, qui va l'amble.—Quand les poëtes et les romanciers ont à représenter une dame à cheval, ils la mettent toujours sur le palefroi."] A small horse fit for ladies: it is mostly distinguished in the old books from a war-horse.—The damsel is mounted on a white *palfrey*, as an emblem of her innocence. *Addison*.—The smiths and armorers on *palfreys* ride. *Dryden*.

Her wanton *palfrey* all was overspread
With tinsel trappings, woven like a wave. *Spenser*.

PALFREYED, *adj.* Riding on a palfrey:

Such dire achievements sings the bard that tells
Of *palfrey'd* dames, bold knights, and magic spells. *Tickell*.

PALFYN (John), a surgeon and anatomist of reputation, was born at Courtray in Flanders in 1649, or the following year. He settled in the practice of his profession at Ghent, where he obtained considerable reputation, and gave lectures to a number of pupils. Being extremely zealous for improvement, he visited Paris annually, and occasionally went to Leyden, and even to London,

to

to learn the novelties which were acquired in the practice of his art, in these great schools of medicine. He was the contriver of several improvements in the form of chirurgical and obstetrical instruments, and the author of several useful treatises on anatomy and surgery, which obtained considerable popularity. He died at Ghent in the year 1730, at the advanced age of eighty years.

His first work, published at Ghent in 1701, was a treatise on "Osteology," in Flemish; which was afterwards much enlarged by himself, and translated into German and French. It is particularly full relative to the bones of the head, and was cited with approbation by some of the most eminent professors of the time. In 1708, he published his "Description Anatomique des Parties de la Femme qui servent à la Génération," together with Licetus's Treatise on Monsters, and a description of one born at Ghent in 1703. This work is chiefly a compilation; but he has given some original observations on the course of the blood in the fœtus, and on monsters. In 1710, he printed his "Anatomie Chirurgicale, ou Description exacte des Parties du Corps humain, avec des Remarques utiles aux Chirurgiens dans la Pratique de leur Art," in French; and in 1718 reprinted it in Flemish. It was regarded as a valuable work, and was republished after his death, in France, Italy, and Germany. Palsyn also translated the treatise of Anthony Petit on Diseases of the Eyes, into Flemish, adding several other tracts on the same subject. *Gen. Biog.*

PALGUNGE, a town of Bengal: twenty-two miles south of Curuckdeah. Lat. 24. 3. N. lon. 86. 20. E.

PALIACUR', a town of the island of Ceylon, in a bay on the west coast: eighty miles north-north-west of Trinkamaly. Lat. 9. 33. N. lon. 80. 14. E.

PALIAPA'DA, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic: fifteen miles south-south-west of Polore.

PALIA'R, a river of Hindoostan, which runs into the bay of Bengal four miles south of Sadras.

PALIBO'THRA, in ancient geography, a very considerable town of India, both with regard to extent and wealth, situated on the right bank of the Ganges, and at the confluence of a large river with it, which river Arrian calls *Erranobos*, inferior to none but the Ganges and Indus, and which Pliny denominates *Jomanes*, (*Jumnah*.) This ancient author says, in one place, that the *Jomanes* entered the Ganges by Palibothra, between Methora and Clisobara or Carysobara: but in another place he mentions the conflux of the Ganges and *Jomanes*; and in the next article says, that Palibothra is situated 425 miles below that point of conflux. Pliny's Palibothra, says major Rennel, is clearly *Patna*; and it is probable that Strabo meant the same place, by the distance from the mouth of the Ganges. Palibothra was the capital of the *Prasii*; and in dimensions eighty stadia in length and fifty broad, or about ten miles long and nearly two wide.

PALICATE, a sea-port town of India, on this side of the Ganges. It is seated on the coast of Coromandel, in the kingdom of Carnate, seventy miles north of Fort St. George. Here the Dutch had a factory, and a fort called the Fort of Guelderland. Lat. 13. 34. N. lon. 80. 1. E.

PALICAU'DCHERY, a strong town of Hindoostan, in the country of Calicut. This place was taken from Hyder Ali in the year 1783, by the British under Colonel Fullarton, after a long and vigorous defence, with a garrison of 4000 men. It was afterwards evacuated; but at the peace ceded to the English; and, as it commands the passage between the two coasts of Malabar and Coromandel, by way of the Trichinopoly and Coimbatore countries, it was of great importance to them, when Coimbatore was in the hands of Tippoo, because, by our holding this place on the west, and Dindigul on the east of Coimbatore, that province was of little use to him in the time of war, without a very large force to protect it. But the fall of that sovereign, and the reduction of his territories, have effected a total change of circum-

stances. (See Memoir of a Map of the Peninsula of India, by Major Rennel.) It is twenty-six miles south-west of Coimbatore, and seventy south-east of Calicut. Lat. 10. 58. N. lon. 76. 45. E.

PALICE GRE'AN, incorrectly written *Palice* or *Pallas Green*, a small post-town of the county of Limerick, Ireland. It is situated at the foot of *Knock Green*, the Hill of the Sun, which is remarkable for its basaltic pillars, about a mile from the village, towards Limerick. These pillars, though much inferior to those in the county of Antrim, are calculated to arrest the attention of the traveller, and have led to an examination of the hill, and of other parts of the county, which will probably be laid before the public. Palice Grean is twelve miles and a quarter east of Limerick, and about ninety-six south-west from Dublin.

PALICI, or PALISCI, two deities, sons of Jupiter by Thalia, whom Æschylus calls *Ætna*, in a tragedy which is now lost, according to Macrobius. The nymph *Ætna*, when pregnant, entreated her lover to remove her from the pursuits of Juno. The god concealed her in the bowels of the earth; and, when the time of her delivery was come, the earth opened and brought into the world two children, who received the name of Palici, *απο του παλιν ικεσθαι*, "because they came again into the world from the bowels of the earth." These deities were worshipped with great ceremonies by the Sicilians; and near their temple were two small lakes of sulphureous water, which were supposed to have sprung out of the earth at the same time that they were born. Near these pools it was usual to take the most solemn oaths, by those who wished to decide controversies and quarrels. If any of the persons who took the oaths perjured themselves, they were immediately punished in a supernatural manner; and those whose oath, by the deities of the place, was sincere, departed unhurt. The Palici had also an oracle, which was consulted upon great emergencies, and which rendered the truest and most unequivocal answers. In a superstitious age, the altars of the Palici were stained with the blood of human sacrifices; but this barbarous custom was soon abolished, and the deities were satisfied with their usual offerings. *Lempriere's Classical Dict.*

PALICON'DA, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic: twenty-five miles west of Arcot.—A town of Hindoostan, in Travancore: fifty-five miles north of Anjenja.—A town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Gooty: twenty miles west of Gooty.

PALICOU'RE'A, *f.* in botany. See STEPHANIUM.

PALIFICA'TION, *f.* [*palus*, Lat.] The act or practice of making ground firm with piles.—I have said nothing of *palification*, or piling of the ground-plot, commanded by Vitruvius, when we build upon a moist soil. *Wotton.*

PALIFIS'CO, a town of Naples, in Lavora: five miles north of Sezza.

PALIGHERY, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Cuddapa: twenty-four miles west of Cuddapa.

PALIL'IA, a feast among the ancient Romans in honour of the goddess *Pales*. The *Palilia*, by some called *Parilia*, (*à pariendo*,) were celebrated by the shepherds on the day of the foundation of Rome, which, according to Cato, was the 11th of the calends of May, or the 21st of April, to beseech that goddess to take care of their flocks, and preserve them from wolves and diseases. On that day the people purified themselves, and also their folds and flocks, with water and brimstone, and burned the shrub called *savine*, whose smoke diffused itself all over the fold. After this, they offered in sacrifice to the goddess milk, boiled wine, and millet: then followed the feast. Part of the ceremony consisted in lighting heaps of straw, and jumping over them. Ovid (*de Fest. l. iv.*) describes this whole solemnity at full length. These ceremonies were accompanied with musical instruments, such as flutes, cymbals, &c.

PALIL'IA, *f.* in botany. See HELICONIA.

PALILIC'UM,

PALILICIUM, a fixed star of the first magnitude in the Bull's Eye; called also *Aldebaran*. Pliny gives the name Palilicium to the Hyades, of which the Palilicium is properly only one. See TAURUS.

PALIO'GIA, *f.* [from the Gr. *παλιον*, again, and *λογος*, a word.] A figure in rhetoric, in which the same word is repeated, to give it greater force or energy.

PALIMBACH'US, *f.* in poetry, a foot consisting of two long syllables and one short.

PALIMBAN'. See PALAMBAN.

PALIMER'DI, a town of Hindoostan, in Madura: thirty-five miles north-north-east of Coilpetta.

PALIN'DI, a town of Hindoostan: forty-five miles north of Travancore.

PALINDROME, *f.* [*palindromus*, Lat. from the Gr. *παλιν*, again, and *δρομος*, course.] A word or sentence which reads the same either backward or forward; as, *did, madam; Anna, Hannah*; or this sentence, "Lewd did I live, evil did I dwell."

Had I compil'd from Amadis de Gaul,
Or spun-out riddles, and weav'd fifty tomes
Of logoglyphes, and curious *palindromes*. *B. Jonson.*

Sentences of this kind thrown into metre have often been called *devil's verses*, no doubt from the legendary tale (with a Latin distich) which we have given under the article LONDON, vol. xiii. p. 425. and, as we there promised to renew this curious, difficult, but useless, subject, we shall now redeem our pledge.

1. Camden says: "A scholler and a gentleman living in a rude country-towne, where he had no respect, wrote this with a coale in the Towne-Hall: *Subi dura a rudibus*; Bear rude usage from rude people."

2. The following is also from Camden. "A noble lady in queene Elizabeth's time, being forbidden the court for being over familiar with a great lord, [not an Italian footman,] gave this embleme, the moon covered with a cloud, and underneath, *Ablata, at alba*; Taken from sight, but still white."

3. We find in Camden's Remains the following sarcastic palindrome upon a lawyer: he is made to say to his client, *Si munni, immuni*; "Give me my fee, and I warrant you free."

4. On the christening-font at Harlow in Essex, Sandbach in Cheshire, also on the holy-water shell at the entrance of St. Etienne des Grès at Paris, we find this curious Greek palindromical sentence: *Νιχον ανομημα, μη μοναν οφιν*; "Wash not thy face only, but also thy sin." This appropriate sentence is said, upon good authority, to have been originally written on the margin of the holy-water basin at the church of Sancta Sophia, built by the emperor Constantine at Byzantium, called afterwards Constantinople. It is moreover said to be copied from the 6th book of the Anthologia, which contains ten more verses of the same extraordinary kind. The author of the "Dictionnaire de Paris" affirms that it is not in the Anthologia, neither is it a verse. We have not the Anthologia at hand, to ascertain the former fact; and, as to the latter, it is certain that it is not an hexameter nor a pentameter; yet, as the Greek verses are of various kinds, it may still be a verse, or a part of one.

5. In the following example, also from Camden, it must be observed, that the hexameter line is not only palindromical, but that every component word reads the same backwards as forwards:

Odo tenet mulum, madidam mappam tenet Anna.
Anna tenet mappam madidam, mulum tenet Odo.

"Odo (the hostler) holds the mule; Anna (the maid) holds a wet napkin, or dishclout." Or, "Anna holds the wet napkin; Odo holds the mule."

6. An epitaph on Henry IV. of France, by Panchasius, seems to have given the author a great deal of trouble, and certainly would give a great deal more to any one who should attempt to translate it. It is an elegiac distich:

Arca, serenum me gere regem, munere sacra,
Solem, aulas, animos, omina, falva, melos.

7. The following verse is from Misson's Voyage to Italy, vol. ii. *Sacrum pinque dabo, non macrum sacrificabo*; "I will give a fat offering, not a lean sacrifice." This is copied from the old cloister of St. Maria Novella at Florence; where it is applied to the sacrifices of Cain and Abel. The above hexameter verse applies to Abel; but, read backward, not by letters but by words, and altering the punctuation, it will produce a pentameter verse applicable to Cain; thus: *Sacrificabo macrum, non dabo pinque sacrum*. "I will give a lean sacrifice, not a fat offering."

It might appear to be no very difficult matter to form a verse that would make good sense with merely the words reversed. Yet those who might choose to try the experiment would find it perhaps not easy to form a Latin hexameter, which, read backward, becomes a pentameter; each verse also to form a sentence well adapted to the character of the party supposed to utter it. Add to this, that both are *lequine verses* also, the middle and end of each rhyming to one another.

8. Many things of this kind would no doubt be discovered, were the discovery considered worth the pains of seeking for them. The two following were sent us a few days ago: they evidently allude to the present "indelicate investigation" into the conduct of the queen of England. — *O! Regem non me gero*; "I do not behave myself as a king." — *Regina laniger*; "The queen, a lamb!"

9. Although our Gallic neighbours are considered to be fond of, and skilful in, all sorts of futile amusements, we do not recollect any French palindromic composition; the reason is, perhaps, that few French words end with a bare consonant, and that most of them are long compound ones. It is remarkable, however, that many French words, read backwards, give English ones: *rat*, tar; *net*, ten; *reve*, ever; *fi*, if; *seton*, (a rowel,) notes; *on*, no; *si*, is; *par*, rap; *edit*, tide; &c. &c. We must however notice a most common, but also most unheeded, palindromic expression in the French tongue; *mon nom*, which reads reciprocally; also *Noyon*, a town of France; and we doubt not that many more might be discovered.

As a sort of appendage to the foregoing observations, we must subjoin two Latin hexameter verses which were interchanged between two boys at a French school. The first sent the following line to his friend; *Mitto tibi navem puppi prorique carentem*; "I send you a ship without either stern or prow." The meaning is: I send you *ave*; the word *navem* being stripped of its first and last letters, (the prow and the stern,) leaves *ave*, "all hail, or health." The other boy answered in a palindromical way, and sent; *Mitto tibi metulas, eandros imitare legendo*; "I send you metulas (a word of no sense in this case, since the first syllable of *metula*, from *meta*, a mark, a measure, is long); but imitate the crab, i. e. read it backward, then you have *salutem*; and the line means clearly, "I send you greeting; good health."

10. We have seen but one English sentence of the palindromic kind, which is quoted at the head of this article. We have indeed some pleasure in finding that these *difficiles nugæ* make no figure in our language.

PAL'ING, *f.* A kind of fence-work for parks, gardens, and grounds:

To every house belongs a space of ground,
Of equal size, once fenc'd with *pal'ing* round. *Crabbe.*

PAL'ING-MAN, *f.* This word, mentioned in stat. 22 Edw. IV. c. 23. and 11 Hen. VII. c. 23. seems to be a merchant-denizen, or one born within the English *pale*. But Skinner judges it to be a fishmonger, or merchant of fish. *Cowell.*

PALIN'GE, a town of France, in the department of the Saône and Loire, situated on the Charollois canal; seven miles north-north-west of Charolles, and fifteen south of Montcenis.

PALIN.

PALINGENE/SIA, *f.* [Greek; formed of *παλις*, anew, and *γενεσις*, generation.] New birth, or regeneration. It is also used by some for the migration or passage of the soul of a deceased person into another body; and is almost the same thing with the metempsychosis taught by Pythagoras, and still believed by the Brahmans, Banjans, and other philosophers of the east.

PALINGENESIA is used among chemists for the reproducing a mixed body from its ashes. This has been pretended to by many, as well as the philosopher's stone, and other wonderful powers; but, as to the palingenesia, or resuscitation of plants, the instances produced are no more than some of those artificial vegetations which the learned Monf. Homberg has observed and described many times. See Homberg in *Mem. Acad. Sciences*, 1710. Boyle's Works abridg. vol. i. p. 69. and Sibby's Astrology, p. 1114, 15.

PALINGE/NIUS (Marcellus), a modern Latin poet, who flourished about the beginning of the sixteenth century, was probably a native of Stellata in the Ferrarese, whence he added *Stellatus* to his name. It has been supposed that his true name was Pier-Angelo Marizolli, of which his Latin appellation is the anagram. Some have imagined that he was physician to Hercules II. duke of Ferrara, to whom the work for which he is celebrated is inscribed. This is his poem entitled "*Zodiacus Vitæ*; i. e. de Hominis Vita, Studio, ac Moribus, optimè instituendis, Lib. XII." It derives its title of the Zodiac of Life, from its division into twelve parts, each inscribed with one of the signs of the zodiac. This performance, of which the professed purpose is to guide men in the road to present and future happiness, is interspersed with many invectives against the court and church of Rome, the monks, and clergy; whence the author is supposed to have been one of those converts to the reformation who frequented the court of the dukes of Ferrara, sister of Francis I. This poem was placed in the first class of prohibited books in the Index Expurgatorius; and it is affirmed that, after his death, his body was dug up and burned; but very little seems to be known with certainty of his person and life. The *Zodiacus* is spoken of very differently by different critics, some allowing it no merit of plan and little of execution, while others call it a fine poem, that deserves to be more read. The editions of it have been numerous. The best is that of Rotterdam, 8vo. 1722. It has been translated into French. *Bibliogr. Diæ.*

PALINGUIR', one of the Philippine islands, about fifteen miles in circumference, situated to the north of Cape Engano, on the island of Luçon.

PALINODE, or **PALINODY**, *f.* [from the Gr. *παλις*, anew, and *ωδη*, a song.] A discourse contrary to a preceding one. Hence the phrase *Palinodiam canere*, "to sing palinody," q. d. to make a recantation. And thus it has passed as a general name for any poem, or the like, which contains a retractation in favour of a person whom the poet before had offended.—The poet Stesichorus is said to be the first author of the *palinody*. The sixth ode of the first book of Horace, beginning "*O matre pulchra*," is a true *palinody*. Chambers.—He was suspended from all execution of his priestly function within the university, till he should make his *palinodie*. A. Wood's *Annals Univ. Ox.* anno 1640.

You, two and two, singing a *palinode*,
March to your several homes.

B. Jonson.

PALINTO/CIA, *f.* [Gr. formed from *παλις*, anew, and *τοκος*, of *τιδω*, I bring forth.] In antiquity, the birth or delivery of a child a second time. Thus the second birth of Bacchus, proceeding out of Jupiter's thigh, was a *palintocia*.

PALINTOCIA is also used for the restitution of usury, or the refunding of interest. The Megarens, having expelled their tyrant, ordained the *palintocia*; that is, they

made a law, that all the creditors should return to their debtors the interest they had received for money lent.

PALINUM, a cape on the coast of Naples, in lat. 40. 2. N. lon. 15. 10. E.

PALINU'RUS, in fabulous history, Æneas's pilot, whose fate Virgil very particularly describes. He fell into the sea when asleep; and was three days exposed to the tempests and its agitation, and at last came safe ashore, when the cruel inhabitants of the place murdered him to get his clothes. His body was left unburied on the sea-shore; and since, according to the religion of the old Romans, no one could cross the Stygian lake before 100 years were elapsed, if his remains had not been decently buried, we find Æneas, when he went down to hell, speaking to Palinurus, and assuring him, that, though his bones were deprived of a funeral, yet the place where his body was exposed should soon be adorned with a monument, and bear his name; and, accordingly, a promontory was called *Palinuri Promontorium*, with a cognominal port, (now *Palinuro*;) it was situated at the south extremity of the Sinus Pæstanus, on the coast of Lucania.

PALISA'DE, or **PALISA'DO**, *f.* [Fr. and Span. *palus*, Lat.] Pales set by way of inclosure or defence.—Wood is useful for *palisadoes* for fortifications, being very hard and durable. *Mortimer's Husb.*—The city is surrounded with a strong wall, and that wall guarded with *palisades*. *Broome on the Odyssey.*

The Trojans round the place a rampire cast,
And *palisades* about the trenches plac'd. *Dryden.*

PALISADE, in fortification, an inclosure of stakes or piles driven into the ground, each six or seven inches square, and nine or ten feet long, three of which are hid underground. They are fixed about three inches asunder, and braced together by pieces nailed across them near the tops, and secured by thick posts at the distance of every four or five yards. Palisades are placed in the covert-way, at three feet from, and parallel to, the parapet or ridge of the glacis, to secure it from being surprised. They are usually planted perpendicularly; though some make an angle inclining towards the ground next the enemy, that ropes cast over them, to tear them up, may slip.

Turning Palisades are an invention of M. Coehorn, in order to preserve the palisades of the parapet of the covert-way from the besiegers' shot. They are so ordered, that as many of them as stand in the length of a rod, or about ten feet, turn up and down like traps, so as not to be in sight of the enemy till they just bring on their attack, and yet are always ready to do the proper service of palisades.

Palisades shod with iron are used in shallow streams and marshes, to prevent small craft from plying, or persons from crossing them on foot.

PALISADE, in gardening, denotes a sort of ornament; being a row of trees which bear branches and leaves from the bottom, cut and spread in manner of a wall, along the side of an alley, or the like; so as to appear like a wall covered with leaves. These palisades are made of jessamine, phillyrea, &c.

To **PALISA'DE**, *v. a.* To inclose with palisades.

PA'LISH, *adj.* Somewhat pale.—Spirit of nitre makes with copper a *palish* blue; spirit of urine a deep blue. *Arbutnot on Air.*

Crete, ever wont the cypress sad to bear;
Acheron banks, the *palish* poplar. *Bp. Hall's Sat.*

PALIS'SE, a town of France, in the department of the Allier: ten miles north east of Cusset, and nine south-west of Donjon.

PALISSE', *adj.* In heraldry, a range of palisades before a fortification represented on a fesse, rising up a considerable height, and pointed at top, with the field appearing through them.

PALISSY' (Bernard de), an ingenious artist, and proficient in natural philosophy, was born at Agen, a city

of France, about the year 1524. He was brought up to the trade of a potter, which he carried on at Saintes; and he was also employed as a surveyor and draughtsman of plans. A thirst for instruction led him to travel; and, having by accident got possession of a cup of enamelled pottery, his whole attention was turned upon endeavouring to imitate it. For this purpose he commenced a series of experiments that absolutely impoverished him; he even broke-up his furniture to supply his furnaces with fuel, and sold his clothes to furnish his assistant operator with wages. At length his labours were crowned with success; and he so perfected himself in the manufacture, that he was immediately raised to the head of his profession. He now pursued the science of chemistry, and applied his knowledge to the improvement of agriculture. He was the first person who formed a collection of natural history at Paris, upon which he gave lectures at the rate of half-a-crown each person, a large sum for that period; but he entered into an obligation to return the money four-fold, provided it were found that he taught any thing that proved false. In 1563 he printed at Rochelle "Recepte veritable par laquelle tous les Hommes de la France pourront apprendre à augmenter leur Trésors," &c. which, after his death, was reprinted under the title of "Moyen de devenir riche," in two vols. 8vo. In 1580, he published "Discours admirable de la Nature des Eaux et Fontaines, des Métaux, des Sols, des Salines, des Pierres, des Terres," &c. This work was exceedingly valuable in the then-existing state of knowledge; and in it he first taught the true theory of springs, and asserted that fossil shells were real sea-shells deposited by the waters of the ocean. He also pointed out the use of marl and of lime in agriculture. This excellent man was sincerely and ardently attached, with regard to religion, to the principles of Calvinism, on account of which he was, in the reign of Henry III. in 1584, apprehended and committed to the Bastille. The monarch, who, it appears, had a true regard for him, plainly said, that, if he did not comply with the prevailing religion, he should be constrained to leave him in the hands of his enemies; to which Palissy replied, with energy, "Your majesty has often said that you pity me; for my part, I pity you for pronouncing the words *I shall be constrained*. This is not speaking like a king; but, let me inform you, in royal language, that neither the Guisards, your whole people, nor yourself, shall constrain a potter to bend his knee before images." He used commonly to say, in allusion to his religion and his trade as a potter, "I have no other property than heaven and earth." Such are the only facts known of this estimable citizen: the time of his death is not ascertained. A new and complete edition of his works was published at Paris in 1777, with notes, by Faujas de Saint-Fonds. *Gen. Biog.*

PALIURI. See CAPE PALIURI, vol. iii.

PALIURO AFFINIS. See PRISONIA and VOLKAMERIA.

PALIURUS. See RHAMNUS.

PALIURUS, in ancient geography, now *Nahil*, a river of Africa, with a town of the same name at its mouth, at the west of Egypt, on the Mediterranean.

PALIUS, or PALIURUM LA'CUS, a small but very remarkable lake of Sicily, in the Val di Noto, two miles west from the town of Palagonia, and only one from Mineo, whence it is sometimes called the Lake of Mineo. It is surrounded by volcanic mountains, and lies in a small plain somewhat hollow towards the middle. This plain is half surrounded by steep rocks, which give it the appearance of a monstrous crater that has sunk down by some convulsion. The lake is placed in its centre, and, as it were, in the middle of a funnel. Its depth often varies, and consequently its circumference. In the winter-time it may be about sixty or seventy fathoms in diameter, and about ten in depth; but in summer, when great drought prevails, it is often entirely dry. Mons. Dolomieu visited it in the month of May, 1798, at which

period it formed an oval about thirty fathoms in length and twenty in breadth: its depth was about five or six. It had a strong smell of Jew's pitch, or asphalt, even at a considerable distance. The water in its colour inclined a little to green, and had an exceedingly nauseous and disagreeable taste. "I was told that the water was often tepid; but it had, at the time when I examined it, the temperature of the atmosphere. In several parts of it I observed a violent bubbling, and particularly in four places near the middle. This bubbling was stronger at certain intervals, and the water was thrown up sometimes to the height of two or three feet, rising in this manner every five or six minutes.

"When the lake is dry, one may without danger examine its centre, where there are several deep holes. From these holes currents of air, somewhat warm, continually arise, and throw back sand and other bodies, if put into them. It is this æriform vapour which, when the basin is full, forces up the water, and makes it to be covered with foam. The mud at the bottom and on the bank, which has a black colour, is tenacious, and smells like pitch. A little petroleum has also been sometimes found at the surface of the water. The whole soil of the small plain consists of black, tough, resinous, inflammable, earth. A few years ago, some straw huts in this neighbourhood having been set on fire, the fire was communicated to the ground, which burnt with a whitish dull flame, like that of the inflammable springs in Dauphny, during several months, and was extinguished with the greatest difficulty, as the fire, when quelled in one place, broke out in another. Since that period great care is taken not to kindle fire in the neighbourhood. From this phenomenon I am induced to think, that the air which rises through the water of the lake, and which probably finds a passage through the ground, may be of an inflammable nature also; as the air of marshes, which burns without any noise.

"The fertility of this small plain is so great, that it produces a most abundant crop every year, without requiring much agricultural care. In walking over the ground, a hollow noise is heard; which seems a proof of there being beneath the surface subterranean cavities, like those of Solfatara near Puzzuolo; and there is reason to think that this place has been formed from the remains of a fallen crater, a part of which is still seen in the surrounding mountains; and between this lake and that of Agnano near Naples, there is no other difference than the greater quantity of water in the one, and the more violent efflux of vapour in the other. The vapour which rises from the ground is considered as of a suffocating nature; so that people who lie down on the earth, or only bend their bodies towards it, are exposed to the greatest danger; though one may walk over it without the least fear. All these phenomena have a great similarity to those of the Grotto del Cane, near the lake Agnano.

"On the banks of the lake Palus are found a great many small clusters of ashes and slag, exactly like those adhering to the sides of the craters of Ætna and Vesuvius. The mountains and lava round this lake exhibit the most evident marks of their great antiquity, as in many places they are covered with calcareous stones, from which it may with certainty be inferred, that they must have originated at a time when the present continent was not inhabited. In the time of Diodorus Siculus, however, the crater, which forms the present basin of the lake, showed traces of its internal inflammation: as we are informed by this historian, that flames burst forth from this spot; that the water possessed a considerable degree of warmth; and that a horrid thundering noise was heard. The phenomena of this lake have at all times been attended with so many singularities as to give rise to fables without number: at present it is said to be inhabited by a fairy. In ancient times, these phenomena were ascribed to the supernatural power and influence of some deity. On this account, a very celebrated temple, the remains of which I could

I could not find, notwithstanding all the trouble I took to discover them, was erected here to Jupiter and the nymph Thalia. People swore also by this lake, with the same respect and solemnity as by the river Styx. What astonished the ancients, and what even at present excites the wonder of all those who visit this lake, is the incessant ebullition of the water, though the least increase is not observed in it on the bank."

PALIZEU'L, late a town of France, in the department of the Forests: eighteen miles north-north-east of Sedan.

PALIZ'ZI, a town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra: three miles east of Reggio.

PALKA'NE, a town of Sweden, in the province of Tavastland: twenty-three miles north of Tavasthus.

PALL, *f.* [pæll, Sax. *pallium*, Lat. from the ancient Sueb. *fala felu*, to cover. *Serenius*.] A cloak or mantle of state:

As fair Aurora in her purple *pall*,
Out of the east the dawning day doth call;
So forth the comes.

Spenser.

Let gorgeous tragedy
In scepter'd *pall* come sweeping by.

Milton.

For vest of *pall*, thy fingers smail,
That wout on harp to stray,
A cloke must sheer from the slaughter'd deer,

To keep the cold away. *Lady of the Lake.*

The mantle of an archbishop. See PALLIUM.—An archbishop ought to be consecrated and anointed; and, after consecration, he shall have the *pall* sent him. *Ayliffe*.—The covering thrown over the dead:

The right side of the *pall* old Egeus kept,
And on the left the royal Theseus wept.

Dryden.

To PALL, *v. a.* To cloak; to invest:

Come thick night,
And *pall* thee in the dunest smoke of hell,
That my keen knife see not the wound it makes. *Shakespeare.*

To PALL, *v. n.* [a corruption of *pale*, and applied originally to colours.] To grow vapid; to become insipid.—Empty one bottle into another swiftly, lest the drink *pall*. *Bacon*.

Beauty soon grows familiar to the lover,
Fades in the eye, and *palls* upon the sense. *Addison*.

To be weakened; to become spiritless; to grow flat:
Our indiscretion sometimes serves as well,
When our deep plots do *pall*. *Shakespeare's Hamlet*.

To PALL, *v. a.* To make insipid or vapid.—Reason and reflection, representing perpetually to the mind the meanness of all sensual gratifications, blunt the edge of his keenest desires, and *pall* all his enjoyments. *Atterbury*.

Wit, like wine, from happier climates brought,
Dash'd by these rogues, turns English common draught,
They *pall* Moliere's and Lopez' sprightly strain. *Swift*.
To make spiritless; to dispirit:

A miracle

Their joy with unexpected sorrow *pall'd*. *Dryden*.
Base barbarous man! the more we raise our love,
The more we *pall*, and cool, and kill his ardour. *Dryden*.

To weaken; to impair.—I'll never follow thy *pall'd* fortunes more. *Shakespeare*.—To cloy.—*Palled* appetite is humorous, and must be gratified with sauces rather than food. *Tatler*.

PALL, *f.* Nauseating. *Not in use*.—The *palls*, or nauseatings, which continually intervene, are of the worst and most hateful kind of sensation. *Ed. Shaftesbury's Inq.*

PALL, a circar of Hindoothan, in Guzerat, south of Oudipour.

PAL'LA, a small island in the Eastern Indian Sea. Lat. 3. 4. N. lon. 125. 28. E.

PALLA, *f.* in Roman antiquity, a mantle which women wore over the gown called *stola*. It was borne on the left shoulder; whence, passing to the other side, under the right arm, the two ends were bound under the left arm, leaving the breast and arm quite bare. It had a great many folds, and derived its name from *πᾶλλω*, to shake or tremble, as agitated by the wind.

PALLADIA, *f.* in botany. See FUCHSIA excortica.

PALLADINO (James), a singular theological writer, more commonly called *James de Teramo*, from the name of the city, in the Farther Abruzzo, where he was born in 1349. He embraced the ecclesiastical life; and became successively bishop of Monopoli, archbishop of Tarentum, of Florence, and of Spoleto. He also filled the post of administrator of the duchy of Spoleto, under Alexander V. and John XXIII. In the year 1417, he was sent into Poland, in the character of papal legate; and he died there in the same year, about the age of sixty-eight. He was the author of some extraordinary books, which were very popular in his day, and were peculiarly adapted to the taste of such a barbarous age. The most famous of them is a pious romance, entitled "Jacobi de Teramo Compendium perbreve, Consolatio Peccatorum nuncupatum, et apud nonnullos *Belial* vocitatum: id est, Processus Luciferi contra Jesum." This work was printed at Augsburg in 1472, folio, and frequently afterwards; and was translated into almost all the languages of Europe. *Ladvoeat's Dict. Hist.*

PALLADIO (Andrea), a famous Italian architect, was born at Vicenza in 1518, of parents in the middle rank of life. As an artist he first exercised himself in sculpture, probably in an humble walk; and it appears to have been the poet Trissino, who, first discovering his genius for the arts, gave him instructions in mathematical science, and explained to him the works of Vitruvius. He soon obtained distinction as an architect; and, having accompanied Trissino to Rome, he set himself to examine with great diligence all the remains of ancient edifices in that capital, and formed his taste upon them. He visited several other parts of Italy; and in 1547 returned to Vicenza, where he found the magistrates occupied about the reparation of their Basilic, or court of justice. His plan for this great work was approved, and the conduct of it was committed to him. His reputation caused him to be sent for to Venice, where he built the palace Foscari, in the style of pure antiquity. He was employed for other works in the same city, among which was a refectory and church for the monastery of St. Giorgio Maggiore. Several other Italian cities were afterwards decorated with magnificent edifices, public and private, of his construction; and he was invited to the court of Emanuel-Philibert duke of Savoy, who received him with distinguished honours. No architect has given more plans than Palladio; and to him is principally attributed the classic taste which reigns in so many of the buildings of Italy. His masterpiece is esteemed to be the Olympic Theatre at Vicenza, in imitation of that of Marcellus at Rome. He died in that city of an epidemic disease in 1580, at the age of sixty-two, and received a splendid funeral in the church of the Dominicans.

Palladio was of a good presence, cheerful, modest, the friend of all men of talents, and affable towards the workmen, whom he willingly instructed in points where they were ignorant. His memory is highly honoured by the votaries of the fine arts; and the dignified simplicity and purity of his taste has given him the appellation of The Raphael of Architects. He improved his art, not only by his edifices, but by his writings, which are standard performances. 1. His Treatise on Architecture, in four books, was first published at Venice in 1570, folio; and has been several times reprinted. A magnificent edition, in 3 vols. folio, was published at London in 1715, in Italian, French, and English. Another, equally splendid, has since been published at Venice, in 4 vols. folio, with the addition of his inedited buildings. 2. Lord Burlington

ton published in London, in 1730, a volume entitled *I Disegni delle Terme Antiche di Andrea Palladio*. 3. *Le Antichità di Roma*, not printed till after his death. 4. He illustrated Cæsar's Commentaries, by annexing to Badelli's translation of that work a long Preface on the Military System of the Romans, with copper-plates, designed for the most part by his two sons, Leonida and Orazio, who both died soon after. *D'Argenville Vies des Archit.*

PALLA'DIUM, in antiquity, a statue of the goddess Pallas. It was about three cubits high, and represented the goddess sitting, and holding a pike in her right hand, and in her left a distaff and a spindle. It fell down from heaven near the tent of Ilus, as he was building the citadel of Ilium. Some however suppose that it fell at Pessinus in Phrygia; or, according to others, Dardanus got it as a present from his mother Electra. There are some who maintain that the Palladium was made with the bones of Pelops by Aboris; but Apollodorus says, that it was no more than a piece of clock-work, which moved of itself. However various the opinions of ancient authors be about this celebrated statue, it is universally allowed, that on its preservation depended the safety of Troy. This fatality the Greeks, during the Trojan war, were well aware of; and therefore Ulysses and Diomedes were commissioned to steal it. This they effected; and, if we can rely upon the authority of some, they were directed how to carry it away by Helenus, a son of Priam, who in this betrayed his country, because his brother Deiphobus, at the death of Paris, had married Helen, of whom he was enamoured. Minerva was enraged at the violence offered to her statue; and, according to Virgil, the Palladium itself seemed to have received life and motion, and, by the flashes which started from its eyes, and sudden springs from the earth, it seemed to show the resentment of the goddesses:

Scarce to the camp the sacred image came,
When from her eyes she flash'd a living flame;
A briny sweat bedew'd her limbs around,
And thrice she sprung indignant from the ground;
Thrice was she seen with martial rage to wield
Her ponderous spear, and shake her blazing shield. *Æn. ii.*

After all, it is pretended by some, that the true Palladium was not carried away from Troy by the Greeks, but only a statue of similar size and shape, which was placed near it, to deceive whatever sacrilegious persons attempted to steal it. The Palladium, therefore, as they maintain, Æneas conveyed safe from Troy to Italy, and it was afterwards preserved by the Romans with the greatest secrecy and veneration in the temple of Vesta; a circumstance which none but the vestal virgins knew. It was esteemed the destiny of Rome; and there were several others made perfectly like it, to secure it from being stolen.

PALLA'DIUM, *f.* [see the preceding article.] Any security or protection.—A kind of *palladium* to save the city, wherever it remained. *Milton*.—The Jebusites said they should not come into the house, that is, they would never again commit the safety of the fort to such *palladiums* as these. *Gregory's Notes on Script.* 1684.

PALLA'DIUM, *f.* A simple substance, and a metal. This metallic substance was discovered by Dr. Wollaston in 1803. See the article **MINERALOGY**, vol. xv. p. 506, 7.

PALLA'DIUS, an eastern prelate and ecclesiastical writer, was a native of Galatia, and born about the year 368. While a very young man he began to travel in foreign countries; and, coming to Alexandria in Egypt, he determined to embrace the monastic life. He spent three years under the discipline of Dorotheus, a celebrated ascetic of Thebes; and in 391 he visited the monasteries and most celebrated solitaries in the desert of Nitria. At length, having wandered over almost the whole of Egypt, he was obliged, by the infirm state of his health, to quit that country, and retire to Palestine.

In the year 400, or 401, he went into Bythinia, where he was ordained bishop of Helenopolis. It is by no means certain whether Palladius, author of the "*Lausiac History*," and Palladius, author of "*A Dialogue of the Life of St. Chrysostom*," written in 408, were different persons, or one and the same. Dupin reckons these works to have been written by the same hand; Tillemont and Fabricius think them the productions of different persons. The facts already cited, are taken from the *Lausiac History*, so called from Lausus, a man of eminence in the imperial court at Constantinople, to whom it is inscribed.

Upon the supposition that it was the same Palladius, the author of the *History*, who wrote the *Dialogue*, the following particulars may be added. He was ordained by St. John Chrysostom, to whose party he attached himself; and, upon the banishment of Chrysostom, in 404, Palladius fell under persecution; and, being obliged to withdraw from his see, retired into Italy, and took refuge at Rome. Some time after, venturing to return into the east, he was banished to Syene, at the southern extremity of Egypt. Having regained his liberty, he resigned the see of Helenopolis, and was appointed to the bishopric of Aspona in Galatia. It is not certain when he died; but it was probably some time before the year 431, since Eusebius, his successor at Aspona, presided at the council of Ephesus, which was held in that year. He wrote the "*Lausiac History*" about the year 421, which contains the lives of persons who at that time were eminent for their extraordinary austerities in Egypt and Palestine. The style in which it is written is plain and simple; the first edition of it, in Greek, was published by Meursius at Leyden, in 1616. In several manuscripts, there is subjoined to the *History* a book "*Concerning the Nations of India and the Brahmins*," which has been attributed to Palladius, but without any proof. Cave says, nothing more can be affirmed of this work, than that it is the production of some Christian writer who lived before the destruction of the Roman empire. *Lardner*, vol. xi. *Cave's Hist. Lit.* vol. i.

PALLANDROS, a town of the island of Cyprus, situated at the foot of the mountain of St. Croix; anciently called *Palea*: twenty-four miles north of Limasol.

PALLANTEUM, in ancient geography, a town of Italy, or perhaps more properly a citadel, built by Evander on Mount Palatine, from whence its name originates. Virgil says, it is called after Pallas, the grandfather of Evander; but Dionysius derives its name from Palantium, a town of Arcadia.

PALLANTIA, in ancient geography, a town of Hither Spain, in the country of the Vaccæi, on the river Cea; distinguished, according to Appian, by the valour of its inhabitants. Now **PALENCIA**.

PALLANTIAS, a patronymic of Aurora, as being related to the giant Pallas. *Ovid. Met.*

PALLANTIDES, the fifty sons of Pallas, the son of Pandion, and the brother of Ægeus. They were all killed by Theseus, the son of Ægeus, whom they opposed when he came to take possession of his father's kingdom. This opposition they showed in hopes of succeeding to the throne, as Ægeus left no children except Theseus, whose legitimacy was disputed, as he was born at Træzene. *Plut. in Thest.*

PALLANTIUM, a town of Arcadia, north-east of Megalopolis, and at the extremity of a plain, which, being enfeebled by a colony detached to Megalopolis, became a village in the time of the emperor Antonine, who embellished it with some fine edifices in honour of Pallas, Ceres, and Proserpine, freed it from every kind of imposition, and gave it entire liberty.

PALLAS, in fabulous history, the son of Pandion, (see the preceding article,) and father of Clytus and Butes. *Ovid. Met.* vii. 17.

PALLAS, a son of king Evander, sent with some troops to

to assist Æneas. He was killed by Turnus, the king of the Rutuli, after he had made a great slaughter of the enemy. *Virg. Æn.*

PALLAS, one of the giants, son of Tartarus and Terra. He was killed by Minerva, who covered herself with his skin; whence, as some suppose, she is called Pallas.

PALLAS, in mythology. See MINERVA, vol. xv.

PALLAS, in astronomy, a small planet, discovered 28th March, 1802, by Dr. Olbers, at Bremen; and situated between Mars and Jupiter. It is so small, that it does not subtend an angle large enough to be measured by our best instruments. The light reflected by it is attended by more or less of a nebulousity, proceeding perhaps from a copious atmosphere, and extending 468 miles from the body of the planet. It is remarkable for the eccentricity of its orbit, and its inclination to the ecliptic, which far exceed that of all the other bodies in the system.

From Dr. Herschel's observations (*Phil. Transf.* for 1802) we may conclude, that the apparent diameter of Pallas is either $0''.17$ or $0''.13$: its mean distance from the Sun 2.8; its distance from the Earth, at the time of observation, 1.8333; and its apparent diameter, at the mean distance of the Earth from the Sun, subtends an angle of $0''.3199$; so that its real diameter, if the largest measure be taken, will be 147 miles; and if the smallest, resulting from a more distinct observation, be taken, the angle under which it would be seen from the Sun will be only $0''.2399$, and its diameter no more than $110\frac{1}{2}$ miles. The elements of the orbit of Pallas, as others have stated them, are as follow:

Tropical revolution	-	-	-	47	7 ^m	11 ^d
Sidereal revolution, from Maskelyne's Table, 1703 ^d	-	-	-	16 ⁿ	48'	
Annual motion	-	-	-	2°	18'	11"
Mean longitude, Jan. 1, 1804	-	-	-	9°	29	52 58
Place of ascending node in 1804	-	-	-	5	22	28 0
Eccentricity, the mean distance being 1	-	-	-	0.24630		
Mean distance from the Sun, that of the Earth being 1	-	-	-	2.7910		
Mean distance in English miles	-	-	-	266,000,000		
Diameter in English miles, according to Herschel	-	-	-	80		
Ditto, according to Schroeter	-	-	-	2099		

For farther particulars, as to this and the three other newly-discovered small planets, see the article PLANET.

PALLAS, in the Roman history, a freedman of Claudius, celebrated for the power and the riches which he obtained. He advised the emperor his master to marry Agrippina, and to adopt her son Nero for his successor. It was through him and Agrippina, that the death of Claudius was hastened, and that Nero was raised to the throne. Nero, however, forgot to whom he was indebted for it. He discarded Pallas; and some time after caused him to be put to death, that he might procure his great riches.

PALLAS (Peter-Simon, M.D.), an eminent naturalist and traveller, was the son of Simon Pallas, a Prussian military surgeon, professor of surgery at Berlin, and chief surgeon of the hospital in that city. Simon Pallas, the father, signalized himself by a treatise on chirurgical operations, published in 1763, to which, in 1770, he added a supplement on the diseases of the bowels; and in that year he died, at the age of 76.

Peter-Simon Pallas, the celebrated naturalist who forms the subject of this article, was born at Berlin on the 22d of September, 1741. He received the early part of his education at home from private tutors, under whom the progress he made in his studies was truly amazing. Being destined to physic, so early as the fifteenth year of his age he entered upon a course of lectures on anatomy, physiology, botany, medicine, and surgery, under the professors Meckel, Sprægel, Gleditsch, Rolof, and his father; and applied himself with great assiduity to anatomical dissections. He was so apt a scholar in these several branches

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of science, that, in the beginning of 1758, we find him, according to the account he gave of himself to Mr. Coxe, enabled to read a course of public lectures on anatomy. Yet, although he was thus occupied in his professional labours, he still found leisure to prosecute the study of insects and other classes of zoology, for which he seems very early to have conceived a predilection, and in which he particularly and eminently excelled.

In the autumn of the same year, young Pallas repaired to the university of Halle; where he attended the lectures of the celebrated Segner on mathematics and physics, and improved his acquaintance with mineralogy in the environs of that city. In the spring of 1759 he removed to Gottingen; and, though prevented by a long and dangerous illness from prosecuting his studies with his usual ardour, yet he made numerous experiments on poisons and their antidotes, applied himself to the dissection of animals, and made repeated observations on the worms which breed in the intestines. On this last subject he composed a very ingenious treatise, under the title of "*De Insestis viventibus intra Vientia*."

In July 1760 he was attracted to the university of Leyden by the fame of the celebrated physicians and naturalists Albinus, Gaubius, and Muschenbrœck; and by them he was noticed as a young man of a promising genius and indefatigable application. His talents particularly recommended him to the favour of Gaubius, principal professor and doctor of physic in that university. In December he took his doctor's degree, and distinguished himself by an inaugural dissertation, in which he defended by new experiments the above-mentioned dissertation composed at Gottingen. During his stay at Leyden, his taste for natural history became his predominant passion; he employed all the time he could steal from his professional studies in visiting the public and private cabinets of natural history with which Leyden abounded, and was particularly charmed with the collection of Gronovius, which he repeatedly examined.

Having visited the principal cities of Holland, he directed his course to London, where he arrived in July 1761. The principal intention of his journey to England was to improve his knowledge in medicine and surgery, and to inspect the hospitals. He was now, however, so much absorbed in his passion for natural history, that he neglected every other pursuit, and gave himself totally up to this favourite branch of science. At this juncture, his zeal was so ardent, that, after having passed the day in curiously examining the various collections of natural history, and perusing the principal books he could procure on that subject, he would frequently employ the greater part of the night, and occasionally even whole nights together, whenever he met with new publications that either awakened his curiosity or interested his researches. With a view of extending his information in this department, he took several journeys to the sea-coasts, and particularly in Sussex.

Being at length summoned by his father to return to Berlin, he quitted London with regret, in the latter end of April 1762, and repaired to Harwich, in order to embark for Holland. Being there fortunately detained some days by contrary winds, he embraced that opportunity of examining the sea-coast, and collecting a variety of marine productions. On the 13th of May he landed in Holland; and, passing through the Hague, Leyden, and Amsterdam, he continued his route through the circle of Westphalia, and arrived at Berlin on the 12th of June. Previously to his commencing the practice of his profession, his father sent him to Hanover, for the purpose of procuring the post of surgeon in the allied army; but as, upon his arrival in that city, in the month of July, peace was on the point of being concluded, he returned, by Wolfenbüttele, Brunswick, and Helmstadt, to Berlin. There he passed a year, which he chiefly employed in preparing materials for a "*Fauna Insectorum Marchica*," or a description of the insects in the march of Branden-

burg. Animated by his predilection for natural history, and encouraged by the favour and patronage of Gaubius, he at length prevailed upon his father to let him go and settle in Holland. Thither accordingly he went, and resided at the Hague.

His reputation as a man of science was by this time so well established, that he was, the same year, elected fellow of the Royal Society of London; and in the following year member of the Academie des Curieux de la Nature; to both of which societies he had previously sent very interesting and ingenious papers. The intimacy he now contracted with the most celebrated naturalists in Holland, and particularly with those of the Hague, who had just begun to form a literary society; the free access which he had to the museum of the prince of Orange, and other curious cabinets; the systematic catalogues of those collections that he drew up, and several of which he gave to the public; contributed to advance his knowledge of the productions of nature in the various parts of the globe, and to collect such materials as gave birth to those accurate compositions on zoology, which have deservedly distinguished him as the first zoologist of Europe. One of his earliest works in this branch of science, which rendered him eminently conspicuous, was his "Elenchus Zoophytorum." In this work, after having treated on the nature of these ambiguous kinds of animals in a general method, and stated the various opinions of authors relating to the place they ought to hold in the system of nature, he describes from his own inspection more than 270 species of those worms and animalcules, known under the several generic appellations of polypes, corals, madrepores, corallines, sea-pens, *tania* or tape-worms, sponges, sea-fans, &c. The free access which he had to the museum of the prince of Orange, and other curious collections in Holland, enabled him to enrich his work with the description of a great variety of these productions, brought from both the Indies. He has described each species at large, and given it a new name, characteristic of its real discrepancies; and, what especially increases the merit of his work, he has, with wonderful industry, extricated, as far as possible, the synonyms of former authors, both ancient and modern; thus rendering his book highly useful to such as are inquisitive in this branch of natural history.

In a dedication prefixed to his "Miscellanea Zoologica," published in the same year, the author lays before the prince of Orange a plan for a voyage to the Cape of Good Hope, and to the other Dutch settlements in the East Indies, and which, impelled by his wonted ardour for scientific knowledge, he offered to undertake and superintend. This project was strongly recommended by Gaubius, and approved by the prince; but was prevented from being carried into execution by the author's father; who not only refused his consent to his taking such a distant expedition, but even recalled him to Berlin: in obedience to his father's wishes, but with great reluctance, he quitted Holland in November 1766.

On his return to Berlin (continues Mr. Coxe, from whose ingenious Travels these particulars are extracted), his only consolation in being separated from his friends in Holland, and in having lost so many opportunities of improving himself in natural history, consisted in putting into order the numerous materials he had collected, and the observations he was incessantly making, and in giving them to the public. He had however scarcely begun to publish his "Spicilegia Zoologica," before he was invited by the empress Catharine II. to accept of the professorship of natural history in the Imperial Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg. Although in this instance his father and relations again refused their assent, yet the author's ardent zeal for his favourite science, joined to an irresistible desire to visit regions so little explored, induced him, without a moment's hesitation, to accede to the invitation, and to hasten his departure for a country where his curiosity was so likely to be amply gratified.

He accordingly quitted Berlin in June 1767, and arrived at Petersburg on the 10th of August.

He made his appearance among the Russians at a critical period. The empress had already ordered the Academy of Sciences to send astronomers into various parts of the Russian empire, to observe the transit of Venus over the sun's disk in 1769. Being just returned from a voyage down the Volga, and from visiting the interior provinces of European Russia, the enlightened sovereign had perceived the deficiencies of the topographical and geographical accounts, and anticipated the advantage of deputed learned and skilful men to visit the distant provinces of her extensive dominions; with a view to enlarge the bounds of science, and extend the knowledge of useful arts among the natives. For this purpose, Catharine had directed the academy to send, in company with the astronomers, the most able naturalists and philosophers. Pallas instantly offered to accompany this expedition; and was as eagerly accepted. He was immediately charged with drawing out general instructions for the naturalists, and was gratified with the choice of his associates. To him was submitted, at his own request, the conduct of the expedition to the east of the Volga, and towards the extreme parts of Siberia; and he was the most calculated for that expedition, as the elder Gmelin, who had been his precursor in those regions, had almost entirely neglected the zoology of those remote districts. Pallas employed the winter previous to his departure in forming a systematic catalogue of the animals in the cabinet of the Academy of Sciences; in putting into order the celebrated collection of professor Breyn of Dantzic, lately purchased by prince Orlov; in preparing for the press six numbers of his "Spicilegia Zoologica," which were printed during his absence, under the direction of Dr. Martin; and in forming the necessary arrangements and notices for his intended expedition.

At length, in June 1768, he quitted Petersburg, in company with Messrs. Falk, Lepechin, and Guldenstadt, as his associates; passed through Moscow, Vladimir, Kasimof, Murom, Arsamas, to Kasan; and, having examined great part of that province, wintered at Simbirsk. From thence he departed, in March of the following year, and penetrated through Samara and Orenburg, as far as Gurief, a small Russian fortress situated at the mouth of the river Yaik or Ural. There he examined the confines of Kalmuc Tartary, and the neighbouring shores of the Caspian; and, returning through the province of Orenburg, passed the second winter at Ufa. After several expeditions in the adjacent parts of that province, he left Ufa on the 16th of May, 1770; prosecuted his route through the Uralian mountains to Catharinenburgh; visited the mines of that district; proceeded to Tcheliabinsk, a small fortress in the government of Orenburg; and in December made an excursion as far as Tobolsk. The next year he was employed in traversing the Altaic mountains, and in tracing the course of the Irtysh up to Omk and Kolyvan; where, having inspected the celebrated silver-mines, he made for Tomsk, and finished that year's expedition at Krasnoyarsk, a town upon the Yenisei. In that place, situated only in 56° north latitude, the cold was so intense, that the learned professor was witness to the natural freezing of quicksilver, which curious phenomenon he has minutely described. From Krasnoyarsk he issued on the 7th of March, 1772; and proceeded by Irkutsk, and across the lake Baikal, to Udinsk, Selenginsk, and Kiakta, where the trade between Russia and China is principally carried on. Having penetrated into that part of Dauria which is situated in the south-easternmost part of Siberia, he journeyed between the rivers Ingoda and Argoon, at no great distance from the Amoor; thence, tracing the lines which separate the Russian empire from the Mongul hordes dependent upon China, he returned to Selenginsk, and again wintered at Krasnoyarsk. In the summer of 1773 he visited Tara, Yaitsk, and Astracan, and concluded his route for

for that year at Tzaritzin, a town upon the Volga: from whence he continued his journey in the ensuing spring; and arrived at Petersburg on the 30th of July, 1774, after an absence of six years.

The account of this extensive and interesting tour was published by Dr. Pallas in five volumes 4to. which greatly extended his fame and established his character. The author, in this valuable work, has entered into a geographical and topographical description of the provinces, towns, and villages, which he visited, accompanied with an accurate detail of their antiquities, history, productions, and commerce. He has discriminated many of the tribes who wander over the various districts, and near the confines of Siberia; and specified with peculiar precision their customs, manners, and languages; he has also rendered his travels invaluable to the naturalist, by the many important discoveries in the animal, vegetable, and mineral, kingdoms, with which he has enriched the science of natural history. Two years afterwards, in 1776, the professor published his collections relative to the political, physical, and civil, history of the Mongul tribes; in which he throws new light on the annals of a people whose ancestors conquered Russia, China, Persia, and Hindoostan; and at more than one period established perhaps a larger empire than ever was possessed by any single nation. Pallas here proves unquestionably that the Mongul tribes are a distinct race from the Tartars; that they differ from them in their features, language, and government; and resemble them in nothing except in a similar propensity to a roving life. He intended a second volume, describing their religious establishment, consisting in their worship of the Dalai Lama; which is the religion of Thibet, and of the Mandshoo sovereigns who now sit upon the throne of China; "a work," as Mr. Tooke justly observes, "that will enrich the stock of human knowledge with discoveries, the greatest part entirely new, and which no person but Pallas is able to communicate." Whether however this second volume ever made its appearance, we have our doubts.

In the same year in which Dr. Pallas printed his "Elenchus Zoophytorum," he also published a treatise under the title of "Miscellanea Zoologica, quibus novæ imprimis atque obscuræ animalium species describuntur, et observationibus iconibusque illustrantur." This work is in a great measure incorporated into a subsequent publication made the next year on his return to Berlin, intitled "Spicilegium Zoologicum," and was continued in numbers, or *fasciculi*, till 1780. The works of count Buffon, the illustrious French zoologist, amply attest the labours of Pallas; and our countryman, Mr. Pennant, makes frequent acknowledgments of his obligations to the same source, particularly for his History of Quadrupeds and Arctic Zoology. In June 1777, the learned professor read before the Academy of Petersburg, in a meeting at which the king of Sweden was present, a dissertation on the formation of mountains, and the changes which this globe has undergone, more particularly as it appears in the Russian empire. This treatise appeared so curious to Mr. Tooke, who was also, as a member of the academy, present at that sitting, that he has given a translation of it in his *Russia Illustrata*. In 1778 the doctor published "Novæ Species Quadrupedum e Glirium Ordine," describing numbers of the rat genus and their anatomy. In 1781 he brought out "Enumeratio Plantarum quæ in Horto Procopii à Demidof Moscuâ vigent;" or, Catalogue of the Plants in M. Demidof's Gardens at Moscow. His new northern collections on various subjects in geography, natural history, and agriculture, came forth the same year, to which were afterwards added two more volumes. In 1782 he put forth two fasciculi or numbers of "Icones Insectorum præsertim Russiæ Siberiæque peculiarium." In 1784 he published the first number of his "Flora Rossica;" a splendid work, executed at the empress Catharine's expense. About this period her majesty con-

ceived the idea of collecting from all quarters of the globe a universal vocabulary, the superintendence whereof she committed to our author, which necessarily for a time retarded his zoological researches. Exclusive of these separate publications, he printed, in the Acts of the Imperial Academy of Sciences, various zoological and botanical dissertations. Not long after this, he was distinguished by a peculiar mark of imperial favour, in being appointed member of the board of mines, with an additional salary of 200l. per annum, and honoured with the order of St. Vladimir. The empress also purchased his ample collection of natural history, in a manner highly flattering to the author, and honourable to herself. Being informed that he was desirous to dispose of that collection, her majesty sent to let him know that her country should not be deprived of so exquisite a cabinet; that she would be the purchaser; and ordered him to make out the catalogue, and fix the price. He accordingly named 15,000 rubles. Having examined the catalogue, she subjoined with her own hand: "Dr. Pallas understands natural history much better than figures: he ought to have charged 20,000 instead of 15,000 rubles for so many valuable articles. The empress, however, takes upon herself to correct the mistake; and hereby orders her treasurer to pay 20,000 rubles. At the same time Dr. Pallas shall not be deprived of his collection, which shall still continue to be in his own possession during his life, as he so well understands how to render it most useful to mankind."

In 1784 the care of putting in order and publishing the papers of Gmelin and professor Guldenstædt was assigned to Dr. Pallas, which he executed with great diligence and accuracy, though, from some incidental cause to us unknown, only the first volume of Guldenstædt's remains, containing his journal and the description of the districts of mount Caucasus, ever came to the public eye. In 1794 Dr. Pallas travelled to the Crimea; and, on his return, published an account of that delightful peninsula, under the title of "Physical and Topographical Picture of Taurida." On his return, finding that the state of his health required residing in a warm climate, he laid before the empress a representation to that effect, who not only gave him permission to make choice of a settlement in any part of her dominions, but, on his preference of Taurida, presented him with an estate in that country, and a sum of money (10,000 rubles) to form his establishment. Here it was that he was visited by Dr. Clarke, on his travels in the year 1800; with whose account of his then situation we shall conclude this article. "Akmatshet," says that spirited and ingenious traveller, "will long be celebrated as the residence of professor Pallas, so well known to the literary world. His fame would have been sufficiently established, if he had published no other work than that begun by him under such favourable auspices, the *Flora Rossica*; yet the barbarity of the people with whom he is compelled to live, [how was he compelled?] is such, that they will not allow him to complete the undertaking. The drawings were all finished, and almost all the text. To the hospitable and humane attentions of this excellent man we were indebted for comforts, equal, if not superior, to those of our own country, and for every literary communication it was in his power to supply. When we delivered our letters of recommendation to him, he received us rather as a parent than as a stranger to whose protection we had been consigned. We refused to intrude by occupying apartments in his house: this had more the appearance of a palace than the residence of a private gentleman; but one day, when we were absent upon an excursion, he caused all our things to be moved, and upon our return we found a suite of rooms prepared for our reception, with every convenience for study and repose. I consider myself indebted to him even for my life. The fatigue of travelling, added to the effect of bad air and unwholesome food, rendered a quartan fever so habitual to me, that, had it not been for his care and skill, I should not have lived

lived to make this grateful acknowledgment. He prescribed for me; administered every medicine with his own hands; carefully guarded my diet; and, after nursing me as his own son, at last restored me to health. When I recovered, he ransacked his museum for drawings, charts, maps, books, antiquities, minerals, and whatever else might gratify our curiosity or promote the object of our travels; he accompanied us upon the most wearisome excursions, in search not only of the insects and plants of the country, but also of every document likely to illustrate either its ancient or its modern history. His decline of life has been embittered by a variety of afflictions, which he has borne even with stoical philosophy. Splendid as his residence appeared, the air of the place was so bad, that the most rigid abstinence from all sorts of animal food was insufficient to preserve his family from fevers. Yet we left him, determined to pass the remnant of his days in cultivating vineyards among the rocks upon the south coast of the peninsula. We used every endeavour to prevail upon him to quit the country, and accompany us to England; but the advanced period of his life, added to the certainty of losing all his property in Russia, prevented his acquiescence. Our entreaties were to no effect; and perhaps, before this meets the public eye, our friend and benefactor will be no more." Happily, however, Dr. Pallas survived the departure of our traveller upwards of ten years; when, determining once more to see his brother and his native city, he took a journey to Berlin, where he died, September the 8th, 1811, in the seventy-first year of his age.

Pallas sold his Herbarium to Dr. Clarke, who brought it to London, and sold it by auction in May 1808. This valuable collection was purchased by Aylmer Burke Lambert, esq. a vice-president of the Linnæan Society, in whose Transactions, vol. x. he has given the following account of it. "It contains some thousands of specimens in very fine preservation, especially those which belong to the Russian empire, collected in his various journeys undertaken to investigate and publish the natural history of that extensive country. The plants are the best prepared of any I have ever seen, except a collection a few years ago from Cayenne, taken from the French, (who excel so much in their manner of preparing their collections of natural history in the countries they explore; and who have of late years brought home so many valuable ones from New Holland, and from countries within the tropics.) It also contains many hundreds of specimens given to Pallas by various celebrated botanists. George Forster, who accompanied his father with captain Cook in his second voyage round the world, and who afterwards was engaged by the empress Catharine to join in a similar expedition, which never took effect, sent to Pallas fine specimens of all the plants gathered during his voyage with Cook. All the plants collected in Billings's expedition, by Dr. Merke, the naturalist employed in that voyage, and others, appear to be here. Sir Joseph Banks sent Pallas a fine collection of specimens, which were collected by him and Dr. Solander in their celebrated voyage with captain Cook. There are also a great number of species from Professor Thunberg, and Grecian plants from the late much-lamented Dr. Sibthorp. Among these is the true hellebore of the ancients, found by him on mount Olympus, the *Helleborus officinalis* of Dr. Smith's Prodromus Floræ Græcæ. The greater part of the plants found by Sievers in his journey to discover the true rhubarb, and by him communicated to Pallas, are in this collection. I find also many plants of the Flora Aultriacæ from Jacquin, and several of Forkahl's, communicated by Vahl. Cavanilles appears to have sent to Pallas many plants from Spain. Here is also a curious collection from Persia, made chiefly in the neighbourhood of Gilan by Gmelin. There are many specimens of Russian plants from Gmelin, Georgi, and others, all named and numbered according to their works, and having synonyms of the older authors

prefixed: also from Steller, with names and numbers from his unpublished Flora Ochotensis, and other MS. works mentioned by Pallas in the preface to his Flora Rossica.

"Pallas's plants of his own collecting are very rich in duplicates; of some there are as many as fifteen or twenty, in every state he could find them both in flower and fruit; and, whenever he discovered the same species altered by soil or situation, he seems never to have neglected preserving it. Every specimen is named in his own handwriting, and the habitats noted, sometimes with observations; as for instance, with respect to his *Phlomis herba-venti*, of which Willdenow makes a new species, *Ph. pungens*, he observes, that a decoction of (this plant is used by the Russians as one of the best means of hardening steel. In this Herbarium I find the greatest part of the plants figured in the Flora Sibirica of Gmelin; several very good specimens of that fine plant *Campanula punctata*; and those figured in Amman's Stirp. Rarior. with *Cypripedium guttatum*, which our president informed me he had never been able to find in any other collection. The plants of Flora Rossica, and those of Pallas's Travels; all his Astragali and Salsolæ, and all the plants collected in his last tour in the Crimea, are here; besides a great number of new species not noticed in any of the above-mentioned works, and which, no doubt, he intended to have published, in continuation of that splendid work the Flora Rossica, of which plates have been already engraved sufficient, as I understand from Dr. Clarke, to make another volume; and which, I hope, will soon make its appearance, as it only waits for some bookfeller to undertake it." The preceding account is accompanied with descriptions and engravings of some of the most remarkable and curious species in this valuable herbarium; concluding with a hope "that, in future, every botanist sent on similar expeditions, may execute his charge with as much assiduity as Pallas has done, and bring us home as extensive collections." Linn. Trans. 1811. Clarke's Travels. Tooke's View of the Russian Empire.

PALLASTA, *f.* [designed to commemorate the very eminent scientific merit of the subject of the preceding article. The original Pallasia, published by the younger Linnæus, in his Supplementum, p. 37. was what Pallas himself, in the 2d vol. of his Travels, had named *Pterococcus*. He subsequently referred it to *Calligonum*, to which it unquestionably belongs; and l'Heritier, having adopted the same measure, chose a new Pallasia in the *Encelia* of Adanson.] In botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia-frustranea, natural order compositæ, *Linn.* (corymbifera, *Juss.*) Generic characters.—Common calyx of numerous, oblong, imbricated, nearly-equal, scales. Corolla: compound, radiated; florets of the disk numerous, tubular, five-cleft, all perfect; those of the radius ligulate, spreading, oblong, somewhat wedge-shaped, with three or four obtuse terminal teeth. Stamina: in the florets of the disk only, filaments five, capillary very short; antheræ united into a cylindrical tube with five teeth. Pistillum: in the florets of the disk, germen obovate, compressed, fringed; style thread-shaped, the length of the stamens; stigmas two, spreading; in those of the radius, germen obsolete or abortive, smooth; style and stigmas imperfect or wanting. Pericarpium: none, except the permanent calyx. Seeds in the florets of the disk solitary, obovate, compressed, notched at the top, bordered and fringed at the margin; those of the radius obsolete and smooth. Down none. Receptacle: slightly convex, chaffy; its scales lanceolate, keeled, acute, nearly as long as the florets of the disk.—*Essential Character.* Receptacle chaffy; down none; seeds compressed, bordered and fringed; calyx of numerous, imbricated, nearly-equal, scales.

1. *Pallasia halimifolia*, or downy pallasia: leaves blunt, nearly entire, downy on both sides; radiant florets deeply and unequally four-toothed, scarcely twice as long as those

those of the disk. Native of Mexico. It is with us in Europe a stove-plant, flowering from July to September, but not much cultivated. The stem is shrubby, branched, and downy, about two feet high; branches alternate, leafy. Leaves alternate, on downy stalks about an inch long, broadly ovate, obtuse, one and a half or two inches long, entire, occasionally rather wavy or obscurely toothed here and there, three-ribbed, of a pale glaucous green, densely clothed on both sides with dense, soft, fine, short down. Stipules none, but a dense snow-white tuft of accumulated down is more or less remarkable at the insertion of each footstalk. Panicles terminal, corymbose, downy, rather leafy, of about four or five flowers, scarcely so large as a French marigold (*Tagetes patula*), with a yellow radius whose florets are broad, short, unequally lobed, and a convex greenish disk.

2. *Pallasia grandiflora*, or smooth pallasia: leaves bluntish, nearly entire, glaucous, smooth; radiant florets, slightly three-toothed, thrice as long as those of the disk. Native of New Spain. It flowered at Madrid in September. This has the habit of the foregoing; but the leaves are smooth, and the flowers larger, in consequence of the florets of the radius being much longer; their colour is pale-yellow; their apex obtuse, with only three very shallow teeth, instead of being deeply and irregularly lobed; the florets of the disk are of a reddish-white below, their limb dark-brown. Such is the description in Cavanilles.

3. *Pallasia ferratifolia*, or ferrated pallasia; the *Ximenesia encelioides* of Cavanilles: leaves pointed, ferrated, hoary beneath; with winged ferrated footstalks; radiant florets, three-toothed. Native of Mexico, from whence the seeds were sent to the royal garden at Madrid. The plant flowered there in November. We have not heard of it in England, but are indebted to Cavanilles for a specimen: he made it a distinct genus. Root perennial. Stem three feet high, branched, leafy, downy, ribbed, pale, apparently somewhat shrubby, corymbose, and many-flowered. Leaves mostly alternate, not opposite, except perhaps some of the lowermost, ovate, pointed, three-ribbed, with many lateral veins, strongly and sharply ferrated; their upper side bright-green, besprinkled with small depressed bristles; under densely-downy, pale, or glaucous. Footstalks about a quarter the length of the leaves, bordered with a narrow wing, which is greatly dilated and toothed at the base, where it clasps the stem or branch. Flowers terminating each branch, solitary, larger than the last, their radiant florets spreading, bright-yellow, each near an inch long; disk brownish. Cavanilles named this supposed genus after Joseph Ximenes, an apothecary, who undertook a *Flora of Castulo*, in four volumes, in which he delineated more than 700 plants, besides native butterflies and birds of the same neighbourhood. Whatever his merits might be, the generic appellation given by Cavanilles could scarcely be retained, as the Linnæan system already contains a *Ximenia*, long ago consecrated to one of his countrymen of the same name, by Plumier. See that article; see also *CALLIGONIUM*, *COREOPSIS*, and *CRYSIS*.

PALLAVICINO (Sforza), a cardinal, born at Rome in 1607, was the eldest son of a marquis of that name in Lombardy. He gave early proofs of quick parts, particularly by supporting for three successive days a solemn disputation on the whole body of scholastic theology. This study naturally gave him a propensity to the ecclesiastical profession, which he adopted, notwithstanding the opposition of his parents. His piety and regularity, together with his advantages of birth and connexions, caused him to be admitted early into the prelacy, and to be successively appointed to the governments of Jesi, Orvieto, and Camerino. The brilliant prospects which were opened to him did not, however, prevent his putting into execution a design of retiring from the world; and in his thirtieth year he commenced a noviciate in the society of Jesuits at Rome. When it was finished, he was employed for several years in giving lectures in philosophy and theology, and in presiding over the studies of

the Roman college. He was also qualificador of the holy office, and an examiner of candidates for the episcopacy, and was consulted by the popes in affairs of moment. The service he rendered the Roman church by composing a History of the Council of Trent, in opposition to that of Paul Sarpi, was rewarded by pope Alexander VII. with his nomination to the cardinalate in 1657, though it was not declared till two years afterwards. He continued after his elevation to live in the cloister, occupied in his studies, and in the concerns of the church, and affording an example of christian virtue and piety, till his death, in 1667. The "History of the Council of Trent," by Pallavicino, was received with great applause by those of his own party, who considered it as a powerful antagonist to that of Fra. Paolo, as Sarpi was commonly called, which had raised such unfavourable impressions of the policy of the court of Rome. It is written in Italian; and was first printed at Rome, in two volumes folio, 1656, 1657. It was republished, in three volumes quarto, 1664, with various corrections and additions by the author. The style of this work is grave, elegant, and florid; but somewhat too much studied, and defective in simplicity. It is considered as of good authority for its facts, and it is allowed that in many instances he has been successful in pointing out the errors of Fra. Paolo; but the political maxims disclosed in it gave great offence to persons even of the same communion, and were commented upon by a French Jansenist, in a work entitled "*Les nouvelles Lumières Politiques pour le Gouvernement de l'Eglise, ou l'Evangile nouveau du Cardinal Pallavicino, révélé par lui dans son Histoire du Concile de Trente.*" A translation of the History into Latin, by father Giattini, was published at Antwerp in 1672; one into French, which had been completed, did not appear, because the History "was not in the French taste." The original work was abridged by father Puccinelli; and publications were made of maxims and characters extracted from it.

This cardinal was the author of other works, partly ascetical and moral, partly theological. He also, while a Jesuit professor, published a tragedy, entitled "*Ermenigildo*," which he republished, with a Preliminary Discourse, said to be more valuable than the tragedy itself, but in which he unsuccessfully contended for the use of rhymed verse in these compositions. To him likewise belongs a grammatical work entitled "*Avvertimenti Gramaticale*," published under the name of Fr. Raimondo, and esteemed for its precepts respecting good writing. His "*Letters*," in Italian, were published in 1669. *Tiraboschi*.

PALLAVICINO (Ferrante), an unfortunate man of letters, was born at Placentia about 1615. Although the eldest son of his family, he chose to devote himself to the ecclesiastical state, and became a canon-regular of Augustines of the congregation of Lateran. He distinguished himself by the vivacity of his parts, which gave him a turn to satire, and was little restrained by decency. This disposition was at length the cause of his ruin. During the war between pope Urban VIII. of the Barberini family, and Edward Farnese duke of Parma and Placentia, he supported the cause of his own sovereign with his pen, and wrote some bitter satires against the pontiff and all his house. Bent upon revenge, the papal court set a price upon his head, which caused him to withdraw to Venice, where he lived in security. A young Frenchman, son of a bookseller at Paris, being bribed by the pope's nuncio, obtained his confidence, and perfidiously advised him to come to France, and take up his abode at Orange, where he would be safe under a protestant prince. Pallavicino incautiously put himself under the conduct of this pretended friend, who led him over the bridge on the Sorgue into the county of Venaissin, belonging to the holy see. As soon as he saw the pope's arms over the gate, he cried "I am undone!" and was immediately arrested by officers who were waiting for him, who carried him to Avignon, where he was imprisoned.

prisoned. Fourteen months afterwards, in 1644, he was beheaded. The wretch who betrayed him was stabbed at Paris some years afterwards, by a friend of Pallavicino. This writer left several works, which have been fought by the curious, and are distinguished by their satirical severity. Among others, he wrote a collection of letters, which he called "The Courier robbed of his Mail;" which may have furnished a hint for that admirable modern publication, *The Two-penny Post-bag*. He also wrote a history of the public events in Italy in 1636. A selection of his works was published in two volumes 12mo. 1644, at Geneva, under the title of *Villa Franca*. He is also the reputed author of an Italian work entitled "The Celestial Divorce, or the Separation of Jesus Christ from his Spouse the Roman Church;" Amst. 1696. *Gen. Biog.*

PALLEIROS, a mountain of Arabia, in the province of Oman: eighty miles west-south-west of Mascat.

PAL'LENDORF, a town of Austria: two miles north of Zisterdorf.

PALLENE, a small peninsula of Macedonia, formerly called *Phlegra*, situate above the bay of Thermoë, on the Ægean Sea, and containing five cities, the principal of which is called Pallene. It was in this place, according to some of the ancients, that an engagement happened between the gods and the giants.—Also a village of Attica, where Minerva had a temple, and where the Pallantides chiefly resided.

PAL'LET, *f.* [*paillet*, in Chaucer; which was probably the French word, from *paille*, straw, and secondarily, a bed.] A small bed; a mean bed.—His secretary was laid in a *pallet* near him, for ventilation of his thoughts. *Wotton*.

Why rather, Sleep, liest thou in smoky cribs,
Upon uneasy *pallets* stretching thee,
And hush'd with buzzing night-flies to thy slumber;
Than in the perfum'd chambers of the great,
Under the canopies of costly state,
And lull'd with sounds of sweetest melody? *Shakespeare*.

[*Palette*, Fr.] A porrenger, formerly used by surgeons to receive blood in.—A surgeon drew from a patient in four days, twenty-seven *pallets*, every *pallet* containing three ounces. *Hakewill*.—In heraldry, a diminished pale, a little posť.

PALLETS, in clock and watch work, are those pieces or levers which are connected with the pendulum or balance, and receive the immediate impulse of the swing-wheel, or balance-wheel, so as to maintain the vibrations of the pendulum in clocks, and of the balance in watches. The pallets, in all the ordinary constructions of clocks and watches, are formed on the *verge*, or axis, of the pendulum or balance, and are of various lengths and shapes, according to the construction of the piece, or the fancy of the artist. For the modern improvements, comparative advantages, and the manner of constructing pallets, see the article *HOROLOGY*, vol. x.

PALLET, in ship-building, is a room within the hold, closely parted from it, in which, by laying some pigs of lead, &c. a ship may be sufficiently ballasted, without losing room in the hold; which, therefore, will serve for stowing more goods.

PALLETING, *f.* A slight platform made over the bottom of the magazine, to preserve the powder from damp.

PALLETO'QUE, *f.* [probably from the Lat. *pallium*.] A short kind of coat with sleeves, such as was formerly worn by pages. *Scott*.

PAL'LI, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the province of Diarbekir: eighty-five miles north-east of Diarbek, and 150 south-south-west of Erzerum.

PALLIAMENT, *f.* [*pallium*, Lat.] A dress; a robe.—A *palliament* of white and spotless hue. *Shakespeare*.

PALLIA'NO, or **PALIA'NO**, a town of Italy, in Campagna di Roma: twenty-eight miles east of Rome.

PAL'LIARD, *f.* [from *paille*, *paillasse*, Fr. straw.] An old word for one whose father was born a beggar. *Cole*.—A whoremaster; a lecher:

Thieves, pandars, *palliards*, sins of every sort;
These are the manufactures we export. *Dryden*.

PALLIARDISE, *f.* [French.] Fornication; whoring. *Obsolete*.—Nor can they tax him with *palliardise*, luxury, epicurism. *Sir G. Buck's History of Richard III*.

PALLIAT'Æ, *f.* A name which the Romans gave to such plays as laid the plot in Greece, and required the performers to appear in Grecian habits. It is used in contradistinction to *togata*, in which the scene was laid at Rome, and in which the dresses were Roman. The word *palliatis* is derived from *pallium*, which was a part of dress peculiar to the Greeks; whereas the toga belonged to the Romans only.

To PALLIATE, *v. a.* [*pallio*, Lat. from *pallium*, a cloak; *pallier*, Fr.] To clothe; to cover.—They wallow in all kind of turpitude, yet nowhere persecuted; being *palliated* with a pilgrim's coat and hypocritic sanctity. *Herbert's Travels*.—To cover with excuse.—They never hide or *palliate* their vices, but expose them freely to view. *Swift*.—To extenuate; to soften by favourable representations.—The fault is to extenuate, *palliate*, and indulge. *Dryden*.—To cure imperfectly or temporarily, not radically; to ease, not cure.

PALLIATE, *adj.* Eased, not perfectly cured.—The nation was under its great crisis and most hopeful method of cure, which yet, if *palliate* and imperfect, would only make way to more fatal sickness. *Fell's Life of Hammond*.

PALLIATION, *f.* [*palliation*, Fr. from *palliate*.] Extenuation; alleviation; favourable representation.—I saw clearly through all the pious disguises and soft *palliatio*ns of some men. *King Charles*.—Such bitter invectives against other men's faults, and indulgence or *palliation* of their own, shews their zeal lies in their spleen. *Gov. of the Tongue*.—Imperfect or temporary, not radical, cure; mitigation, not cure.—If the just cure of a disease be full of peril, let the physician resort to *palliation*. *Bacon's Nat. History*.

PALLIATIVE, *adj.* [*palliatif*, Fr. from *palliate*.] Extenuating; favourably representative.—He openly defends his new attempt, not in a *palliative* apology, but in a peremptory declaration. *Warton's Rowley Enq.*—Mitigating, not removing; temporarily or partially, not radically, curative.—Consumption pulmonary seldom admits of other than a *palliative* cure, and is generally incurable when hereditary. *Arbuthnot*.

PALLIATIVE, *f.* Something mitigating; something alleviating.—It were more safe to trust to the general aversion of our people against this coin, than apply those *palliatives* which weak, perfidious, or abject, politicians administer. *Swift*.

PALLICO'DE, a town of Hindoostan, in Mysore, situated at the extremity of a pass leading to the Barmaul country, called indifferently the Pass of Pallicode, and the Pass of Oodeadurgum. Through this pass the Mysore armies were generally sent to invade the Carnatic. It is eleven miles north-west of Dairempoury.

PAL'LID, *adj.* [*pallidus*, Lat.] Pale; not high-coloured; not bright: *pallid* is seldom used of the face.—Its *pallid* bloom sick-smelling henbane shew'd. *Harte*.

Of every fort which in that meadow grew
They gather'd some; the violet *pallid* blue. *Spenser*.

PALLIDITY, *f.* Paleness.—The agitation of the soul throws the animal spirits into a confused and impetuous motion, which imparts such a flush or *pallidity* to the face, so enlarges or contracts the lineaments and features, whereby it is easily perceivable that something more than ordinary is the matter. *Philos. Lett. on Physiognomy*, 1751.

PAL'LIDLY, *adv.* Palely; wanly.—They sometimes appear *pallidly* sad, as if they were going to their graves. *Bp. Taylor's Artif. Handsom.*

PAL'LIDNESS,

PAL/LIDNESS, *f.* *Palenefs*.—Let no man be discouraged with the *pallidness* of piety at first, nor captivated with the seeming freshness of terrene pleasures; both will change; and, though we may be deceived in both, we shall be sure to be cheated but in one. *Feltham's Ref.* ii. 66.

PAL/LIER, *f.* [French.] In carpentry, a landing-place in a staircase, a step broader than the rest, which serves for a kind of resting-place.

PALLIFICATION, *f.* See **PALIFICATION**.

PALLIGORAM, a town of Hindoostan, in Golconda: twenty-five miles south-east of Hydrabad.

PALLIOW, a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: forty-five miles south-west of Patna.

PALLIOT (Peter), an industrious genealogist, was born at Paris in 1608. He settled at Dijon, where he married the daughter of a printer, and followed the same profession. From an early age he had attached himself to the studies of genealogy and heraldry, which he continued to pursue with great assiduity, publishing various works upon those subjects. Of these the most valued are, 1. *Le Parlement de Bourgogne*, 1649, folio; to which another volume was added by Fr. Petitot, in 1733. 2. *Science des Armoiries de Gelliot, augmentée de plus de 6000 Ecussons*; Paris, 1660, folio. His other works are genealogical histories of particular families; and he left in manuscript thirteen volumes, folio, of memoirs concerning the families of Burgundy. Palliot not only printed his own works, but engraved with his own hand all the very numerous heraldic plates by which they were illustrated. He died at Dijon in 1698, at the age of eighty-nine. *Moreti*.

PALLISA'DE. See **PALISADE**.

PAL/LISER (Sir Hugh, Bart.), a distinguished naval officer, was born at Kirk Deighton, in the county of York, (and not in Ireland, as has been erroneously stated.) He early distinguished himself in the service; and in 1748, on-board the *Captain*, in a desperate action in the Mediterranean, with a frigate of superior force, received a shot in his leg, and two balls in his body, by the explosion of an arm-chest, which also killed two persons on the quarter-deck. This wound, baffling all the skill of the faculty, subjected him ever after to ceaseless torture. His uncle was a colonel, and wounded under lord Galway; and his father (a captain in the army), although shot through both cheeks in the disastrous battle of Almanza, yet survived many years.

Sir Hugh, notwithstanding this wound, proceeded in the high career of nautical fame till the lamentable 27th of July, 1778, when admiral Keppel and vice-admiral Palliser preferred counter-charges of accusation against each other, for their conduct on that day: the intrepidity of the latter, on this occasion, was allowed even by his enemies; but the merits were soon converted into a question of party violence, in which the professional reputation of those officers (though both were acquitted) was indiscriminately wrecked! See the article **ENGLAND**, vol. vi. p. 748, 9.

Soon after this, his majesty, on the death of admiral sir Charles Hardy, appointed sir Hugh to the government of Greenwich Hospital; when, resigning his seat in parliament, he retired from all public concerns, except the duties of his government, which were always ably and unremittingly discharged.

Sir Hugh was a man of undaunted courage, and possessed a great share of nautical knowledge; and the wise and salutary laws which he caused to be enacted for the benefit of his country, and the comfort and happiness of the poor fishermen in Newfoundland, during his government of that province, were proofs of a sound mind, and a humane and benevolent disposition. He entered into the service very early in life. He was made a captain in 1746, and in 1762 governor of Newfoundland; in 1765 he concluded a peace with the Indians, upon the back settlements of Canada; in 1770 he was made a rear-admiral, and in the same year one of the Elder Brethren of the

Trinity; in 1771 he was appointed a Comptroller of the Navy; in 1773 created a Baronet, and in 1775 he was chosen M.P. for Scarborough; in 1776 he was made one of the Lords of the Admiralty, and in 1778 a Vice-Admiral, Lieutenant-General of Marines, and Governor of Scarborough Castle; in 1780 he was appointed Master and Governor of Greenwich Hospital; in 1781 he was chosen to represent the borough of Huntingdon in parliament; and 1787 he attained the rank of Admiral of the White. For the last fifteen or sixteen years of his life he seldom lay down on a bed: from the constant pain in his leg, he was under the necessity of composing himself in an easy chair, sleeping at intervals; and, when awake, he placed the wounded limb on the contrary knee, in which position he employed himself in rubbing the bone (for it was literally no more), to allay the pain, till sleep again insensibly overtook him. The immediate cause of his death was occasioned by a dropsical habit of body, to which he had always been subject; and, after a severe illness of five months, he died at his feat called Vache, in Buckinghamshire, on the 19th of March, 1796, in the 75th year of his age. *Genl. Mag.* vol. lxvi.

PAL/LISER'S ISLANDS, a cluster of islands in the South Pacific Ocean; the largest about fifteen miles long and nine broad; connected together by a reef of coral rocks, and difficult of access. Lat. 15. 16. S. lon. 146. 147. W.

PALLIUM, or **PALL**, *f.* A pontifical ornament worn by popes, patriarchs, primates, and metropolitans, of the Romish church, over their other garments, as a sign of their jurisdiction. It is in form of a band, or fillet, three fingers broad, and encompasses the shoulder; whence, by some authors, it is called *super-humeral*. It has pendants, or strings, about a palm long, both before and behind; with little laminae of lead, rounded at the extremes, and covered with black silk, with four red crosses.

Some, with Eusebius, will have the pallium to have been introduced by pope Linus; adding that, as the ephod was the mark of the pontifical authority in the Jewish synagogue, so is the pallium in the Romish church. Others have observed, that there is no mention of it before the year 336. Lastly, others will have it to have been first granted by Constantine the Great to pope Sylvester; from whence it passed to the other patriarchs and archbishops.

The pallium, it is certain, was originally part of the *imperial* habit, being then a rich robe of state, very magnificent, and reaching quite to the ground; and it has been said, that the bishops of Rome were allowed to wear it by Constantine the Great, and that, in process of time, the same honour was granted by the emperors to the other patriarchs. Hence, when they were either driven from their sees, or voluntarily quitted them, they returned their palls to the emperors. When the popes first took upon them to grant that honorary badge, which they did before the pontificate of Gregory the Great, chosen in 590, they did not presume to do it till they had obtained leave of the emperor. But the successors of Gregory, upon the decline of the empire, took upon them to bestow that mark of distinction independently of them, and as a gift of their own. However, that it might no longer be deemed part of the imperial habit, which it was treasonable to wear without leave from the emperors, they changed its ancient form to the present.

At what time the popes assumed the disposing of the pallium independently of the emperors, is not well known; but it is certain, that no bishop was obliged to apply to Rome for it till the year 742, when Boniface bishop of Mentz persuaded the bishops of France and Germany to pass a decree, obliging their metropolitans to apply to the pope for that ornament, and to promise, upon their receiving it, a canonical obedience to the commands of St. Peter. This practice proving very favourable to the ambitious designs of the bishops of Rome, they spared no pains to impose it upon all metropolitans; issuing,

issuing, with this view, various decrees concerning the nature, virtue, and necessity, of the pallium; till at length they proceeded to declare it unlawful for a metropolitan, archbishop, or primate, to exercise any branch of his power, till he had received his pall from Rome; nay, in several decrees, the metropolitanical jurisdiction and power were said to be conferred by the pall; and thus they made the pope the fountain of all ecclesiastical power and authority. This doctrine seems to have been first broached in the ninth century, though vigorously opposed by Hincmar archbishop of Rheims, and several others. However, the doctrine prevailed; and the pall was declared by Innocent III. in the thirteenth century, to be an ensign or token of the plenitude of the apostolic power, and said to communicate a competent share of that power to those who received it from the hands of the popes. Till the time of Gregory VII. the new metropolitans were only required to send for their palls within the space of three months after their ordination; but this pope obliged all, unless prevented by some lawful impediment, to come for them in person to Rome; and the promise of canonical obedience, upon receiving their palls, was changed into an oath of allegiance, such as vassals by the feudal laws were obliged to take to their princes. Gregory the Great conferred the pallium without fee or reward; and, in a council held at Rome in 595, decreed that it should be given gratis; but it is well known, that in succeeding times the grant of it became one of the chief funds of the popish fee. Exorbitant sums were exacted not only for the palls that were sent to presbyters, or private bishops, when raised to the archiepiscopal dignity, but likewise for those that were sent to archbishops, on their translation from one see to another. For, by the canons, an archbishop is not to carry away his pall with him, but to demand a new one; and his successor is not to make use of the pall which his predecessor had left, but to apply to Rome for another. *Bower's Hist. of the Popes*, vol. iii.

The pope pretends to the sole right of conferring the pallium; though some patriarchs have granted it to their suffragans, having first received it themselves from the Roman see. Anciently, the pope used to send the pallium to certain of his diocesan bishops, on whom he laid a good part of his authority, and who were a kind of collaterals to him, as the patricii were to the emperors.

By the popish canon laws, a metropolitan, till he have received the pallium, cannot consecrate bishops or churches; and he may not be called *archbishop*, &c. Upon a translation, he must have the pallium afresh; and, till then, he cannot hold a synod, nor perform any of his archiepiscopal functions.

The use of the pallium is restrained to certain seasons and occasions; none but the pope having a right of wearing it always, and in all places.

The pope sometimes sends it to bishops of his own accord; and has sometimes given the right hereof to particular churches. But, among the Greeks, all the bishops wear the pallium.

PALLMALL, *f.* [from the Lat. *pila*, a ball, and *mal-leus*, a hammer.] A play in which a ball is struck with a mallet through an iron ring. The mallet itself which strikes the ball.—If one had *paille-mails*, it were good to play in this alley; for it is of a reasonable good length, straight and even. *French Garden for Eng. Ladies to Walk in*, 1621.—Several streets or walks, in France as well as in England, are called *Maille*, or *Mall*, from having been formerly used for this diversion. Such places are to be found on the heights of St. Cloud near Paris, and in the Champs Elysées; and in London we have the Mall in St. James's Park, and Pall Mall, where his majesty keeps his court.

PAL/LOR, *f.* [Latin.] Paleness.—There is some little change of the complexion from a greater degree of *pallor* to a less, possibly to some little quickening of redness. *Bp. Taylor's Artif. Handsome*.

PAL/LU, a town of France, in the department of the Mayenne: ten miles west of Alençon.

PALLUAU', a town of France, in the department of the Vendée: sixteen miles east-south-east of Chalons, and ten north-west of La Roche sur Yon.

PALLUAU', a town of France, in the department of the Indre: six miles east-south-east of Chatillon sur Indre, and sixteen north-west of Châteauroux.

PALM, *f.* [Sax. from *palma*, Lat. or from *παλαμη*, Gr. the hand.] The inner part of the hand; the hand spread out.—The word *palm*, meaning the hand, is retained in the French *paume*, the palm of the hand, and *jeu de paume*, a game where the ball is played with the palm of the hand. The Latin word *palam*, openly, in open view, bears analogy to the hand when spread open. *Gleanings in Etymology*, MS.

I try'd th' infallible prophetic way,

A poppy-leaf upon my *palm* to lay.

Dryden.

PALM, *f.* [*palme*, Fr. from *palmus*, Lat.] A measure of length, the breadth of the palm of the hand; about three inches.—The length of a foot is a sixth part of the stature; a span, one eighth of it; a *palm* or hand's-breadth, one twenty-fourth; a thumb's-breadth, or inch, one seventy-second; a forefinger's-breadth, one ninety-sixth. *Holder on Time*.

The Roman *palmus* was of two kinds. The *great palm*, taken from the length of the hand, answered to our span, and contained 12 fingers, digits, or fingers'-breadths, or 9 Roman inches, equal to about $8\frac{1}{2}$ English. The *small palm*, taken from the breadth of the hand, contained 4 digits or fingers, equal to about 3 English inches.

The Greek *palm*, or *doron*, was of two kinds also. The small contained 4 fingers, equal to little more than three inches. The great contained 5 fingers. The double Greek *palm*, called *dichas*, contained also in proportion.

The modern *palm* is different in different places where it obtains.—At Rome, the canna for woollens and silken stuffs is $78\frac{1}{2}$ English inches, = 8 palms; but the builder's canna $87\frac{1}{2}$ English inches, = 10 palms; at Naples, the *palm* is the 8th part of the canna, = $10\frac{1}{8}$ English inches; at Genoa, the *palm* is 10 inches; at Oporto, it is $8\cdot64$ inches.

PALM, *f.* [*palma*, Lat. the palm of the hand; because the leaves of several species spread out like a hand, the dactylian fingers of which are the dates.] A tree of which there are very many species. See **PALMÆ** and **PHŒNIX**.

Thou youngest virgin, daughter of the skies,

Whose *palmus* new pluck'd from Paradise

With spreading branches more sublimely rise. *Dryden.*

The palm is the emblem of victory, because it represents courage, whence victory arises; for the palm-branch, the more you draw it down, the more it rises up again, from its peculiar elasticity:

Namur subdu'd is England's *palm* alone:

The rest besieg'd, but we constrain'd the town. *Dryden.*

To **PALM**, *v. a.* To conceal in the palm of the hand, as jugglers.—*Palming* is held foul play amongst gamesters. *Dryden*.—They *palm'd* the trick that lost the game. *Prior*.

—To impose by fraud.—Moll White has made the country ring with several imaginary exploits *palmed* upon her. *Addison's Spect.*

If not by scriptures, how can we be sure,

Reply'd the panther, what tradition's pure?

For you may *palm* upon us new for old.

Dryden.

To handle.—Frank carves very ill, yet will *palm* all the meats. *Prior's Epigrams*.—To stroke with the hand. *Ainsworth*.

PALM (John-George), a learned German Lutheran divine, was born at Hanover in the year 1697. After pursuing his studies in different universities, duke Augustus-William of Brunswick and Lunenburg placed him

him in the convent of Riggdagshausen, in 1716; and in 1720 he nominated him his travelling-preacher. Three years afterwards Palm was made chaplain to the court of Wolfenbuttel, where he acquired the esteem of the duke and dukes. In the year 1727 he accepted an invitation to become pastor of the church of St. Peter and St. Paul at Hamburg, where he spent the remainder of his life, and was made rector of the academical institution in that city. He died in 1743, when only forty-six years of age. He was the author of, 1. *Liber Historicus de Codicibus Veteris et Novi Testamenti quibus B. Lutherus in conficienda Interpretatione Germanica usus est*, 1735, 8vo. 2. *Jesus the true Messiah*, 1731, 8vo. and various other works in the German language.

PALM-BARLEY, *f.* A kind of grain fuller and broader than common barley. *A/h.*

PALM ISLANDS, a chain of islands near the north-east coast of New Holland, extending about thirty miles in length, at the entrance of Halifax-bay. Lat. 18. 53. S. lon. 213. 25. W.

PALM-SUNDAY. The Sunday next before Easter is generally called *Palm-Sunday*, in commemoration of our Saviour's triumphal entry into Jerusalem, when the multitude that attended him strewed palm-branches in his way; in remembrance of which, *palms* were used to be borne here with us upon this day, till the second year of king Edward VI. *Wheatly.*

Palms are still used on this day, particularly in Roman-catholic countries, at least where they can be got. The custom exists even here in some degree, as far as is consistent with the nature of the climate. People go "a-palming," as they call it, early in the morning of that day; but, finding no palm-branches, they bring home some sprigs of the withy (a species of *Salix*) with its blossoms. These are called *palms* of course; and, as the catkins of the withy resemble in size and shape one of the species of hairy caterpillars, this has been called the *palmer*, or *palmer-worm*, which is very innocently defined by Dr. Johnson "a worm supposed to be so called because he wanders over all plants." *Gleanings in Etymology.*—See **PALMER** and **PALMER-WORM**.

PALMA, one of the Canary islands, about sixty miles in circumference, anciently called *Capraria*, said by some to be from a volcano of that name, though other writers conjecture that both the island and mountain were so called from the great number of *goats* bred here. It is agreed on all hands that the soil is fertile in corn, wine, and sugar-canes, as well as in fruits, quadrupeds, and birds of all kinds. Nuno de Penna relates, in his Historical Memoirs, that, on the 13th of November, 1675, a little after sun-set, there was a violent earthquake felt for forty miles round the island, attended with a dreadful noise, that continued without intermission for five days; during which the earth opened in horrible gaps in several places, but chiefly upon the Mountain of Goats, or *Capraria*, a mile and a half from the sea, from whence issued a violent fire and fierce flames, which vomited up great stones and large pieces of rock. The same thing happened in several adjacent places; and, in the space of fifteen minutes, no less than twenty-eight dreadful gulfs opened round the foot of the mountain; each of them throwing out flames, smoke, and liquid fire. The same author adds, that, on the 20th of November following, there was a second eruption of the mountain, which in the same manner poured forth torrents of melted stones and minerals, which ran for the distance of twenty-one miles, where at this day large heaps of cinders are to be seen. All the neighbouring lands were entirely wasted, and the people in consequence forced to quit their habitations.

This island has a handsome town of its own name, and a safe harbour, well frequented by the shipping of different nations, which come hither for wines; these being reckoned equal to Malmsey, and by some thought the

best of any produced in the Canaries. These wines, and particularly what is made at a place called Brenin, are bought up with avidity; and of this last there are exported to the West-Indies, and elsewhere, at least 12,000 pipes a-year. The number of inhabitants is estimated at 30,000. Lat. 28. 36. lon. 18. W.

PALMA, a town of South America, in the province of New Grenada, built in the year 1572: thirty-six miles north-west of Santa Fé de Bogota.

PALMA, a town of Naples, in the province of Lavora: fourteen miles east of Capua.

PALMA, or **PALME**, a town of Naples, in the province of Calabria Ultra, near the sea, destroyed by an earthquake. This place was a great mart for oil, of which there were, at the time of the destruction, upwards of 4000 barrels, which, being broken, the oil ran into the sea for some hours: eleven miles west-north-west of Oppido.

PALMA, a town of Sicily, in the valley of Mazara, first built in the year 1637, by one of the family of Chiavo Monte. In the neighbourhood there is a rich sulphur-mine. The number of inhabitants is about 6000. Not far from Palma, on a lake near the sea, white partridges are found. It is six miles south of Naro.

PALMA, a town of Spain, in the province of Cordova, on the Guadalquivir: twenty-seven miles south-west of Cordova.

PALMA, a town of Portugal, in Estremadura, on the right side of the river Cadaon: eighteen miles east of Setuval.

PALMA, a river of Brasil, which runs into the Tocantim in lat. 14. 16. S.

PALMA. See **MAJORCA**, vol. xiv. p. 168.

PALMA (Giacopo), called *The Old*, an eminent Italian painter, was born at Serinalta, in the territory of Bergamo. The date of his birth has been fixed by Lacombe at 1540; but Mr. Fuseli has given reasons for supposing that this period is much too late. He was sent at an early age to study in the school of Titian at Venice; and he imitated the delicacy of touch and softness of colouring of his master with so much success, that he was appointed to finish a Descent from the Cross left imperfect by Titian. He also copied the vivacity of colour and breadth of shade of Giorgione in his greatest performances. The works of the elder Palma are much esteemed for the noble taste of their composition, the natural and pleasing expression, the graceful airs of the heads, the union and harmony of colouring, and the delicacy of finishing. They are sometimes, however, faulty in point of correctness of drawing. His finest pieces were some of the earliest; and he fell off considerably in his later performances, though he died at the age of forty-eight.

PALMA (Giacopo), called *The Young*, great-nephew of the preceding, has been styled by Lanzi "the last painter of the good, and the first of the bad, epochs of the art at Venice." He was born in 1544, the son of Antonio Palma, an obscure painter, who first taught him the little he knew, and encouraged him to study the works of others, particularly those of Tintoretto and Titian. At the age of fifteen he obtained the patronage of the duke of Urbino, who sent him to Rome, and maintained him there for eight years, during which time he employed himself in copying the works of M. Angelo, of Raphael, and, above all, of Polidoro; and was employed by the pope to adorn one of the rooms of the Vatican. On his return to Venice he found but little employment, Tintoretto and Paolo Veronese occupying the places of renown, and being engaged in all the public works. Their disagreement with a celebrated architect and sculptor named Vittoria, furnished Palma with a patron, who, endeavouring to lower the esteem of his enemies, used his utmost efforts to establish the rival painter, assisted him with his advice, and found him employment. Their united endeavours failed however of success; and Palma was obliged to be contented to hold the third rank in the art

till their deaths left him without a rival. He had in the mean time painted in competition with them both, and produced very excellent works.

When he was left alone, and was much employed, he relaxed from the care and diligence he had formerly used, and his works became slight in execution; so much so, that Cesare d'Arpino, remarking upon the slightness of the style in which he painted, observed, that he meant to make some stay at Venice, to learn of him to make such admirable *sketches*. When price and time, however, were left to his own discretion, in which he did not abound, he produced some works worthy of his former fame; such as the altar-piece at the church of St. Cosmo and Damiano; the celebrated naval battle of Francesco Bembo, in the public palace; the Saint Apollonia at Cremona, &c. The compositions of the younger Palma are more distinguishable for their copiousness than the judgment with which they are conducted, and his design is more bold than correct. His excellencies are, richness of composition, force and variety of expression, freshness and transparency of tint, and lightness of touch. His works are numerous in the churches and palaces of Italy, and in foreign collections. A considerable number have been engraved, and some by his own hand: to his engravings he frequently signed his name at length; but sometimes used the monogram of a palm-branch crossing diagonally the letter P, as is represented on the preceding Engraving. *Fuseli's Pilkington.*

PALM'A CHRIS'TI. See ORCHIS and RICINUS.

PALMA LA NUOVA, a town of Italy, in the country of Friuli, on the borders of Goritz, situated on a canal which communicates with the Lisonzo. It is fortified and surrounded with nine bastions, which bear the name of nine Venetian noblemen. It is fifty-five miles north-east of Venice, and twenty-four north-west of Trieste. Lat. 46. 2. N. lon. 13. 16. E.

PALMA DI SO'LO, a sea-port town of the island of Sardinia, on the fourth coast: fifteen miles south-east of Villa de Iglesias. Lat. 39. 20. N. lon. 6. 24. E.

PALMA'DA, *f.* A blow on the hand with a ferula. *Bailey.*

PALMÆ, *f.* in botany, the palm-tribe, a most distinct and important, as well as stately and beautiful, natural order of plants, so named from *Palma*, the ancient appellation of the most valuable among them, the date-tree, whose foliage was consecrated, first by the Greeks, and then by the Romans, as an emblem of victory, and whose fruit has been a principal article of food in the east from the remotest antiquity to the present day. The word *palma* is supposed to have been applied to this tree, from the divisions of its leaves having some resemblance to the fingers and palm of the hand, whence, perhaps, by an association of ideas, the fruit came to be called *δάκτυλι*, from *δάκτυλος*, a finger, to which its likeness is at first not apparent. The Greeks named this kind of palm *φοινίξ*, which Linnæus has retained. See PHŒNIX. That great botanist terms the natural order in question "princes of the vegetable kingdom, of Indian origin, distinguished by their theated and many-spiked flowers, their flowing habit, their lofty stature, the simple elegance of their unbranched long-enduring stem, the leafy evergreen garlands with which they are crowned, and their princely treasures of rich fruit. They are tributary to the first order, or *Primates*, amongst animals; more especially to the lord of the animal creation, who is destined, in a state of nature, to dwell among them."

The botanical arrangement of *Palma* was, in the early days of Linnæus, a work of considerable difficulty. Tournefort had distinguished no proper genera in this order, nor Plumier more than one. So imperfect were the accounts of their flowers in early botanical works, and so impossible was it for the author of the sexual system to procure access, in most instances, to the reality, that he could not ascertain enough of their structure to refer more than a very few to his classes and orders; hence he

assembled as many as he knew of the family in an appendix to his system, except Calamus, of whose relationship to the rest he was not aware. See the article BOTANY, vol. iii. p. 259, 289, 294. The genera now understood to belong to this order are—*Areca*, *Bactris*, *Borassus*, *Caryota*, *Chamærops*, *Cocos*, *Corypha*, *Cycas*, *Dracæna*, *Elæis*, *Elate*, *Hydocharis*, *Licuala*, *Mauritia*, *Nipa*, *Phoenix*, *Rhapis*, *Stratiotes*, *Thrinax*, and *Zamia*. To these Monf. Labillardiere has added a newly-discovered genus, *ARENG*. He calls his plant

Areng facchifera, or sugar-bearing areng. It is very common in the Moluccas; and, like the other species of date-tree, is of very extensive utility. By proper incisions, a juice is obtained from it, which affords very good sugar by evaporation. *Mem. de l'Institut National*, tome iv. 1802.

The following characteristic sketches of this remarkable family of the vegetable kingdom, are extracted from the magnificent botanical work of Messrs. Humboldt and Bonpland, completed at Paris in 1816.

The family of the palms thrives best between the tropics, in the plains, and to the height of 560 fathoms, in places where the mean temperature in summer is from 15° to 28° of the centigrade thermometer; and, excepting the island of Cuba, to which the north wind from Canada brings a colder air, where the cold in winter is not below 15°. Yet some, which the travellers believe to have been wholly unknown previously to their visit to the Andes, approach the limits of everlasting snow. If the family of the palms is distinguished by beauty of form and its large size from almost all the other families of vegetables, so likewise does it surpass them in the various uses to which they are applied. They furnish articles of the most dissimilar nature; wine, oil, wax, flour, sugar, and salt.

In the tracts to the north of the line, between the mountains of Caraccas and the river of Amazons, traversed by Humboldt and Bonpland, they found the palms in general in blossom in January and February, but some of them flower at other seasons of the year. Their fecundity is astonishing: the powerful action of the sap is developed not only in thick umbrageous foliage, but also in an innumerable multitude of flowers and fruit. Not only the fields planted with palm-trees, but even the soil that has never been cultivated by man, is frequently covered to the depth of three inches with the fruit of the *Cocos butyracea*, the *Mauritia*, &c. Every flower-capsule of the date-tree (*Phoenix dactylifera*) contains, according to Kæmpfer, above 12,000 male flowers. Humboldt and Bonpland have found a much greater number upon another species. In one single catkin-shaped bunch of flowers, of which each capsule contains from 110 to 120, they counted 1800 male flowers; so that the total number in each capsule may be computed at 207,000 flowers. According to a similar calculation, every branch of a species which furnishes an excellent aliment on the banks of the Oroonoko, produces 8000 fruits, many of which indeed drop off before maturity. In the palm-grounds planted with the *pihiguo*, each tree yields annually upon an average 400 fruits of the shape of apples; and the Franciscans on the Oroonoko and Guainia know from experience, that, whenever there is an uncommonly abundant crop of palm-fruit, the Indians grow remarkably fat. And M. Humboldt observes, that those species, the pith of which furnishes a kind of sago-flour, that forms an excellent article of food for the inhabitants of the New World, deserve to be particularly recommended to the notice of future travellers in America.

The following account of the vegetation of this tribe, extracted from Desfontaines, is published in Lamarck's Dict. vol. iv. "When the seed of a palm-tree is committed to the earth, the leaves unfold in succession, and increase in number, during four or five years. The crown of the root dilates in the same proportion. The bulb, formed by the reunion of the footstalks of the leaves, swells

swells insensibly, its solidity gradually augments, and at length the stem rises above the surface of the ground, of the full diameter that it ever will acquire. The leaves, produced every spring, originate always from the summit. The older ones, standing below the others, gradually dry up, and, on separating from the stem, leave behind them circular impressions, which furrow its surface, and mark the years of its age, as long as it continues to grow. The stem is exactly cylindrical from top to bottom; and, if its measure be taken at different periods, no increase of diameter will ever be discovered. This fact did not escape Kämpfer." The same able writer remarks, nevertheless, that palm-trees are liable to accidental irregularities in their growth, either from a deficiency of nourishment, whence they become slender in that portion of their stems elongated under such circumstances; or from a superabundance of food, whence the new part proves of a greater diameter than the old; for the latter retains, in both cases, its original dimensions. Such being the mode of increase in the plants of this natural order, and their duration very long, amounting sometimes to 800 years or more, no wonder that they attain an extraordinary degree of elevation, much exceeding the generality of trees, though scarcely equal to the Norfolk-island pine. Yet, notwithstanding this great loftiness of growth, botanists have doubted whether they strictly ought to be denominated trees or herbs. They certainly have not the proper trunk, gradually augmented by successive annual concentric layers, which is characteristic of a tree. Their annual circles of leaves all spring in reality from the root, or at least from its singularly-protruded crown; but, so little of any such protrusion is discernible in herbaceous plants, which die down to the surface of the earth every winter, that the difference between them and the palm-tribe is abundantly marked. Linnæus, not knowing whether to call their foliage leaves, adopted the term *frons*, a frond or bough; but, as it seems to us, without any necessity. That they were by the ancients very improperly termed branches, we readily allow; but the objections that "they have no bud for the following year, neither have they the substance of leaves, nor do they, like leaves, all wither and fall off together," (see Lin. Prælect. in Ord. Nat. 23.) appear to us very unsatisfactory. They have, in fact, a central bud, like trees of tropical countries, though not the scaly hybernacula appropriated to those of cold climates; their substance is much like that of a variety of other leaves; and they fall off in succession, like the foliage of other evergreen plants. When their whole summit is cut off, the plant perishes, they having no power of producing lateral buds. See the article PHŒNIX, and the other genera enumerated above.

PALMAJO'LA, a small island in the Mediterranean, near the coast of Italy. Lat. 42. 53. N. lon. 9. 35. E.

PALMAR, *adj.* Belonging to a palm or hand's-breadth. *Cole.*

PALMAR, a river of Benin, which runs into the Atlantic in lat. 6. 25. N. lon. 3. E.

PALMAR, a town of South America, in the audience of Quito: forty miles south-west of Riabamba.

PALMAR POI'NT, a cape on the west coast of Africa. Lat. 5. 30. S.

PALMAR'IA, a small island in the Mediterranean, about forty-five miles from the coast of Naples: three miles west from the island of Ponza. Lat. 40. 58. N. lon. 12. 53. E.

PALMAR'IA, a small island in the Mediterranean, near the coast of Genoa, at the entrance of the gulf of Spezza: eight miles south of Spezza. Lat. 44. 4. N. lon. 9. 40. E.

PALMAR'IGI, a town of Naples, in the province of Otranto: three miles west-south-west of Otranto.

PALMAR'IS, *f.* A muscle of the palm of the hand.

PALMARO'LA, or **PALMARUOLA**, a small island in the Mediterranean, near the coast of Naples: four miles north-west of Ponza. Lat. 41. 3. N. lon. 12. 55. E.

PALMARY, *adj.* [*palmaris*, Lat. principal, most remarkable: *Palmare opus*, a principal work. *Palmary* is probably of recent introduction into our language. Lesslie, in his Short Method with the Deists, has the Latin expression: "When his *opus palmare* comes out, &c." Todd.] Principal; capital.—Sentences proceeding from the pen of the first philosopher of the age, in his *palmary* and capital work! *Bp. Horne's Lett. on Infidelity*, 1784.—*Palmary* may be applied to any piece which has "won the palm," whether prose or poetry. *MS. Gleanings*.

PALMAS, a small island in the Pacific Ocean, near the coast of Peru. Lat. 4. 35. N.

PALMAS, a town of South America, in the province of Tucuman: thirty miles south of St. Miguel de Tucuman.

PALMAS, one of the Philippine islands, near the south-east coast of Mindanao.

PALMAS, a river of Mexico, which runs into the bay of Campechy in lat. 18. 20. N. lon. 94. 20. W.

PALMAS, a river of North America, formed by the junction of the rivers Nicas and Saucedo, in New Biscay; after the union, the course is due east for about 200 miles, crossing the province of New Leon, when it falls into the Gulf of Mexico in lat. 25. N. lon. 98. 46. W.

PALMAS, or **PALMEZ**, the principal town of Gomera, one of the Canary Islands.

PALMATE, or **PALMATED**, *adj.* [*palmatum*, Lat.] Webbed, like the feet of some water-birds.—The broad and *palmated* feet of the aquatic birds perform the office of oars. *Tr. of Buffon's Hist. of Birds*.—Applied to the leaves of some plants, which are deeply divided into lobes, like the fingers on the hand.

PALMATORY, *f.* A ferula, an instrument to strike the palm of the hand. *Cole.*

PALMAW', a town of Bengal: twenty-four miles south-south-west of Rogonatpour. Lat. 23. 13. N. lon. 86. 54. E.

PALME, (Le), a town of France, in the department of the Aude: six miles north-west of Leucate.

PALMEIRA, a small island in the Persian Gulf, near Cape Bardistan.

PAL'MELA, a town of Portugal, in Estremadura, with a castle on a rock: six miles north of Setuval.

PALMER, *f.* [from *palm*.] A pilgrim; because they who returned from the holy land carried branches of palm, or supported themselves on a staff made of palm-tree:

I'll change
My sceptre for a *palmer's* walking-staff. *Shakespeare.*

A palmer differed from a pilgrim: the *pilgrim* travelled to some certain place; the *palmer* to all, and not to any one in particular; the *pilgrim* might abandon his profession, and often did so when he had performed the pilgrimage he had vowed; but the *palmer* was a religious beggar (*petens elemosynas*, asking alms) for life, and therefore persisted in wandering about till he either died of hunger, or had the good luck to get murdered, either of which methods of *finishing their course*, was called "obtaining the palm."

Behold yon isle, by *palmer*s, pilgrims, trod,
Men bearded, bald; cowl'd, uncowl'd; shod, unshod. *Pöps.*

PALMER, a township of America, in Hampshire-county, Massachusetts, on the south side of Chickapee-river; incorporated in 1752, and containing 1039 inhabitants.

PALMER (John), an actor of very considerable talents, belonging to Drury-lane theatre, was born in London about 1742, and came on the stage in 1762. In many parts he had no competitor, and perhaps will never have a superior; for instance, in Stukeley, Joseph Surface, Villeroy, Glenalvon, Brush, Brads, Young Wilding, &c. No performer ever had a wider range of characters, showed more industry, or exercised his talents with more success. His final exit was singularly awful. On the 2d of August,

1798,

1798, while performing in the play of the Stranger, at the Liverpool theatre, after uttering the line, "There is another and a better world!" he fell on his back, heaved a convulsive sigh, and immediately expired. Those words are engraved on his tomb. *Jones's Biographical Dict.*

PALMER TOWN, a town of New York, thirty-two miles south-west of Ticonderoga.

PALMER-WORM, *f.* A worm covered with hair. —A flesh-fly, and one of those hairy worms that resemble caterpillars, and are called *palmer-worms*, being conveyed into one of our small receivers, the bee and the fly lay with their bellies upward, and the worm seemed suddenly struck dead. *Boyle.*

PALMERIN, a town of Africa, in Baol. Here is a mart for hides and teeth. Lat. 13. 30. N. lon. 16. 21. W.

PALMERSTON'S ISLAND, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, discovered by captain Cook in June 1774. In the "Missionary Voyage," it is described as a group of small islets, eight or nine in number, connected together by a reef of coral rocks, and lying in a direction nearly circular. Captain Wilson and some of his companions landed upon one of these isles, which is not a mile in circuit, and which, at high-water, is not more than four or five feet above the level of the sea. The soil is coral sand, with an upper stratum of blackish mould, produced from rotten vegetables. The inner area of the islet is covered with cocoa-nut trees, which, decaying and falling, form a thick underwood. They saw a number of men-of-war birds, tropic-birds, and boobies. Among the trees there was plenty of red crabs, dragging after them a shell in form of a periwinkle, but larger, being in diameter about two or three inches. When they ran along the ground, they only put their claws out; but, being touched, they withdrew themselves wholly into their shell. Here was seen the submarine grotto described in Cook's Third Voyage. At one part of the reef, which bounds the lakes within, almost even with the surface, there is a large bed of coral, which affords a most enchanting prospect. Its base, which is fixed to the shore, extends so far that it cannot be seen, so that it appears to be suspended in the water. The refulgence of the sun, when the sea is unruffled, exposed to view the various sorts of coral in the most beautiful order; some parts luxuriantly branching into the water, others appearing in a vast variety of figures, and the whole heightened by spangles of the richest colours, glowing from a number of large clams interspersed in every part. This scene was much improved by the multitude of fishes that gently glided along, seemingly with the most perfect security: their colours were the most beautiful that can be imagined, blue, yellow, black, red, &c. far excelling any thing that can be produced by art. Our navigators observe, that no traces appear of this island's ever having been inhabited. Lat. 18. 4. S. lon. 163. 10. W.

PALMETTO, *f.* A species of palm. It grows in the West Indies to be a very large tree: with the leaves the inhabitants thatch their houses; and these leaves, before they are expanded, are cut and brought into England to make women's plaited hats; and the berries of this tree were formerly much used for buttons. See **CHAMAROPS**. Broad o'er my head the verdant cedars wave,
And high *palmettos* lift their graceful shade. *Thomson.*

PALMETTO, a town of the island of St. Christopher, situated on a bay to which it gives name: three miles west of Bassé Terre.

PALMETTO POINT, a cape on the north coast of Jamaica. Lat. 18. 18. N. lon. 76. 20. W. —A cape on the south coast of Jamaica. Lat. 18. 7. N. lon. 77. 57. W.

PALMIERI (Matteo), an Italian man of letters, born at Florence about 1405, was descended from an ancient and illustrious family, and educated in the sciences and learned languages under the ablest masters. He was several times entrusted by his fellow-citizens with offices of magistracy, and rose to the supreme dignity of gonfalonier of justice. He was likewise appointed to various important

embassies to the popes, the emperor Frederic III. Alphonso king of Naples, the republic of Sienna, and other states. He died in 1475, at the age of 70. As a literary man, his most considerable work was a "Chronicle," from the creation down to his own times. He also wrote "The Life of Niccolo Acciajuoli," which has been published by Muratori; as likewise his book "De Captivitate Pisorum;" and a work in form of a dialogue, "Della Vita Civile," several times printed, and translated into French. He was moreover a poet; and, in imitation of Dante, composed in terza-rima three books, entitled "Citta di Vita," never printed, but extant in manuscript in several libraries. This poem obtained great applause, but was exposed to theological censure, on account of some errors in divinity, particularly that of representing human souls as having been in a former state those angels who, in the grand rebellion in heaven, stood neuter. These notions, regarded as heresies, caused the book to be solemnly condemned to the flames; a fate which some writers have also attributed to the author, but erroneously.

The Chronicle of Matteo was continued to the year 1482 by a native of Pisa, very nearly his namesake, viz. *Matteo Palmieri*. This writer, who was apostolic secretary, and died in 1483, also translated from the Greek the fabulous narration of Aristeas concerning the translators of the Septuagint, and some other works of antiquity. *Gen. Biog.*

PALMIFEROUS. *adj.* [*palmi* and *fero*, Lat.] Bearing palms.

PALMIFOLIA, *f.* in botany. See **ZAMIA**.

PALMINOPOS, a town of Spain, in New Castile: twenty-five miles north-north-west of Cuenca.

PALMIPED, or **PALMIPEDOUS**, *adj.* [*palma* and *pes*, Lat.] Webfooted; having the toes joined by a membrane. —Water-fowl, which are *palmipede*, are whole-footed, have very long necks, and yet but short legs; as swans. *Ray.*

PALMIPES, *f.* [Lat.] an ancient long measure, containing a foot and a palm, or five palms; and was less than the cubit by one palm.

PALMIRAS. See **MAYAPARA**, vol. xiv.

PALMIS AFFINIS. See **GRAS**.

PALMISTER, *f.* [from *palm*.] One who deals in palmistry. —If we curiously advise with the *palmisters*, we shall find the mind written in the hand! *Austin's Hæc Homo*. —Some vain *palmesters* have gone so far as to take upon them, by the sight of the hand, to judge of fortunes. *Bp. Hall*.

PALMISTRY, *f.* [*palma*, Lat.] The cheat of foretelling fortune by the lines of the palm: it is prohibited by 1 and 2 Ph. and Mary, c. 4. —We shall not query what truth is in *palmistry*, or divination, from lines of our hands, of high denomination. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

With the fond maids in *palmistry* he deals;
They tell the secret first which he reveals. *Prior.*

Addison uses it humorously for the action of the hand. —Going to relieve a common beggar, he found his pocket was picked; that being a kind of *palmistry* at which this vermin are very dexterous. *Speci. N° 130.*

PALMJUNCUS, *f.* in botany See **CALAMUS** and **FLAGELLARIA**.

PALMODECIA, *f.* in botany. See **CONVOLVULUS**.

PALMO'LI, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Citra: thirteen miles east-north-east of Civita Borella.

PALMS, (Island of), a narrow island on the coast of Africa, at the entrance of the river Senegal, about six miles in length.

PALMUS, *f.* [from the Greek *πάλω*, to vibrate.] The shivering or quick vibration of the heart. A medical term.

PALMY, *adj.* Bearing palms. —She, flying, left the *palmy* plains behind. *Dryden.*

Betwixt them lawns, or level downs, and flocks

Grazing the tender herb, were interpos'd,

Or *palmy* hillock. *Milton's P. L.*

Flourishing; victorious. —In the high and *palmy* state of the

the monarchy of France, it fell to the ground without a struggle. *Burke on a Regicide Peace.*

In the most high and *palmy* state of Rome,
A little ere the mightiest Julius fell,
The graves stood tenantless.

Shakespeare.

PALMYRA, or TADMOR, a celebrated city of Syria, now in ruins, situated in the midst of a large plain, surrounded on three sides by a long chain of mountains. This city, to which oriental commodities were carried in ancient times, was originally built by king Solomon after he had conquered the king of Hamathzoba, a petty Syrian prince, within whose dominions the country lay in which this city was afterwards erected. It was called by Solomon *Tadmor*, which signifies "the Place of Palms;" and, from its situation in the midst of a sandy desert which surrounded it on all sides, "Tadmor in the Wilderness."

History is silent as to the fate and circumstances of this city during the great revolutions in the several empires of the east; but it may well be supposed, that so advanced a garrison as this was, being above 300 miles from Jerusalem, continued not long in the possession of the Jews, who, immediately after Solomon, fell into civil dissension, and divided their force; so that, without doubt, it submitted to the Babylonian and Persian monarchies, and afterwards to the Macedonians under Alexander and the Seleucidæ. But, when the Romans advanced to these parts, and the Parthians seemed to put a stop to their farther conquests in the east, then was this city of Palmyra, by reason of its situation, being a frontier, and in the midst of a vast sandy desert, where armies could not well subsist to reduce it by force, courted and caressed by the contending princes, and permitted to continue a free state, a mart or staple for trade, for the convenience of both empires, as we learn from the information both of Appian and Pliny. Palmyra is first mentioned by the Roman historians as a place which Mark Antony, after his victory at Philippi, about 40 years B. C. attempted to plunder, pretending that it had not observed a just neutrality between the Romans and Parthians. When the Romans under Trajan had made it appear, by his victories, that there was no comparison between their power and that of the Parthians, (Trajan having taken Babylon, and Ctesiphon, the seat, at that time, of the Parthian empire,) the Palmyrenes were induced to declare for the Romans; which they did, by submitting themselves to the emperor Adrian, about the year of Christ 130, when Adrian made his progress through Syria into Egypt. This magnificent emperor, being highly delighted with the situation and native strength of the place, situated on an extensive plain, and surrounded on three sides by a vast chain of mountains, determined to furnish it with various splendid edifices and ornaments; and at this time he probably conferred upon it the privileges of a "Colonia Juris Italici," which, as we learn from Ulpian, it actually enjoyed; and the inhabitants of the city were induced by gratitude to call themselves "Hadrianopolitæ." Many of its marble pillars, particularly those of the long porticos, (hereafter to be more particularly described,) were probably the gift of this emperor.

From Adrian to Aurelian, about 140 years, Palmyra continued to flourish and increase in wealth and power under the protection of the Romans; but, when the defeat and captivity of Valerian had so much weakened the empire, that the Persians seemed to be in a fair way of becoming masters of all the eastern provinces, the Palmyrenians began to entertain thoughts of recovering their liberty. Odenatus, prince of Palmyra, sent a very respectful letter to Sapor king of Persia, on his return, accompanied with considerable presents; but by that haughty conqueror his letter and embassy were treated with the most provoking contempt. With this injurious treatment Odenatus was so provoked, that he swore either to bring down the pride of the haughty conqueror, or die in the attempt. Of the war of Odenatus with the Persians, however, we know very little: only that, though the latter were

often vanquished, and the independence of Palmyra established for the present, yet Valerian was never released from his captivity, though Odenatus earnestly wished to have the honour of rescuing him from his enemies. See ODENATUS, vol. xvii. p. 398.

Odenatus enjoyed his sovereignty but a very short time; being murdered by his nephew, who was soon after put to death by Zenobia, the wife of Odenatus. This lady is said to have been possessed of very extraordinary endowments both of body and mind, being, according to Mr. Gibbon, almost the only Asiatic woman who is recorded to have overcome the obstacles arising from the confined situation of the fair sex in that part of the world. Immediately on taking vengeance for the murder of her husband, she assumed the sovereignty, under the title of queen of the East, wore the diadem, and appeared with all the distinctions of imperial rank. Gallienus, on the intelligence of the death of Odenatus, having sent a general to conduct the war against the Persians in his stead, hostilities took place between him and Zenobia, who defeated him, and obliged him to retreat to Europe. She governed with equal vigour and policy; and, entertaining vast projects of dominion for herself and her three sons, she employed an interval of peace in the reign of the emperor Claudius II. in annexing Egypt to the extensive territories which Odenatus had possessed. By her general Zabdas she defeated and subjugated the Egyptians; and, the Roman general Probus or Probatus, making an attempt to recover the country, he was taken prisoner, and in despair put an end to his life.

She continued to aggrandize herself in Asia, and her authority was recognized both in Cappadocia and Bithynia, when Aurelian succeeded to the Roman empire. This martial prince, as soon as he had established tranquillity in the west, resolved to wipe off the disgrace of suffering the richest provinces in the east to be usurped by a female. He crossed over to Asia with a powerful army; and his presence soon restored obedience to the province of Bithynia, already shaken by the arms and intrigues of Zenobia. Advancing at the head of his legions, he accepted the submission of Ancyra; and was admitted into Tyana, after an obstinate siege, by the help of a perfidious citizen: a superstitious reverence induced him to treat with lenity the countrymen of Apollonius the philosopher. Antioch was deserted on his approach; till the emperor, by his salutary edicts, recalled the fugitives, and granted a general pardon to all who, from necessity rather than choice, had been engaged in the service of the Palmyrenian queen. The unexpected mildness of such a conduct reconciled the minds of the Syrians, and, as far as the gates of Emesa, the wishes of the people seconded the terror of his arms.

Zenobia would have ill deserved her reputation, had she indolently permitted the emperor of the West to approach within a hundred miles of her capital. The fate of the East was decided in two great battles; so similar in almost every circumstance, that we can scarcely distinguish them from each other, except by observing, that the first was fought near Antioch, and the second near Emesa. In both, the queen of Palmyra animated the armies by her presence, and devolved the execution of her orders on Zabdas, who had already signalized his military talents by the conquest of Egypt. The numerous forces of Zenobia consisted for the most part of light archers, and of heavy cavalry clothed in complete steel. The Moorish and Illyrian horse of Aurelian were unable to sustain the ponderous charge of their antagonists. They fled in real or affected disorder, engaged the Palmyrenians in a laborious pursuit, harassed them by a desultory combat, and at length discomfited this impenetrable but unwieldy body of cavalry. The light infantry, in the mean time, when they had exhausted their quivers, remaining without protection against a closer onset, exposed their naked sides to the swords of the legions. Aurelian had chosen these veteran troops, who were usually stationed on the Upper Danube, and whose valour had been severely tried in the Alleman-

nic war. After the defeat at Emesa, Zenobia found it impossible to collect a third army. As far as the frontier of Egypt, the nations subject to her empire had joined the standard of the conqueror. Palmyra was the last resource of the widow of Odenatus. She retired within the walls of her capital; made every preparation for a vigorous resistance; and declared, with the intrepidity of a heroine, that the last moment of her reign and of her life should be the same.

In his march over the sandy desert, between Emesa and Palmyra, the emperor Aurelian was perpetually harassed by the Arabs; nor could he always defend his army, and especially his baggage, from those flying troops of active and daring robbers, who watched the moment of surprise, and derided the slow pursuit of the legions. The siege of Palmyra was an object far more difficult and important; and the emperor, who with incessant vigour pressed the attacks in person, was himself wounded with a dart. "The Roman people (says Aurelian in an original letter) speak with contempt of the war which I am waging against a woman. They are ignorant both of the character and of the power of Zenobia. It is impossible to enumerate her warlike preparations, of stones, of arrows, and of every species of missile weapons. Every part of the walls is provided with two or three ballistæ, and artificial fires are thrown from her military engines. The fear of punishment has armed her with a desperate courage. Yet I trust still in the protecting deities of Rome, who have hitherto been favourable to all my undertakings." Doubtful, however, of the protection of the gods, and of the event of the siege, Aurelian judged it more prudent to offer terms of an advantageous capitulation: to the queen, a splendid retreat; to the citizens, their ancient privileges. His proposals were obstinately rejected, and the refusal was accompanied with insult.

The firmness of Zenobia was supported by the hope, that in a very short time famine would compel the Roman army to repossess the desert; and, by the reasonable expectation that the kings of the east, and particularly the Persian monarch, would arm in the defence of their most natural ally. But fortune, and the perseverance of Aurelian, overcame every obstacle. The death of Sapor, which happened about this time, distracted the councils of Persia; and the considerable succours that attempted to relieve Palmyra, were easily intercepted either by the arms or the liberality of the emperor. It was then that Zenobia resolved to fly. She mounted the fleetest of her dromedaries; and had already reached the banks of the Euphrates, about sixty miles from Palmyra, when she was overtaken by the pursuit of Aurelian's light-horse, seized, and brought back a captive to the feet of the emperor. Her capital soon after surrendered, and was treated with unexpected lenity. The arms, horses, and camels, with an immense treasure of gold, silver, silk, and precious stones, were all delivered to the conqueror; who, leaving only a garrison of 600 archers, returned to Emesa, and employed some time in the distribution of rewards and punishments at the end of so memorable a war, which restored to the obedience of Rome those provinces that had renounced their allegiance since the captivity of Valerian.

When the Syrian queen was brought into the presence of Aurelian, he sternly asked her, How she had presumed to rise in arms against the emperors of Rome? The answer of Zenobia was a prudent mixture of respect and firmness: "Because I disdained to consider as Roman emperors a Gallienus, and others like him. You alone I acknowledge as my conqueror and my sovereign." But, as female fortitude is commonly artificial, so it is seldom steady or consistent. The courage of Zenobia deserted her in the hour of trial: she trembled at the angry clamours of the soldiers, who called aloud for her immediate execution; forgot the generous despair of Cleopatra, which she had proposed as her model; and ignominiously purchased life by the sacrifice of her fame and her friends. It was to their councils, which governed the weakness of her sex, that she

imputed the guilt of her obstinate resistance; it was on their heads that she directed the vengeance of the cruel Aurelian. The fame of Longinus, who was included among the numerous, and perhaps innocent, victims of her fear, will survive that of the queen who betrayed, or the tyrant who condemned, him. See LONGINUS, vol. xiii. p. 623. This event is dated in 273.

The person of Zenobia was reserved to decorate the triumph of Aurelian, a spectacle of peculiar splendour. The unfeeling pride of the Romans had established the custom of exhibiting to the eyes of the public the royal captives made by the triumphant general who had concluded a successful war; and no delicacy of sentiment was likely to induce a fierce imperial soldier to forego such an indulgence of insolent ostentation. On the appointed day the pompous procession moved to the capitol, a principal figure in which was Zenobia following, on foot, a magnificent chariot, which, in her prosperity, she had designed for a far different entry into Rome. She was encircled with chains of gold borne up by slaves, and almost sunk under the load of jewels with which she was adorned. No particulars are related of her behaviour in a scene which Cleopatra died to avoid; but history informs us, that the victor afterwards treated her with humanity, assigning her an agreeable residence at Tibur, where she passed the remainder of her days as a Roman matron. Some writers assert that she entered into a second marriage with a senator of Rome, and that from this union sprung a Roman progeny of Zenobia, which was subsisting to the fifth century; but others suppose that these might be descendants of her daughters, whom Aurelian married into families of distinction. Her surviving son, Vaballath, withdrew into Armenia, where the emperor bestowed on him a small principality.

Returning from the conquest of the east, Aurelian had already crossed the straits which divide Europe from Asia, when he was provoked by the intelligence that the Palmyrenians had massacred the governor and garrison which he had left among them, and again erected the standard of revolt. Without a moment's deliberation, he once more turned his face towards Syria. Antioch was alarmed by his rapid approach, and the helpless city of Palmyra felt the irresistible weight of his resentment. We have a letter of Aurelian himself, in which he acknowledges, that old men, women, children, and peasants, had been involved in that dreadful execution which should have been confined to armed rebellion: and, although his principal concern seems directed to the re-establishment of a Temple of the Sun, he discovers some pity for the remnant of the Palmyrenians, to whom he grants the permission of rebuilding and inhabiting their city. But it is easier to destroy than to restore: the seat of commerce, of arts, and of Zenobia, gradually sunk into an obscure town, a trifling fortress, and at length a miserable village.

The destruction of Palmyra was, as we have observed, not immediate, but gradual, because we find it mentioned in history as a very considerable place after this period, though not the seat of government, as in times past, when there were no less than sixteen cities under its jurisdiction. The ruins of Palmyra itself are allowed by all who have visited them, to be equal, if not superior, to any thing of the same kind yet subsisting in the world, and consequently still remain a proof of the wealth and magnificence of its ancient masters.

With respect to these ruins, they appear to be of two different and distinct periods; the oldest are so far decayed as not to admit of menfuration, and seem to have been reduced to that state by the hand of time; the others appear to have been broken into fragments by violence. Of the inscriptions, none are earlier than the birth of Christ, and none are later than the destruction of the city by Aurelian, except one, which mentions Dioclesian.

It is scarcely less difficult to account for the situation of this city than for its magnificence. The most probable conjecture is, that, as soon as the springs of Palmyra were discovered

discovered by those who first traversed the desert in which it is situated, a settlement was made there, for the purpose of carrying on the trade of India, and preserving an intercourse between the Mediterranean and Red Sea. This trade, which flourished long before the Christian era, accounts not only for its situation, but also for its wealth. As it lay between Egypt, Persia, and Greece, it was natural to expect that traces of the manners and sciences of those nations should be discovered among the Palmyrenes; who, accordingly, appear to have imitated the Egyptians in their funeral rites, the Persians in their luxury, and the Greeks in their buildings; and therefore the buildings, which now lie in ruins, were probably neither the works of Solomon, nor of the Seleucidæ, nor, few excepted, of the Roman emperors, but of the Palmyrenes themselves.

Palmyra was formerly encompassed by palms and fig-trees, and covered an extent of ground, according to the Arabs, near ten miles in circumference; and might probably have been reduced to its present confined and ruined state by quantities of sand, driven over it by whirlwinds. The walls of the city are flanked square towers; and it is probable, by their general direction, that they included the great temple, and are three miles in circumference. But, of all the monuments of art and magnificence in this city, the most considerable is the Temple of the Sun. The whole space containing its ruins, is a square of 220 yards, encompassed with a stately wall, and adorned with pilasters within and without, to the number of sixty-two on a side. Within the court are the remains of two rows of very noble marble pillars, thirty-seven feet high, with their capitals of most exquisite workmanship. Of these only fifty-eight remain entire; but there must have been many more, for they appear to have gone round the whole court, and to have supported a double piazza. The walks on the side of that piazza which is opposite to the front of the castle, seem to have been the most spacious and beautiful. At each end of this line are two niches for statues, with their pedestals, borders, supporters, and canopies, carved with the utmost propriety and elegance. The space within this inclosure, which is now filled with about thirty of the dirty huts of the inhabitants, seems to have been an open court, in the middle of which stood the temple, encompassed with another row of pillars of a different order, and much taller, being 50 feet high; but of these, sixteen only remain. The whole space contained within these pillars is 59 yards in length, and near 28 in breadth. The temple is no more than 33 yards in length, and 13 or 14 in breadth.

The temple points north and south; and, exactly opposite the middle of the building, on the west side, is a most magnificent arch, on the remains of which are some vines and clusters of grapes, carved in the most bold and masterly imitation of nature that can be conceived. Just over the door are discerned a pair of wings, which extend its whole breadth: the body to which they belonged is totally destroyed; and it cannot now certainly be known whether it was that of an eagle or a cherub, several representations of both being visible on other fragments of the building. It is observed of the windows of this building, which were not large, that they were narrower at the top than below. The north end of the building is adorned with the most curious fret-work and bas-relief; and in the middle there is a dome or cupola, about ten feet diameter, which appears to have been either hewn out of the rock, or moulded to some composition which, by time, is grown equally hard.

North of this place is an obelisk, consisting of seven large stones, besides its capital and the wreathed work about it. It is about 50 feet high; and, just above the pedestal, is 12 feet in circumference. There was probably a statue upon it, which the Turks, in their zeal against idolatry, destroyed. At about the distance of a quarter of a mile from this pillar, to the east and west, are two others, besides the fragment of a third; so that

perhaps they were originally a continued row. About a hundred paces from the middle obelisk, straight forward, is a magnificent entry to a piazza, which is 40 feet broad, and more than half a mile in length, inclosed with two rows of marble pillars, 26 feet high, and 8 or 9 feet in compass. Of these there still remain 129; and, by a moderate computation, there could not originally have been less than 560. The upper end of the piazza was shut-in by a row of pillars, standing somewhat closer than those on each side. A little to the left are the ruins of a stately building, which appears to have been a banqueting-house. It is built of better marble, and is finished with yet greater elegance, than the piazza. The pillars which supported it were of one entire stone, which is so strong, that one of them, which is fallen down, has received no injury: it measures 22 feet in length, and in compass 8 feet 9 inches. In the west side of the piazza are several apertures for gates into the court of the palace. Each of these was adorned with four porphyry pillars, not standing in a line with those of the wall, but placed by couples in the front of the gate facing the palace, two on each side. Two of these only remain entire, and but one standing in its place. They are 30 feet long, and 9 in circumference. On the east side of the piazza stands a great number of marble pillars, some perfect, but the greater part mutilated. In one place eleven are ranged together in a square: the space which they inclose is paved with broad flat stones, but there are no remains of a roof. At a little distance are the remains of a small temple, which is also without a roof, and the walls are much defaced. Before the entry, which looks to the south, is a piazza supported by six pillars, two on each side of the door, and one at each end. The pedestals of those in front have been filled with inscriptions both in the Greek and Palmyrene languages, which are become totally illegible.

Among these ruins are many sepulchres: they are ranged on each side of a hollow way, towards the north part of the city, and extend more than a mile. They are all square towers, four or five stories high. But, though they are alike in form, yet they differ greatly in magnitude and splendour. The outside is of common stone; but the floors and partitions of each story are marble. There is a walk across the whole building, just in the middle; and the space on each hand is subdivided into six partitions by thick walls. The space between the partitions is wide enough to receive the largest corpse; and in these niches there are six or seven piled upon one another.

We are indebted for an account of these very magnificent remains of antiquity, partly to some English merchants who visited them in 1678 and 1691, (Phil. Trans. N^o 217, 218, or Lowthorp's Abr. vol. iii.) but chiefly to M. Bouverie and Mr. Dawkins, accompanied by Mr. R. Wood, who travelled thither in 1751. The result of their observations was published in 1753, in the form of an atlas, containing fifty-seven copper plates, admirably executed. From this splendid work, most of our books of travels have copied some picturesque scene, or curious remain. The Gentleman's Magazine, so early as March 1754, gave a representation of the beautiful arch which stands west of the Temple of the Sun. The annexed Engraving, from the same work, presents a General View of the Ruins, including as many objects as we could conveniently place on one quarto page.

Palmyra was visited by Mr. Bruce before his journey into Abyssinia; but, on account of the many publications concerning these celebrated ruins, he has declined saying much concerning them. He informs us, that, before he came in sight of the ruins, he ascended a hill of white gritty stone, in a very narrow winding road, such as is called a pass; but, on getting up to the top, his eyes were struck with the most stupendous sight which, he believes, ever mortal saw. The whole plain below, which is very extensive, was so covered with magnificent buildings, that they

they seemed to touch one another. All of them are finely proportioned, agreeably shaped, and composed of white stones, which at that distance appeared like marble. In taking a draught of these ruins, Mr. Bruce divided the whole into six angular views, for which the situation of the place is very convenient. The columns are all uncovered to the very bases, the ground on which they are built being hard and solid. The views he took were upon large paper; some of the columns being represented a foot long, and some of the figures in the fore-ground of the Temple of the Sun being near four inches. Before he left Palmyra he observed its latitude with a reflecting quadrant of Hadley; but, as the instrument was out of order, he could not determine it exactly. In his opinion, however, $33^{\circ} 58'$ is not far distant from truth. From such observation as he could make on the longitude, he concluded it to be $37^{\circ} 9'$ east from Greenwich. Mr. Wood makes the latitude 34° north. It stands about 50 leagues south-east of Aleppo, as much from Damascus, and 20 leagues west of the Euphrates.

Palmyra was visited so lately as the year 1818, by Wm. Macmichael, M.D. F.R.S. one of Dr. Radcliffe's travelling-fellows for the university of Oxford. He observes, that the ruins continue in a state of surprising preservation, owing partly to the dryness of the climate, but more to the circumstance of there being no other city in the neighbourhood to which the materials can be appropriated. The present village, or rather hamlet, of Arabs, is contained in the great court of the Temple of the Sun, just as it appeared to Mr. Wood seventy years ago, and as shown on our Plate. *Journey from Moscow to Constantinople*; Lond. 1819.

Mr. Wood observes, that, "notwithstanding its magnificence, there is a greater sameness in the architecture of Palmyra than at Rome, Athens, and other great cities, whose ruins evidently point out different ages, as much from the variety of their manner as their different stages of decay; but, except four Ionic half-columns in the Temple of the Sun, and two in one of the mausoleums, the whole architecture of Palmyra is Corinthian, richly ornamented with some very striking beauties, and some as visible faults."

PALMYRA, a post-town of America, and the only port of entry and delivery in the state of Tennessee; so constituted by law of the United States in 1797; situated on the south bank of Cumberland river, twelve miles south-west of Clarksville. Lat. 36.13 . N. lon. 87.56 . W.

PALMYRA, a township of Maine, in the county of Somerset, having 117 inhabitants.—A township of Wayne county, in Pennsylvania, having 336 inhabitants.—A township of Knox county, in the Indiana territory.

PALNAUD, a county or district of Hindoostan, situated on the south side of the Kistnah; about 70 miles in length, and 15 in breadth; between Golconda and the circar of Guutoor. It is a part of the Carnatic. Time-rycotta is the principal place.

PA'LO, a town on the east coast of the island of Leyta. Lat. 11.15 . N. lon. 124.55 . E.

PA'LO, a cape on the coast of Albania: six miles north-west of Durazzo.

PA'LO, a town of Naples, in the province of Bari: three miles west of Bittetto.

PA'LO, a town of Italy, on the sea-coast, defended by a strong castle: thirteen miles west-north-west of Rome.

PALOCZA, a town of Hungary: eleven miles east of Szeben.

PALOMA'R, a town of Spain, in Arragon: twenty-two miles north of Teruel.

PALOMBA'RA, a town of Naples, in Lavora: five miles north-east of Capua.

PALOME'RA, a seaport-town, on the north-east coast of the island of Majorca.

PALOMINO y VELASCO (Don Antonio), a Spanish painter, born in Valencia, in 1653. He studied at Cordova in grammar, philosophy, theology, and jurisprudence.

The elements of his art he acquired of Don Juan de Valdes Seal; and, to acquaint himself with the styles of the different schools, he went to Madrid in 1678. Here he painted the gallery del Cierzo, and pleased the king and the minister; and in 1688 he was made painter to the king. He was overwhelmed with commissions, for many of which he made only the designs; but, whatever was begun and terminated by himself, in fresco or in oil, possessed invention, design, and colour, in the essential, and taste and science in the ornamental, parts.

As a literary man, Palomino may be considered the Vasari of Spain; as copious, as credulous, and as negligent of dates; but eminently useful with the emendations of modern and more accurate biographers. His work is divided into three parts, theoretical, practical, and biographical. The two first bear one title, viz. "El Musco Pictorico y Escala Optica." The third part, distinguished by that of "El Parnasso Espanol Pintoresco Laureada," &c. Madrid, 1724, though perhaps only intended as an appendix to the two former, is by far the most important and interesting.

PALONGO'LA, a town of Congo, on the Lelunda: two miles south of St. Salvador.

PALONGONG', a town of Matamba: seventy miles south-east of St. Maria de Matamba.

PALOR. See POLLIOR.

PA'LOS, a reef in the Straits of Macassar, near the west coast of Celebes. Lat. 0.24 . S. lon. 119.15 . E.

PA'LOS, a town on the west coast of the island of Celebes, in a bay to which it gives name. Lat. 0.56 . S. lon. 119.39 . E.

PA'LOS, a seaport-town of Spain, in the province of Seville, at the mouth of the Tinto, where the tide forms a tolerable harbour. In the year 1492, Christopher Columbus sailed from this port, on his first voyage for the discovery of the New World: two miles south of Moguer. Lat. 37.10 . N. lon. 6.58 . W.

PALOTTA, a town of Hungary, with a castle, and fortified with a high wall and a moat: eight miles west-south-west of Stuhl-Weisenburg.

PALOTZA, a town of Hungary, on the river Poprat: 112 miles north-north-west of Zatmar, and fifty-four north of Caschau.

PALOU', or PA'LO, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the pachalic of Erzerum, situated on the edge of a mountain and the banks of the Euphrates: the population amounts to about 8000 souls, Turks, Armenians, and Kurds. The river here is very rapid; and, from the bad construction of the bridges, made of wood, whole caravans have been swept away after the melting of the snow. The district of Palou is four days' journey in length, and two in breadth. The town is eighty-five miles south-south-west of Erzerum, and sixty north of Diarbekir. Lat. 38.52 . N. lon. 39.40 . E.

PALOU'E, *f.* in botany. See GINNANNIA.

PALPABILITY, *f.* [from *palpable*.] Quality of being perceivable to the touch.—He first found out *palpability* of colours; and, by the delicacy of his touch, could distinguish the different vibrations of the heterogeneous rays of light. *Arbutnot and Pope's Mart. Scrib.*

PALPABLE, *adj.* [*palpable*, Fr. *palpo* and *palpor*, Lat.] Perceptible by the touch:

I see thee yet, in form as *palpable*
As this which now I draw.

Shakespeare.

Darkness must overshadow all his bounds,

Palpable darkness, and blot out three days. Milton.

Gross; coarse; easily detected.—That grosser kind of heathenish idolatry, whereby they worshipped the very works of their own hands, was an absurdity to reason so *palpable*, that the prophet David, comparing idols and idolaters together, maketh almost no odds between them. Hooker.

—Plain; easily perceptible.—They would no longer be content with the invisible monarchy of God, and God dismissed them to the *palpable* dominion of Saul. *Holyday*.

PALPABLENESS,

PAL/PABLENESS, *f.* Quality of being palpable; plainness; grossness.

PAL/PABLY, *adv.* In such a manner as to be perceived by the touch. Grossly; plainly.—Clodius was acquitted by a corrupt jury, that had *palpably* taken shares of money: before they gave up their verdict, they prayed of the senate a guard, that they might do their consciences justice. *Bacon.*

PALPA'TION, *f.* [*palpatio, palpor*, Lat.] The act of feeling.

PALPE'BRÆ, *f.* [Latin.] The eyelids.

PALPE'TER, a town of Candabar, in the Cabulistan: fifty miles east of Ghizni.

To PAL/PITATE, *v. a.* [*palpito*, Lat. *palpiter*, Fr.] To beat as the heart; to flutter; to go *pit-a-pat*.

PALPITA'TION, *f.* Beating or panting: that alteration in the pulse of the heart, upon frights or any other causes, which makes it felt; for a natural uniform pulse goes on without distinction.—Anxiety and *palpitations* of the heart, are a sign of weak fibres. *Arbutnot on Aliments.*—Her bosom heaves with *palpitations* wild. *Thomson.*

PALREDYGUR', a town of Hindoostan, in Palnaud: sixteen miles west-south-west of Timerycottia.

PAL'SCHOV, a town of Prussia, in the province of Pomerelia: eleven miles north-west of Marienburg.

PAL'SGRAVE, *f.* A term used among the Germans, of the same import with *palatine*. It is compounded of the Latin *palatium*, and the Dutch *grave*, governor; *q. d.* governor or superintendent of a prince's palace.

PAL'SGRAVE (John), a learned English writer, who flourished in the reigns of Henry VII. and Henry VIII. He received his grammatical learning in London, where he was born. He studied logic and philosophy at Cambridge, at which university he resided till he had attained the degree of bachelor of arts; after which he went to Paris, where he spent several years in the study of philosophical and other learning, took the degree of master of arts, and acquired such excellence in the French tongue, that in 1514, when a treaty of marriage was negotiated between Louis XII. king of France, and the princess Mary, sister of king Henry VIII. of England, Mr. Palsgrave was chosen to be her tutor in that language. But, Louis XII. dying almost immediately after his marriage, Palsgrave attended his fair pupil back to England, where he taught the French language to many of the young nobility, obtained good church-preferment, and was appointed by the king one of his chaplains in ordinary. In the year 1531, he settled at Oxford for some time; and the next year was incorporated master of arts in that university, as he had before been in that of Paris, and a few days after was admitted to the degree of bachelor of divinity. At this time he was highly esteemed for his learning; and, what is very remarkable, though an Englishman, he was the first author who reduced the French tongue under grammatical rules, or that had attempted to fix it to any kind of standard. This he undertook, and executed with great ingenuity and success, in a large work, entitled *Ecclaircissement de la Langue Française*, folio, Lond. 1530. to which he has prefixed a large introduction in English. He also translated into the English a Latin play, written by one Will. Fullonius (an author then living at Hagen, in Holland), entitled *Acolastus*, a comedy, 4to. 1540. When Mr. Palsgrave was born, or to what age he lived, are particulars which we have not been able to trace; yet, from the concurrence of various facts, we cannot suppose him to have been much less than sixty years of age at the time of his publishing the above-mentioned translation.

PALSGRE'BEN, a town of Prussia, in the province of Oberland: five miles south of Osterrod.

PAL'SICAL, *adj.* [from *palsy*.] Afflicted with the palsy; paralytic.

PAL'SIED, *adj.* Diseased with the palsy.—Though she breathes yet in a few pious peaceful souls, yet, like a

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palsied person, she scarce moves a limb. *Decay of Chr. Piety.*

Let not old age long stretch his *palsy'd* hand;
Those who give late are importun'd each day. *Gay.*

PAL'SY, *f.* *paralysis*, Lat. thence *paralyse*, *paraly*, *palasy*, *palsy*.] A privation of motion or feeling, or both, proceeding from some cause below the cerebellum, joined with a coldness, flaccidity, and at last wasting of the parts. If this privation be in all the lower extremities, it is called a *paraplegia*; if in one side only, a *hemiplegia*; if in some parts only of one side, a *parefis*.—There is a threefold division of a *palsy*; a privation of motion, sensation remaining; a privation of sensation, motion remaining; and lastly, a privation of both together. *Quincy.*—A *palsy* may as well shake an oak, as shake the delight of conscience. *South.*

We shall speak very briefly of the three different kinds or species of palsy, as we must in some degree go over the same ground in the article **PATHOLOGY**.

1. **HEMIPLEGIA**.—The palsy which is most frequently seen, and which consists in the loss or diminution of the power of motion of one side of the body, is sometimes the consequence of an attack of apoplexy, where that has not proved fatal; but it more commonly occurs instantaneously, and without any actual apoplectic attack. In the latter case, however, the disease differs from the former only in the degree of injury which has taken place in the brain, the pressure upon that organ being more partial than in apoplexy.

The symptoms of hemiplegia are distinct and obvious, and scarcely liable to be confounded with those of any other disease. The most manifest symptom is the want of command over the limbs of the side affected, which either remain totally immovable by the will of the patient, or are possessed of so little power, that the arm hangs dangling by the side, and the leg is dragged along the ground, rather than elevated, in attempting to walk, and vibrates from want of firmness whenever the foot is planted on the ground. At the same time, the limbs are perfectly flexible by any external impulse, to which they offer no resistance. As the muscles of one side of the head are also paralysed, the features, especially the mouth, are commonly drawn away, giving a distorted appearance to the countenance; for, as the paralysed muscles offer no resistance, so the constant tendency to contraction in the healthy muscles of the opposite side necessarily operates in drawing the whole towards themselves. The face is contracted, therefore, not on the palsied, but on the sound, side. The same palsied condition exists also in one-half of the tongue, which, if it be attempted to be protruded, is shown in a curved state, the point always turning towards the angle of the mouth on the paralytic side. This palsied state of the tongue and lips, and other organs subservient to the voice, is necessarily the cause of indistinct articulation; so that various degrees of defect of speech accompany *hemiplegia*. From the morbid state of the brain, which gives rise to palsy, the functions of the mind are frequently more or less injured; the memory especially is liable to be impaired, and, in many cases, every faculty is so debilitated, that a considerable degree of fatuity or childish imbecility is the consequence. Indeed, there are perhaps few instances, in which the intellectual functions escape entirely unimpaired from an attack of hemiplegia: so that, where the stroke of palsy has been severe, few persons are left in a condition fitted for the active and important duties of life.

The prognosis is generally unfavourable in hemiplegia, more especially when the patient is advanced in life, or debilitated in constitution, or has been in habits of intemperance. For, under such circumstances, the system seldom recovers its powers; and the patient remains enervated both in mind and body, and generally incapable of

the ordinary business of life. If, as the disease continues, the paralysed limbs gradually lose their sense of feeling, or if they are affected with coldness, and the flesh wastes, the prospect is most unfavourable. But, if there is a frequent prickling sensation, or even some degree of pain, in the parts; if they are occasionally affected with flushings of heat, or with spasmodic twitchings; or if rheumatic or inflammatory swelling take place in them; these appearances are to be deemed favourable, inasmuch as they imply a less-complete interruption of the nervous power, or its returning influence.

The treatment of hemiplegia will necessarily be somewhat different in different instances, according to the age and constitution of the patient, and to the obvious exciting cause of the disease. It is a practice, but too generally adopted by routine-practitioners, to begin immediately with the exhibition of strong stimulants, upon the superficial inference, it should seem, of a torpor of the nervous power. But, if they were to penetrate a little below the surface of things, it would be evident that this torpor of the nerves depends entirely upon an oppressed state of their origin, the brain, in consequence of an over-action and turgescence of its vessels; and, therefore, that every measure, which tends to augment vascular action, must necessarily be a source of aggravation to the disease. Upon the plainest principles, the very opposite object is to be pursued; and, until the symptoms of plethora and the active state of the disease be subdued, the beneficial aid of stimulants is more than problematical. In a word, it appears, that *stimulants are perhaps never advisable in true hemiplegia*; and that the benefit of these remedies is limited to those species of general palsy which arise from the influence of cold or narcotic poisons on the brain and nerves, or to those local varieties of palsy which seem to depend upon disease affecting the branches and extremities of the nerves, while the brain remains uninjured. For the purposes, therefore, of aiding recovery from an attack of hemiplegia, the principal indication will be, to avoid every species of intemperance; to restrict the diet to light and cooling articles, and to take these with great moderation; to employ regular, but always gentle, exercise, avoiding every extraordinary hurry of the circulation; to preserve a regular, and rather free, state of the bowels; and to manage the clothing so as to preserve a regular state of the cutaneous exhalation, and to avoid the impressions of vicissitudes of heat and cold. In a word, the object will be to free the constitution from all embarrassment, in which condition it will be the best enabled to resume its healthy actions. We may liberate and assist, but we cannot command, the powers of the *vis medicatrix naturæ*. It may be observed, however, that where the attack has been slight, and the tendency to recovery obvious, the return of power in the paralysed muscles seems to be considerably accelerated by a constant exertion of them, or at least by constant attempts at exertion by directing the volition to them. The advantages of this voluntary exertion are commonly obvious in the more speedy and complete recovery of the motion of the leg, when compared to that of the arm, in persons who have suffered hemiplegia; a circumstance to be ascribed solely to the necessity of using the leg in moving from place to place, while the arm is too commonly hung in a sling, and no attempt is made to employ it.

2. PARAPLEGIA, or Palsy of the lower Extremities.—A palsy of the lower extremities may perhaps sometimes arise from injury or disease in some part of the brain itself; but of this the evidence appears to be imperfect; and, at all events, the occurrence is rare. The ordinary instances of this palsy obviously originate from pressure on some part of the vertebral nerve, or spinal marrow, below which the palsy shows itself, while the parts supplied with nerves, that branch off above the seat of the pressure, continue to possess their power of motion unimpaired.

The paraplegia may occur at all ages, and in either sex, and is always productive of much distress: for, if

the patient be a child, it becomes an object of constant and unavailing anxiety to its parents; and, if an adult, he is rendered perfectly helpless to himself, and useless to all others, which of all possible states is surely the worst.

When this palsy attacks an infant of only a year or two old, the true cause of it is seldom discovered until some time after the effect has taken place, at least by parents and nurses, who know not where to look for it. The child is said to be uncommonly backward in the use of its legs, or it is thought to have received some hurt in its birth. When it affects a child who is old enough to have already walked, and who has been able to walk, the loss of the use of the legs is gradual, though not very slow. He at first complains of being very soon tired; is languid, listless, and unwilling to move much, or at all briskly: in a short time after this he may be observed frequently to trip, and stumble, although there be no impediment in his way; and, whenever he attempts to move briskly, he finds that his legs involuntarily cross each other, by which he is frequently thrown down, and that without stumbling; upon endeavouring to stand still and erect, without support, even for a few minutes, his knees give way, and bend forward. When the distemper is a little farther advanced, it will be found that he cannot, without much difficulty and deliberation, direct either of his feet precisely to any exact point; and, very soon after this, both legs and thighs lose a good deal of their natural sensibility, and become perfectly useless for all the purposes of locomotion.

When the disease occurs in an adult person, its progress is much the same, but rather quicker. He complains also, in the early part of its course, of a sense of numbness in the affected limbs, with transitory tremblings and twitchings, and sometimes of rigors: and he finds, as the bladder and lower portion of the bowels are included in the disease, that the stools pass off unconsciously, and the urine flows without his consent, at the same time that he has a difficulty of emptying the bladder. Ultimately the legs become rigid, the knees and ankles stiff, and the feet extended so that they cannot be placed flat on the ground. The last circumstance is likewise observed in children.

When the back is examined, some proninency or curvature of the spine is always found. The curvature varies in situation, extent, and degree, being in the neck or back, and sometimes, though very rarely, in the upper part of the loins; sometimes comprehending two vertebræ only, sometimes three or more, by which the extent of the cure becomes necessarily more or less; but, whatever may be the number of the vertebræ concerned, or whatever the degree or extent of the curvature, the lower limbs only feel the effect, the arms never being affected. The effect is also different in different subjects: some are rendered totally and absolutely incapable of walking in any manner, or with any help, and that very early in the course of the distemper; others can make a shift to move about with the help of crutches, or by grasping their own thighs with their hands; some can sit in an erect posture, in a chair, without much trouble or fatigue, which others are incapable of, at least for any length of time: some have such a degree of motion in their legs and thighs, as to enable them to turn and move, for their own convenience, in bed; others have not that benefit, and are obliged to lie till moved by another.

The disease is commonly ascribed to some injury, such as a blow, fall, or violent strain, which had affected the spine; and probably this is actually the origin of it in many instances. But there is no doubt that the spine and its ligaments often become diseased, so as to produce paraplegia, independently of such violence. For it is not the mere distortion or curvature of the spine which gives rise to the palsy, (since the most extensive crookedness often occurs where no paralysis exists;) but actual pressure upon the vertebral nerve, by the concomitant disease of the spine.

The cure of paraplegia was seldom effected till the proper

proper treatment was devised by Mr. Pott. While the curvature of the spine remained undiscovered or unattended to, the disease was generally considered as *nervous*, and medicines so called were most frequently prescribed, together with warm liniments, embrocations, and blisters, to the parts affected; and, when the true cause was known, recourse was always had to steel stays, the swing, the screw-chair, and other pieces of machinery, in order to re-form the spine to its true and natural figure. But these expedients did not serve any real or permanent good purpose: the patients usually became unhealthy, and, after languishing for some time under a variety of complaints, died in an exhausted and emaciated state; or, which was still worse, dragged on a miserable existence, confined to a great chair, or bed, totally deprived of the power of moving.

The sagacious mind of that eminent surgeon, Mr. Pott, partly from a consideration of the diseased state of the ligaments and bones, which precedes and occasions the curvature, and partly on the suggestion of a learned physician, Dr. Cameron, of Worcester, (who, in consequence of an observation of Hippocrates, that a paraplegia had been cured by an abscess in the back, had imitated that process with advantage,) devised the plan of instituting a free discharge, by means of a large issue, from both sides of the spine. Experience confirmed the utility of this practice; and many examples of the complete restoration of strength and motion, in these deplorable cases, have been subsequently recorded.

3. PARESIS, or local Palsy.—The partial palsies of this kind are chiefly those which are connected with long-continued rheumatic inflammation, or with the long application of cold, or lastly, with the operation of certain mineral poisons, especially lead and mercury. After a limb has been for some time the seat of inveterate rheumatism, especially in debilitated habits, it sometimes becomes torpid, and benumbed as it were, losing its power of motion, and commonly some degree of its sensibility. A similar condition is more speedily produced by the direct application of cold to the parts; as, for example, in the legs and feet of persons who work with these parts in water. The extremities of the nerves appear to be no longer capable of receiving and conveying the nervous power from the brain, while the latter shows no symptom of any disease. The poison of lead, by whatever means it is introduced into the system, produces a species of palsy peculiar to itself: its first effect is the production of a severe colic, which from its being most frequently seen in painters, has been called the *painter's colic*; and it has received also several other appellations, from certain districts in which it has been prevalent, as the Devonshire colic, colic of Poitou, &c. After one or more attacks of this colic, the patient perceives that one of his hands grows weak, and at length he finds himself altogether unable to extend either the hand or the fingers, which hang down torpid, and moveless except from external force. As this commonly succeeds the attacks of colic, it may be probably connected with irritation in the intestinal canal, which appears at times to produce other forms of partial palsy. The palsy from the influence of mercury is also of a peculiar nature; it seems indeed to be rather an extreme debility of the muscles of the limbs, combined with tremors, than an absolute paralysis.

It is to these varieties of palsy, in which there is no plethora, congestion, or pressure upon the brain, that the employment of *stimulant remedies* alone is properly applicable, and that in fact any benefit is to be expected from them. In the palsy that is occasioned by protracted rheumatism, or by cold, recovery has frequently followed a perseverance in the use of the warm bath, of repeated and continued friction with the flesh-brush, or with various stimulating oils and liniments, of which camphor, turpentine, and the acrid gums, together with alcohol, constitute the principal ingredients. Internally, also, stimulant medicines of a similar nature have been at the same time administered, with a view to aid these effects; es-

pecially the ammoniacal salts, or tinctures of the stimulant gums in alcohol, and medicines which have been supposed to possess peculiar powers of exciting the nervous system, such as the arnica, the rhus toxicodendron, &c. Electricity has also been extensively applied to paralytic limbs under these circumstances; and it is probable, both from its obvious influence in exciting spasmodic twitches in the muscles, and from the number of successful instances of its application which have been recorded, that it has been of material benefit.

We have mentioned, among other stimulants that are really successful in the cure of these species of local palsy, the warm-bath, an expedient which is hazardous, in the early stages at least, of hemiplegia. Hence the Bath waters, and more especially the use of the hot-pump, commonly succeed in removing the palsy from lead, as well as from cold and rheumatism. There is, indeed, no remedy that appears to possess an equal efficacy: in the palsy from lead, after the disease has resisted all ordinary expedients, the hot-pumping seems to be almost a specific. There appears no reason, however, to suppose that any water of the same temperature, poured upon the limb in the same quantity, and with the same impetus, could not equally affect the cure, as the water of Bath; since it is the *quantity* of the stimulation, and not any peculiar quality of the water, that produces the effect.

For the palsy arising from the poison of lead, and affecting principally the extensor muscles of the hand and fingers, Dr. Pemberton recommended a simple contrivance, which appears to have contributed to accelerate the cure of this disease; namely, a sort of battledore of wood, of the length of the fore-arm and hand, which is tied to the former, and supports the latter extended at length. Under this support, he conceives the muscles sooner recover their tone than when they are constantly stretched by the pendulous hand.

Under all the forms of palsy, a constant exercise of the palsied limb contributes materially to expedite its recovery. This principle is equally applicable to the hemiplegia, as to these partial forms of palsy. But to the palsy, or tremors, originating from the poison of mercury, neither this nor any of the preceding precepts very clearly apply. The brain, in this case, seems to be affected by the poison, and the whole system suffers from its deleterious influence. Many remedies have been recommended, but especially sulphur, which was suggested perhaps upon chemical notions, rather than from a proper estimate of its operation upon the living body. On the whole, the disease is very unmanageable, and we know not how it is to be cured. The manufacturers among whom it almost exclusively occurs, viz. watch and button gilders, silverers of mirrors, &c. have contrived mechanical means of preventing the mercury, especially when used in its most pernicious form, vapour, from entering into the body so fully as formerly; and therefore the disease is become less frequent. But even now, as we are informed, the persons employed in what is called water-gilding, that is, in laying an amalgam of gold and mercury upon the articles to be gilded, and driving off the mercury by evaporation, are generally short-lived from this cause.

PAL'TA, or PALTE'. See JAMPRO, vol. x.

To PALTER, *v. n.* [from *paltron*, or perhaps from *paltry*.] To shift; to dodge; to play tricks. *Not in use.*—As if they hated only the miseries, but not the mischiefs, after they had juggled and *paltered* with the world. *Milton's Ten. of Kings and Magistrates.*

To the young man I must send humble treaties,
And *palter* in the shift of lowness. *Shakespeare.*

Be these juggling fiends no more believ'd,
That *palter* with us in a double sense;
That keep the word of promise to our ear,
And break it to our hope. *Shakespeare's Macbeth.*

Romans, that have spoke the word,
And will not *palter*. *Shakespeare's Jul. Caesar.*

To PA'LTER, *v. a.* To squander.—To be a justice of the peace, as you are, and *palter* out your time i' the penal statutes; to hear the curious tenets controverted between a protestant constable and jesuit cobbler! *Beaumont and Fleet. Elder Brother.*—*Paltering* the free and moneyless power of discipline with a carnal satisfaction by the purse. *Milton's Reas. of Ch. Government.*

PAL'TERCAMP, a town of Westphalia, in the bishopric of Osnabruck: fourteen miles south-south-east of Osnabruck.

PA'LTERER, *f.* An insincere dealer; a shifter.

PAL'TI, [Heb. flight.] A man's name.

PAL'TRINESS, *f.* [from *paltry*.] The state of being paltry.

PA'LTRY, *adj.* [*poltron*, Fr. a scoundrel; *poltrocca*, a low whore, Ital. *Dr. Johnson.*—Rather from the Su. Goth. *paltr*, rags; or Teut. *palt*, a scrap, a fragment. Mr. H. Tooke considers *paltry* as a participle, jointly with *poltron*; that is, formed of the Latin *pollice trunco*, having the thumb cut off. *Div. of Purley*, ii. 25. 26.—After all this learning, and a great deal more which has been poured out by Mr. Todd in his edition of Johnson's Dictionary, there is little doubt that *paltry* is a corruption and contraction of *pauvreté*, Fr. The truly idiomatic French translation of "It is a paltry thing" is undoubtedly *C'est une pauvreté*. "He acted in a paltry manner;" *Il a fait des pauvretés*. "He had but a paltry shop;" *Il n'a qu'une pauvre boutique*. In short, the French *pauvre*, in an oblique sense is exactly the same as *paltry* in English. *MIS. Gleanings in Etymology.*] Sorry; worthless; despicable; contemptible; mean.—A very dishonest *paltry* boy, as appears in leaving his friend here in necessity, and denying him. *Shakespeare.*

Then turn your forces from this *paltry* siege,
And stir them up against a mightier talk. *Shakespeare.*

Whose compost is *paltry*, and carried too late,
Such husbandry useth that many do hate. *Tusser.*

When such *paltry* slaves presume
To mix in treason, if the plot succeeds;
They're thrown neglected by; but, if it fails,
They're sure to die like dogs. *Addison's Cato.*

PALTZ (New), a town of the States of New-York: thirteen miles south of Stockport.

PALVARY'A, a town of Hindoostan, in Oude: thirty-two miles east of Kairahad.

PALUD' (La), a town of France, in the department of the Drôme: twelve miles north-north-west of Orange, and five south of Montelimart.

PALUDAMENTUM, *f.* among the ancients, a garment worn in time of war by the principal men of Rome, especially the generals, who were called for that reason *paludati*. The soldiers, having only short coats, called *sagum*, were denominated *sagati*.

The *paludamentum* was open on the sides, coming down no lower than the navel, and had short sleeves. It was white, purple, or red, and sometimes black. Valerius Maximus remarks, it was an ill omen to Crassus, that they gave him a black *paludamentum*: "Pullum ei traditum est *paludamentum*, cum in prælium euntibus album, aut purpureum, dari solet." Cornutus says, the Romans wore the toga in peace, and the *paludamentum* in war. And hence the phrase "Togam *paludamento* mutavit." Kennett says, the old *paludamentum* of the generals was all scarlet, only bordered with purple; and the *eklamys* of the emperors was all purple, commonly beautified with a golden or embroidered border. See CHLAMYS, vol. iv.

PALUDA'NUS (John), vernacularly *Vanden Broeck*, a learned Flemish divine and theological professor, was a native of Mechlin, where he was born in the year 1566. He was educated at the university of Louvain, where, after completing his philosophical course, he took the degree of M.A. in 1585. Afterwards he assiduously studied divinity and sacred criticism, under the instructions of the very-celebrated Michael Baius. During several years

he filled the chair of professor of eloquence at Falcon-college, and officiated at the same time as parish-priest of St. Gertrude in that city. Afterwards he became incumbent of the church of our Lady at Mechlin; whence he removed, in 1602, to the living of St. Peter and St. Paul in the same place. In the same year he was created doctor of divinity. In 1610 he returned to Louvain, where he was appointed canon and pastor of St. Peter's, and nominated, at first professor in ordinary of divinity, and afterwards professor-royal of sacred literature. He was also made archpriest of the district of Louvain. He died in 1630, in the sixty-fifth year of his age. He was the author of several works which are highly valued by zealous Catholics; among which are, 1. *Vindiciæ Theologicæ, adversus Verbi Dei Corruptelas*; 1620 and 1622, 2 vols. 8vo. consisting of an explication of almost all the texts of scripture quoted by Protestants in refutation of the doctrines of the church of Rome, according to the order of the books in the Bible. 2. *Apologeticus Marianus*, 1623, 4to. in praise of the Virgin Mary, and attempting, by arguments drawn from the fathers, to establish her claim to the prerogatives which the Catholics ascribe to her. 3. *De Sancto Ignatio Concio Sacra*, 1623, 8vo. 4. *Officina Spiritualis sacris Concionibus adaptata*, 1624, 4to. *Valerii Andreae Bibl. Belg.*

PALUDAPIUM, *f.* in botany. See APIUM.

PALUDE, a town of Turkish Armenia, in the government of Erzerum; the residence of a prince in some respects independent of the grand signior. Lat. 38. 35. N. lon. 39. 14. E.

PALUDIFEROUS, *adj.* [from the Lat. *palus*, a marsh, and *fero*, to bear.] Producing marshes. *Cole.*

PALVERE'TO, a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra: ten miles east-north-east of Cosenza.

PALUM'BINE, *adj.* [from *palumbus*.] Belonging to a beautiful kind of pigeon, the ringdove.

PALUM'BUS, *f.* The ringdove, a beautiful species of pigeon. See COLUMBA *palumbus*, vol. iv. p. 818.

PA'LUS, *f.* A military exercise among the Romans, by which the young men prepared and qualified themselves for real combat. The *palus* was a pillar, about six feet high, fastened into the ground: against this the soldiers made an attack, assailing it in several different modes and attitudes; always taking care so to manage their weapons, that, supposing it was a real enemy, they might not expose any part of their body to be hurt, while they were striking their adversary. Instead of a sword, they used a rod or stick. They likewise ran at the *palus* with lances, and threw javelins and darts at it, endeavouring to hit particular parts; and their success was a proof of their dexterity.

PA'LUS MÆO'TIS. See SEA of AZOF, vol. ii.

PAL'WAL, a town of Hindoostan: thirty-five miles south of Delhi.

PAL'Y, *adj.* [from *pale*.] Pale. *Used only in poetry.*

Fain would I go to chafe his *paly* lips,
With twenty thousand kisses. *Shakespeare.*

A dim gleam the *paly* lanthorn throws
O'er the mid pavement. *Gay.*

PA'LY, *adj.* in heraldry, is when an escutcheon is divided into six, eight, or ten divisions, pale-wise, i. e. by perpendicular lines drawn from the top to the bottom.

PALY-BENDY is when the field is divided by perpendicular lines, which is called *paly*; and then, again, by diagonals crossing the former, from the dexter side to the sinister, which is the *bendy*.

PAM, *f.* [probably from *palm*, victory; as *trump* from *triumph*.] The knave of clubs:

Ev'n mighty *pam*, that kings and queens o'erthrew,
And mow'd down armies in the fights of loo. *Pope.*

Our "Etymological Gleaner" goes higher for the derivation of this word: Pamphilus, Lat. *παραφίλος*, Gr. "one who loves every thing," which *pam* may be supposed

posed to do, since he seizes upon all.—An Athenian named *Pamphilus* having robbed the public treasury, gave occasion to the Latin adage *Pamphilus portum*. This strongly alludes to the mighty catchings of *Pam* at cards. *MS. Gleanings*.

PAM'ADA, a town of Birmah, on the Ava: twenty-four miles north of Prone.

PAMAKAS'SAN, a town on the north coast of the island of Madura.

PAMALANG', a town on the north coast of the island of Java. Lat. 6.45. S. lon. 109. 28. E.

PAMANAKAN' POINT, a cape on the north coast of the island of Java. Lat. 6. 12. S. lon. 107. 54. E.

PAMANDOO'R, a town of Hindoostan, on the coast of Tinevelly: ten miles north of Tutacorin.

PAMBAMA'CA, a mountain of South America, in the province of Quito.

PAMBOU'K, the Turkish name of the ruined city of Hierapolis. See *HiERAPOLIS*.

PAMBU', a town of Thibet: twenty miles east of Tankia.

PAM'BUK-KAL'ASI. See *BAMBUK-KALASI*, vol. ii.

PAME'A, *f.* in botany. See *TERMINALIA*.

PAMELE, or **PAMELAN'**, a town of the kingdom of the Netherlands, on the Dender: seven miles south of Aloft.

PAME'LIUS (James), a learned Flemish divine; was the son of Adolphus, baron de Pamela, counsellor of state to the emperor Charles V. and born at Bruges in the year 1536. He pursued his academical studies at Louvain, where he spent nine years in successfully cultivating an acquaintance with the different branches of learning, and particularly sacred literature. Afterwards he went for further improvement to the university of Paris, and visited others of the most celebrated seminaries in Europe. Upon his return to Louvain, he was admitted licentiate in divinity, and preferred, through the interest of his family, to a canonry at Bruges. He now expended considerable sums of money on the collection of a good library, and particularly on the purchase of manuscript copies of the writings of the fathers, by which their edited works might be amended and illustrated, and inedited pieces be presented to the public. To the use which he made of them, and his ability as a divine and critic, his works, mentioned below, bear honourable testimony. But, while he was thus employed, the civil wars in the Netherlands compelled him to retire from Bruges to St. Omer's, where the bishop made him archdeacon of his church. Soon afterwards Philip II. king of Spain, nominated him provost of St. Saviour's at Utrecht; which preferment was followed by his promotion to the vacant see of St. Omer's. While he was on his journey, however, to take possession of this dignity, he fell sick at Mons in Hainault, where he died in 1587, when he was in the fifty-second year of his age. He published, 1. B. Cypriani Opera omnia, à Codd. Manusc. accuratissimè recog. Annotationibus sparsim insertis, præmissaque Auctoris Vita; Ant. 1568 and 1589, Paris 1574, folio. 2. Tertulliani Opera, è MSS. Codd. auct. ac recens. Argumentis et Annotationibus interject. cum Tertulliani Vita et Paradoxis, &c. printed at Paris after his death, 1598, folio. 3. He prepared for the press a new edition of the Works of Rabanus Maurus, which was published at Cologne in 1626, in five volumes folio, accompanied with his own Commentaries on the book of Judith, and the Epistle of St. Paul to Philemon. 4. Liturgica Latinorum, a curious and scarce work, published at Cologne, in 1571, in two volumes 4to. 5. Micrologus de ecclesiasticis Observationibus. 6. Catalogus Commentariorum veterem seclorum in universa Biblia, 1566, 8vo. 7. Notes on the treatise of Cassiodorus De divinis Nominibus; &c. *Valerii Andreae Bibl. Belg.*

PAME'NE, a town of the island of Ceylon, on the east coast: fifty-five miles south of Trincoli.

PAM'ER, a lake of Prussia: twelve miles west of Lick. VOL. XVIII. No. 1244.

PAMI'ERS, a town of France, and seat of a tribunal, in the department of the Arriège. Near it is a medicinal spring: twelve miles west of Mirepoix, and fourteen north of Tarascon. Lat. 43. 6. N. lon. 1. 41. E.

PAM'ISUS, in ancient geography, a river of Messenia, which had its source in the mountains that lay towards the north between Messenia and Arcadia, ran north-east, and discharged itself into the sea at the extremity of the Messenian gulf.—Also, a river of Greece, in Thessaly.—Also, a river of Lower Mœsia, in the environs of Odessus, called by Ptolemy *Panyfus*, and placed between Odessus and Mesambria.

PAM'LICO, or **TAR RIVER**, a river of North Carolina, which empties itself into a large bay of the Atlantic called Pamlico Sound; the mouth of the river is in lat. 35. 25. N. lon. 76. 42. W.

PAM'LICO SOUND, a large bay on the coast of North Carolina: a long narrow strip of land separates it from the main sea, about forty miles square: towards the north it communicates with Albemarle Sound.

PAMME'LIA, [from the Gr. *παν*, all, and *μελος*, melody.] The title given to the first collection of canons, rounds, and catches, that was printed in England. The full title of these ingenious and exhilarating effusions is curious, and runs thus: "Pammelia; Musick's Miscellanie, or mixed varietie of pleasant Roundelays and delightful Catches of 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, parts in one: None so ordinarie as musical, none so musical as not to all very pleasing and acceptable. London, printed by William Barley for R. B. and H. W. and are to be sold at the Spread Eagle at the north doore of Paules;" 4to. 1609. The names of none of the composers of these epigrammatic and pointed effusions have been preserved; but many of them seem of great antiquity, which is discoverable both by the words and style of composition. Great musical science is manifested in the canons, and the harmony and contrivance of the rest are excellent. The words, indeed, except those of the canons, which consist of small portions of the Psalms, and other parts of Scripture; in Latin, (which seems to imply that they were set before the Reformation,) are, in general, devoid of wit, humour, poetry, or common sense. Our lyric poetry, during the 16th and part of the 17th century, was in a barbarous state, and far inferior to the music of the times: but the composers seemed so little solicitous about the words they had to set, as frequently to prefer the syllables of solmisation *Ut re mi fa sol la, Hey down down derry down*, or merely *Fa la*, to songs of Spenser and Shakespeare. In the same year was published another collection, entitled "Deuteromelia, or the Second Part of Musick's Melodie, or Melodious Musicke of Pleasant Roundelaies, &c. London, printed for Thomas Adams, dwelling in Paules Church-yard, at the sign of the White Lyon, 1609." This publication is much inferior to the preceding; and chiefly consists of songs for three voices, in which different stanzas are sung to the same music, after the manner of what are called glees.

PAM'MENOCKE POINT, a cape on the north coast of New Guinea. Lat. 0. 24. S. lon. 133. 21. E.

PAM'MIN, a town of Brandenburg, in the New Mark: two miles south of Reetz.

PAMNAGUR', a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Kitchwara: thirteen miles north-west of Burdwar.

PAMOACAN', a town of the island of Borneo, on the east coast, near the south part of the island: 150 miles north-east of Banjer Massim.

PAMODUR'SE, a town of Hindoostan, in Mysore: twenty miles south of Tademer.

PAMO'NA. See *POMONA*.

PAMPANGAN', a town of the island of Luçon, capital of a province, populous and extensive; the inhabitants in general have adopted the religion and manners of the Spaniards. The town is situated on the east coast. Lat. 15. 5. N.

PAM'PA HERMO'SA, a town of Peru, in the diocese

cese of Truxillo, and province of Pataz, on the west bank of the Guallaga, inhabited by Indians.

PAMPA'RA, a town of Africa, in Bambarra: 156 miles west of Segó.

PAMPAS, a province of South America, in the vice-royalty of Buenos-Ayres, consisting of vast plains, which extend from the sea-coast on the east, to that great chain which forms the beginning of the Cordilleras of Chili, about 140 leagues west from the city of Buenos-Ayres. Towards the south, they stretch about 100 leagues to a chain proceeding west-north-west from the Atlantic. The northern boundaries are not distinctly known, but the name of Pampas is chiefly applied to the territory on the south of Buenos-Ayres, Cordova, and Mendoza. These vast plains, like the Steppes of Russia, having scarcely any elevations: the view, as at sea, is terminated by the horizon. They are only diversified with paths and ditches, which collect the rain-waters, and which commonly end in lakes, as there is no declivity; yet there are wide tracts in which no water is found, nor is that element pure; and trees are extremely rare, except a few shrubs round the lakes. Hence this region is only inhabited by a few wandering savages. The soil is generally a black earth, of little depth, and is followed by a kind of coarse white chalk, so that it is difficult to form wells, as the water can scarcely pass so tenacious a substance. The chief pasturage is clover, and, in the best parts, sometimes so strong, as to resist the step of a horse: it is much liked by the cattle, which, when there is water, multiply prodigiously in the Pampas.

PAMPAS DEL SACRAMENTO, immense plains in Peru, lying between the Gualaga and the Marañon west and east, bounded by the Tunguragua on the north. The names Montana Real and Pampas del Sacramento have been confounded; whereas the former, in its strict original acceptation, implied a mountainous region of no great extent, to the east of the provinces of Tarma and Guanuco; whilst the latter has been carried to an immense extent, so as to include the vast territories on the north and south of the Marañon, as far as the line of demarcation with the Portuguese settlements. In this acceptation, the medial length from the country of the Majos, lat. 15. S. to the river Guaviari, lat. 3. N. is 180, or 1080 geographical miles. The breadth depends upon the Portuguese frontier, but the medium may be 100, or 600 geographical miles.

The name of *Pampas del Sacramento*, Plains or Steppes of the Holy Sacrament, was imposed by the pious fathers on an enormous territory, watered by the Ucayal, or genuine Marañon, and which they fondly represent as being as large as Europe; but they deserve greater credit when they inform us, that it is about 8000 leagues square, and capable of maintaining five millions of inhabitants. The recent discovery of the Pampas is chiefly owing to father Girval, who has navigated about 400 leagues south to north, and seventy west to east, on the grand and genuine Marañon, and has inspected and described the country with considerable care. He has discovered twenty-five nations, or rather tribes of Indians, of whom he pretends to have converted four, viz. the Panos, Cambos, Chipeos, and the Piros. The common deity of all the tribes he found to be the Moon; and they dread a demon called Nugi, whom they regard as the author of all their calamities. For the conducting of their wars, they elect a chief of the greatest courage and cunning; and, in the prosecution of their contests, the men are slain, and women and children only become captives. Some tribes are more courteous and humane; while others, as the Cafivos and Carapachos, are anthropophagi. The Carapachos are about 80° south lat. on the bank of the river Pachitea; and the Chipeos at 7. 35. Among all the nations on this part of the genuine Marañon, circumcision is practised among the men, and excision among the women. The Capanaguas, a tribe on the river Mague, dress and eat their dead, and

think this action meritorious; and yet they are one of the most humane tribes.

The Pampas del Sacramento are divided from the Sierra, or the hills of Peru, by a lofty chain, from which this vast country appears so level that it resembles the ocean. The perpetual verdure of its fields forms a delicious perspective; and for some hours in the day there is so thick a fog on the tall trees, that the clouds seem to be under your feet. Rain and thunder are frequent. Insects and reptiles are abundant. Many of the vegetable products are rare and singular. Balsams, oils, gums, resins, incense, cinnamon, though inferior to that of Ceylon, cacao, cascarilla, and an excellent spice, called the pucherí, are very plentiful. But the warmth and humidity render a country, equal in size to an Asiatic empire, almost uninhabitable; and even the few traders on the banks of the rivers rarely see a man of the age of fifty. Yet the missionaries have founded several villages. New entrances have been found to the Montana Reale, Pampas, or rather great territory of Colonna, since the late missions were established. *Pinkerton's Geography*, vol. iii.

PAM'PEL, a town of the duchy of Courland: twenty-four miles south of Goldingen.

PAMPELLON'NE, a town of France, in the department of the Tarn: twelve miles north of Alby, and twenty-one north-east of Gaillac.

PAMPELU'NA. See PAMPLONA.

To PAMPER, *v. a.* [from the Lat. *pampinus*, a young vine-branch, full of leaves, *pampre*, Fr. A vineyard is said by the French *pamprer*, when it is overgrown with superfluous leaves and fruitless branches. *Junius*.] To glut; to fill with food; to feed luxuriously.—The goat, being fond of *pampering* upon the new shoots and leaves of the vine, was deservedly brought to the altar of Bacchus as a devoted victim for injuring a plant so dear to that god. Hence to eat with an avidity similar to that of the goat who feeds and fattens upon the *pampinus*, has been expressed not inelegantly by the verb to *pamper*. *MS. Gleanings*.

You are more intemperate in your blood
Than Venus, or those *pampered* animals
That rage in savage sensuality.

Shakespeare.

His lordship lolls within at ease,
Pam'ring his paunch with foreign rarities.

Dryden.

To *pamper'd* insolence devoted fall
Pride of the flock and choicest of the stall.

Pope.

PAM'PERED, *adj.* Over full:

Fruit-trees over-woody reach'd too far
Their *pamper'd* boughs.

Milton's P. L.

PAMPERER, *f.* One that pampers.

PAMPERING, *f.* Luxuriancy.—It is an encouragement to security, and a *pampering* in sin. *Fulke against Allen*.

PAMPHAR'MACON, or rather PANPHARMACON, *f.* [from the Gr. *παν*, all, and *φαρμακον*, a remedy.] A remedy against all manner of poisons.

PAMPHE'LIS, in ancient geography, a town of Asia Minor, on the confines of Pamphylia, near a mountain called Climon. Strabo says, that it was a considerable town, and that it had three ports and a lake.

PAM'PHILUS, a celebrated painter of Macedonia, in the age of Philip. He was founder of the school for painting at Sicyon; and he made a law, which was observed not only in Sicyon, but all over Greece, that none but the children of noble and dignified persons should be permitted to learn painting. See the article PAINTING, p. 210 of this volume. Apelles was one of his pupils.

PAM'PHILUS, an excellent presbyter of Cæsarea in Palestine, and a martyr under the persecution of Maximinus, in the early part of the fourth century, is generally believed to have been a native of Berytus in Phœnicia, and a descendant from a good and wealthy family.

After

After having received the rudiments of learning at his native city, he went to Alexandria in Egypt, where he completed his studies, and then settled at Cæsarea. Here he entered into an intimate friendship with Eusebius, bishop of the place, who has given many testimonies of his sincere respect for the memory of his friend. According to Cave, Pamphilus flourished about the year 294. He was possessed of such zeal for the interests of religion and sacred literature, that he founded, at a great expense, a library at Cæsarea, which contained all the most celebrated writers of the church, collected from all quarters; and is compared by Jerome with the more ancient celebrated libraries of Demetrius Phalereus and Pisistratus. He even wrote out with his own hand the greatest part of Origen's works, which were in the library in Jerome's time; and that father obtained possession of five and twenty volumes of Origen's Commentary upon the Twelve Prophets, written by Pamphilus, which, he said, he valued as much as if he had the treasures of Cræsus. There are still extant in the curious collections of Europe memorials of this library of Pamphilus, and traces of his and Eusebius's labour in transcribing or correcting copies of the scriptures, or other books, to which the reader may find references in Lardner. Pamphilus was jointly concerned with Eusebius, in publishing a correct edition of the Greek version of the Seventy from Origen's Hexapla; which Huet believes to have been the first separate edition of that version according to Origen's emendations. He was also jointly concerned with Eusebius, in writing five books of "An Apology for Origen," to which Eusebius, after his death, added a sixth. Of this work the first book is still remaining, in Rufinus's Latin translation; and there are some fragments of the rest preserved in Photius's Codex.

In the year 307 when the persecution raged against the Christians, Pamphilus was apprehended, and carried before Urbanus, the Roman president at Cæsarea, who, after trying his knowledge by different questions in rhetoric, philosophy, and polite literature, required him to offer sacrifice. When he found that Pamphilus refused to obey him, and despised all his threatenings he commanded that he should be tortured with the utmost severity, and then committed to prison. In the year 309, after having several times resisted the cruel efforts of his persecutors to overcome his constancy, he was put to death by the orders of Firmilianus, who had succeeded Urbanus in the presidency of the city. Eusebius says of him, that he was the great glory of the church of Cæsarea, and, on account of his eminent virtue, the most renowned martyr of that age: a man who, throughout his whole life, excelled in every virtue; in contempt and renunciation of this world, in liberality to the indigent, in disregard of all earthly honours and preferments to which he might have inspired, and in an abstemious philosophical course of life; but he was especially eminent and remarkable above all men of our time for an unfeigned zeal for the holy scriptures, and for unwearied application in whatever he undertook; whether it were kind offices to his friends, or to others who sought his aid." *Eusebii Hist. Eccl. lib. vii. viii. Cave's Hist. Lit. vol. i. Lardner's Cred. vol. v. Gen. Biog.*

PAMPHLET, *f.* [*par un filet*, Fr. Dr. Johnson.—Skinner derives it from the Belgic *pamptier*, a little paper. Mr. Pegge considers it to be from the Fr. *palme-feuillet*, a leaf to be held in the hand; a book being a thing of greater weight. *Anonym. i. 26.*—Caxton, as Dr. Johnson has observed, writes it *pamflet*; but *pamflet* was also an old way of writing it: "Begynnynge with small storyes and *pamfletes*, and so to others." Prol. to K. Apolyne of Thyre, 1510. *Todd.*] A small book; properly a book sold unbound, and only stitched; written or printed.—He could not, without some tax upon himself and his ministers for the not executing the laws, look upon the bold license of some in printing *pamphlets*. *Clarendon.*

Com'st thou with deep premeditated lines,
With written *pamphlets* studiously devis'd? *Shakespeare.*
As when some writer in a public cause,
His pen, to save a sinking nation, draws,
While all is calm his arguments prevail,
Till pow'r, discharging all her stormy bags,
Flutters the feeble *pamphlet* into rags. *Swift.*

A little book, printed in the year 1715, which bears for title "*Icon Libellorum*, or a Critical History of Pamphlets," affords some curious information; and, as this is rather a pamphlet than a book reading age, we shall make a few extracts.

The author is at once serious and humorous in his preface. He there observes, "from pamphlets may be learned the genius of the age, the debates of the learned, the follies of the ignorant, the *bévue*s of government, and the mistakes of courtiers. Pamphlets furnish beaux with their airs, coquets with their charms. Pamphlets are as modish ornaments to gentlewomen's toilets as to gentlemen's pockets; they carry reputation of wit and learning to all that make them their companions; the poor find their account in stall-keeping, and in hawking them; the rich find in them their shortest way to the secrets of church and state. There is scarcely any class of people but may think themselves interested enough to be concerned with what is published in pamphlets, either as to their private instruction, curiosity, and reputation, or to the public advantage and credit; with all which, both ancient and modern pamphlets are too often over familiar and free. In short, with pamphlets the booksellers and stationers adorn the gaiety of shop-gazing. Hence accrues to grocers, apothecaries, and chandlers, good furniture, and supplies for necessary retreats and natural occasions."

This author sketches, with no common learning, the origin and the rise of pamphlets. He deduces them from the short writings published by the Jewish rabbins, various little pieces at the time of the first propagation of Christianity; and notices a certain pamphlet, which was pretended to have been the composition of Jesus Christ, thrown from heaven, and picked up by the archangel Michael, at the entrance of Jerusalem. It was copied by the priest Leora, and sent about from priest to priest, till pope Zachary ventured to pronounce it a forgery! He notices several such extraordinary publications, many of which produced as extraordinary effects. He then proceeds in noticing the first Arian and Popish pamphlets, or rather *libels*, i. e. little books, as he distinguishes them. He relates a curious anecdote respecting the forgeries of the monks. Archbishop Usher detected, in a manuscript of St. Patrick's life, pretended to have been found at Louvain, as an original of a very remote date, several passages taken, with little alteration, from his own writings!

He observes on Sermons; "Tis not much to be questioned but of all modern pamphlets, what or wheresoever, the *English stitched sermons* be the most edifying, useful, and instructive; yet they could not escape the critical Mr. Bayle's sarcasm. He says, *Republique de Lettres*, March, 1710, in his article London, 'We see here sermons swarm daily from the the prefs. Our eyes only behold manna; are you desirous of knowing the reason? It is, that the ministers, being allowed to *read* their sermons in the pulpit, *buy all they meet with*, and take no other trouble than to *read* them, and thus pass for very able scholars at a very cheap rate.'

The ingenious writer now begins more directly the history of pamphlets, which he branches out from four different etymologies. He says, "However foreign the word *pamphlet* may appear, it is a genuine English word, rarely known or adopted in any other language: its pedigree cannot well be traced higher than the latter end of queen Elizabeth's reign. In its first state wretched

must

must have been its appearance, since the great linguist John Minshew, in his *Guide into Tongues*, printed 1617, gives it the most miserable character of which any libel can be capable: Mr. Minshew says, (and his words were quoted by lord-chief-justice Holt,) a pamphlet, that is, *opusculum foliodorum*; 'the diminutive performance of fools;' from *παν*, all, and *πληθω*, I fill; to wit, all places. According to the vulgar saying, all things are full of fools, or foolish things; for such multitudes of pamphlets, unworthy of the very name of libels, being more vile than common shores, and the filth of beggars, and being flying papers daubed over and besmeared with the foames of drunkardes, are tossed far and near into the mouths and hands of scoundrels; neither will the sham oracles of Apollo be esteemed so mercenary as a pamphlet."

Under this first etymological notion of pamphlets may be comprehended the vulgar stories of the Nine Worthies of the World, of the Seven Champions of Christendom, Tom Thumb, Valentine and Orson, &c. as also most of apocryphal lucubrations. The greatest collection of this first sort of pamphlets are the rabbinic traditions in the Talmud, consisting of fourteen volumes in folio, and the popish legends of the Lives of the Saints, which; though not finished, form fifty folio volumes, all which tracts were originally in pamphlet forms.

The second idea of the radix of the word *pamphlet* is, that it takes its derivation from *παν*, all, and *φιλεω*, I love; signifying a thing beloved by all; for a pamphlet, being of a small portable bulk, and of no great price, is adapted to every one's understanding and reading. In this class may be placed all fitched books on serious subjects, the best of which fugitive pieces have been generally preserved and even reprinted in collections of state-tracts, miscellanies, sermons, poems, &c. and on the contrary, bulky volumes have been reduced, for the convenience of the public, into the familiar shapes of pamphlets, fitched *par un filet*, with a thread. Both these methods have been thus censured by the majority of the lower house of convocation 1711. "They have re-published and collected into volumes, pieces written long ago on the side of infidelity. They have re-printed together in the most contracted manner many loose and licentious pieces, in order to their being purchased more cheaply, and dispersed more easily."

The other two branches of etymology are not worth our notice in this place, as we have already given those of Dr. Johnson, &c. The author then proceeds in praise of pamphlets: "The smallness of the size of a book was always its own commendation; as, on the contrary, the largeness of a book is its own disadvantage, as well as terror of learning. In short, a big book is a scare-crow to the head and pocket of the author, student, buyer, and seller, as well as a harbour of ignorance; hence the inaccessible mysteries of the inexpugnable ignorance and superstition of the ancient heathens, degenerate Jews, and of the popish scholasters and canonists, entrenched under the frightful bulk of huge, vast, and innumerable, volumes; such as the great folio that the Jewish rabbins fancied in a dream was given by the angel Raziel to his pupil Adam, containing all the celestial sciences; and the volumes writ by Zoroaster, intitled *The Similitude*, which is said to have taken up more space than 1260 hides of cattle; as also the 25,000, or, as some say, 36,000, volumes, besides 325 lesser MSS. of his. The grossness and multitude of Aristotle and Varro's books were both a prejudice to the authors, and an hindrance to learning, and an occasion of the greatest part of them being lost. The largeness of Plutarch's *Treatises* is a great cause of his being neglected; while Longinus and Epictetus, in their pamphlet *Remains*, are every one's companions. Origen's 6000 volumes (as Epiphanius will have it) were not only the occasion of his venting more numerous errors, but also for the most part of their perdition. Were it not for Euclid's *Elements*, Hypocrates's *Aphorisms*, Justinian's *Institutes*, and Littleton's *Tenures*, in small

pamphlet-volumes, young mathematicians, fresh-water physicians, civilian novices, and *les apprentises en la ley d'Angleterre*, would be at a loss and stand, and total discouragement." *Curiosities of Literature*, vol. ii.

TO PAMPHLET, *v. n.* To write small books.—I put pen to paper, and something I have done, though in a poor pamphleting way. *Howell*.

PAMPHLETEER, *f.* A scribbler of small books.—The squibs are those who in the common phrase are called libellers, lampooners, and *pamphleteers*. *Tatler*.

Small pains can be but little art;
Or load full drie-fats from the forren mart
With folio volumes, two to an ox-hide;
Or else, ye *pamphleteer*, go stand aside. *Bp. Hall's Sat.*

A collection of pamphlets. The title of a periodical work now publishing.

PAMPHOS, a Greek poet, supposed to have lived before Hesiod's age. *Lempriere*.

PAMPHYLA, a Greek woman, who wrote a General History in thirty-three books, in Nero's reign. This history, so much commended by the ancients, is lost.

PAMPHYLIA, in ancient geography, a considerable province of Asia Minor, and which included Pisidia, that occupied the northern part. Pamphylia was bounded on the south by the Mediterranean, and extended along the coast from Mount Climax, which separated it on the west from Caria, as far as the chain of mountains which separated it on the east from Cilicia; to the north it had Phrygia. The principal towns of Pamphylia, commencing westward, were Olbia, at the mouth of the Catactes; Perga (Karahisar) towards the east, at a small distance from thence, on the Cestrus; Aspendus to the south-east, on the Eurymedon; Sede (Cordeloro) directly south, on the sea-coast; Cibyra (Ibuzar) situated to the north-east; Lyrbe to the north-east; and Corybrassus on the Melas. Towards Phrygia were Tormessus (Eftenaz), a principal town of the people called Solymi, and of the small country called Cabalia; Cormosa; Cremna (Kabriacz) to the north-east; Sandalium, a fortress north-west of Cremna; Baris, south-east of Cremna, in which the Romans established a colony; Lyfnoe (Ag-Jafon), east of Cormosa; Trogitis (Egrida), south of a lake, and south-east of Cremna; Oroanda (Haviran), north of the lake; Seleucia Ferrea (Eushar), at some distance east of the lake; and Petnelissus, south-east of Selga and Catenna, upon the Eurymedon, towards the north-east. Ifauria is found within the limits assigned by M. d'Anville to Pamphylia.

PAMPILHO'SA, a town of Portugal, in Estremadura: thirty-four miles north-north-east of Thomar.

PAMPINATION, *f.* [from *pampinus*.] The act of pruning the young shoots of the vine. *Cole*.

PAMPINEAN, *adj.* Belonging to the vine leaf. *Cole*.

PAMPINIFORM, *adj.* [from the Lat. *pampinus*, a vine, and *forma*, a form.] Having the form of a vine-leaf; belonging to a vessel formed by the spermatie veins.

PAMPINUS, *f.* [Latin.] The tender shoot of a vine.

PAMPISFORD, in Domesday **PAMPESWORDE**, now commonly called **PANSAY**, a small village in the hundred of Chilford, and deanery of Camps, and lies about eight miles nearly south of Cambridge, and nine north-east of Royston. When the survey of Domesday was taken, there were two manors in Pampsworth, one of which belonged to the abbot and convent of Ely, having been given to that monastery by duke Brithnoth, in the year 991; the other was held by two knights, whose names are not mentioned, under Alan earl of Britanny and Richmond: the former manor was alienated from the church of Ely, by Hervey the first bishop, and given to his nephew William de Laventon, chaplain to king Henry I. to be held by him under the abbey by knight's service: in the reign of Edward I. it was in the family of Fitz-ancher, or Fitz-anger, afterwards (temp. Ed. III.) in the Shardelowes. The other manor, being held of the

the honour of Richmond, was possessed by sir Henry Brock, temp. Edward I. sir John de Creek, temp. Edward II. Henry Colville, temp. Henry VII. Thomas Marth, 15 James I. It is probable that the two manors had been united previous to the time of James I. as no later mention is found of more than one, which was afterwards in the family of the Parkers, who became possessed of it about the year 1706; and is now, by inheritance, the property of William Parker Hammond, esq.

The church of Pampisford, dedicated to St. John the Baptist, consists of a nave, north aisle, chancel, and south porch. The nave, chancel, and porch, are tiled; the aisle is leaded. At the west end of the nave is a square embattled tower (crowned with a small leaden spire and weathercock) in which are a clock and four bells. The entrance to the church, through the porch, is by a Saxon doorway, within the arch of which is a row of small rudely-executed figures in bas-relief. The nave is separated from the steeple by a pointed arch, from the aisle by four low pointed arches upon three pillars, two of which are octangular, and the remaining one is round. At the west end is a gallery for singers. This part of the church is lighted on the south by four windows. The first window is divided into two lights by a mullion, part of which is broken off. The lower part of the next window is divided by two mullions, which branch off at the top into six divisions; in this window are some small remains of painted glass. The third window consists of two lights at the bottom and four at the top. The fourth window, which is above the one last mentioned, is of later date. In the middle of the nave lies a large blue slab reaved of its brass. The pulpit and reading-desk are fixed in the north-east corner of the nave, the former is octangular and carved. At the south-east corner is an old pew, carved. The nave is separated from the chancel by a pointed arch, at the top of which is a carved head; under the span of the arch, which is closed up, are fixed the Lord's Prayer, Ten Commandments, and the Creed; and under these is a neat wooden screen. You enter the chancel by two folding-doors, painted in imitation of mahogany. The chancel is lighted on the south by two windows, each divided into two lights by one mullion, which branches off at the top into ramifications. The east window is pointed, and consists of three lower and six upper lights. Near the entrance from the nave is a blue slab robbed of its brasses. Against the north wall is an altar-tomb, once ornamented with brass round the edge; on the south side of the tomb are three shields, but so completely bedaubed with that enemy of antiquaries, whitewash, as to be quite unintelligible. On this tomb stands a chest in which the registers have been kept. The ascent to the altar is by three steps; the table is plain oak. In the north wall of the chancel is a round-headed recess, and in the south wall a trefoil-headed piscina. A pedestal in the east wall for an image. The chancel is open to the roof, which is at present in a state of melancholy neglect. The sparrows from an adjoining farmyard have uninterrupted ingress and egress through the broken tiles.

The improper rectory and advowson of the vicarage, which belonged formerly to the nuns of Blackeburgh, to whom it was appropriated in the year 1377, were, after the reformation, successively in the families of Wood and Tyrrell, and are now the property of John Mortlock, esq. of Cambridge; the parish has been inclosed pursuant to an act of parliament, passed in 1799, by which allotments of land were given in lieu of tithes. By the returns made under the act of parliament for ascertaining the population of this kingdom in 1801, it appears that there were in Pampisford 35 inhabited houses, 46 families, 202 persons: in 1811, 49 inhabited houses, 49 families, 237 persons. *Gent. Mag.* March 1815.

PAMPLIEGA, a town of Spain, in Old Castile: twelve miles south-west of Burgos.

PAMPLO'NA, or PAMPOLU'NA, a city of Spain, and

capital of the province of Navarre, partly situated on a little eminence, and partly in a fertile plain, on the banks of the Arga, near the Pyrenees. It is surrounded on all sides by lofty mountains, at the distance of two or three leagues. This city is said to have been built by Pompey, after the defeat of Sertorius, whence it derived the name of *Pompeopolis*. It is a fortified town, and defended by two castles, one in the town and the other contiguous, though without the walls. This last place, which is the citadel, was built by Philip II. it is strong from its situation on a rock; it has five bastions covered with stone, and good fosses; a deep marsh, of considerable extent, renders the approaches to it difficult towards the side on which it could be attacked. This citadel has a handsome tower, several magazines, a square ornamented with trees, and an armory in the centre of the fortrefs, which is round, and opens by five grand and open streets, which lead to the five bastions. Here is a hand-mill of ingenious construction, that would be useful in case of a siege; it is a large machine, composed of several wheels, which turn five grinding-stones, with as many hoppers; 120 loads, or 360 quintals, of wheat, may be ground with it daily: it is turned with the hand, or may be worked by horses. This town boasts of having been the first in Spain which received the light of the gospel; its bishopric, one of the most ancient in Spain, was re-established after the expulsion of the Moors; it is suffragan to Burgos. The chapter of the cathedral comprehends twelve dignitaries, as many canonries, and forty-four prebends and chaplaincies. There is another chapter in the same cathedral. This town is the residence of the viceroy of Navarre. Its population consists of about 2800 families, composed of nearly 14,000 persons, occupying 1632 houses. In this capital of Navarre the states held their sittings. The college for the instruction of youth is an university, founded in 1608. Pampeluna contains a cathedral, three parishes, nine convents of monks, and two of nuns. The city itself is confined and ill-built, but its streets are kept remarkably clean. There are some squares, two of which have tolerably handsome houses, particularly that which is appropriated to bull-fighting. The commerce consists merely of imports, and its manufactures are few and inconsiderable. Those of parchment and of leather, and another of coarse cloth, are of little importance; here also they make common earthenware, and blanch wax, which they import. This city was recovered from the French, by the English and Spanish armies under the duke of Wellington, Oct. 30, 1813. It is seventy-eight miles north-north-west of Saragossa, and 172 north-north-east of Madrid. Lat. 42. 50. N. lon. 1. 46. W.

PAMPLO'NA, or PAMPOLUNA, a town of South America, in the new kingdom of Grenada: 300 miles north-east of Popayan, and 170 north-north-east of Santa Fé de Bogota. Lat. 6. 30. S. lon. 71. 36. W.

PAMPROU, a town of France, in the department of the Two Sevres: nine miles south-east of Saint Maixent.

PAMPUS, a channel between the Zuyder Sea and Amsterdam.

PAMUNKY, a river of Virginia, now called York River.

PAN, *f.* [from panne, Sax. perhaps from *panis*, Lat. bread or cake.] A vessel broad and shallow, in which provisions are dressed or kept.—This were but to leap out of the *pan* into the fire. *Spenser*.

The pliant brass is laid

On anvils, and of heads and limbs are made,
Pans, cans.

Dryden.

The part of the lock of the gun that holds the powder.—Our attempts to fire the gunpowder in the *pan* of the pistol succeeded not. *Boyle*.—Any thing hollow: as, the brain-*pan*.—He were shoreful high upon his *pan*. *Chaucer's Monk's Prologue*.

To PAN, v. a. An old word denoting to close or join together. *Ainsworth.*

PAN, in mythology, the deity who presided over huntmen, shepherds, and those whose occupations led them to frequent the fields. He was the son of Mercury, by Dryope, according to Homer. Some give him Jupiter and Callisto for parents, others Jupiter and Ybis or Oneis. Lucian, Hyginus, &c. affirm that he was the son of Mercury and Penelope the daughter of Icarius; and that the god gained the affections of the princefs under the form of a goat, as she tended her father's flocks on mount Taygetus, before her marriage with the king of Ithaca. Others maintain that Penelope became mother of Pan during the absence of Ulysses in the Trojan war; and that he was the offspring of all the suitors that frequented the palace of Penelope, whence he received the name of *Pan*, which signifies "all."

Pan was a monster in appearance. He had two small horns on his head; his complexion was ruddy, his nose flat, and his legs, thighs, tail, and feet, were those of a goat. His education was entrusted to a nymph of Arcadia, called Sinoe; but the nurse, according to Homer, terrified at the sight of such a monster, fled away and left him. He was wrapped up in the skin of beasts by his father, and carried to heaven, where Jupiter and the gods long entertained themselves with the oddity of his appearance. Bacchus was particularly pleased with him. When sent back to the earth, Pan chiefly resided in Arcadia, where the woods and the most rugged mountains were his habitation. Though deformed in his shape and features, yet he had the good fortune to captivate Diana, and of gaining her favour, by transforming himself into a beautiful white goat. He was also enamoured of a nymph of the mountains called Echo, by whom he had a son called Lynx. He likewise paid his addresses to Omphale, queen of Lydia; and it is well known in what manner he was received. (See *OMPHALE*.) The worship of Pan was well established, particularly in Arcadia, where he gave oracles on mount Lycæus. His festivals, called by the Greeks *Lyceæ*, were brought to Italy by Evander, and they were well known at Rome by the name of the *LUPERCALIA*.

The worship and the different functions of Pan, are derived from the mythology of the ancient Egyptians. According to them, he was one of the generals of Osiris, who engaged with Typhon, and whose army being situated in a valley, all the avenues of which were guarded by the enemy, he ordered the soldiers in the night to march with loud exclamations, which, being returned in echoes, terrified the enemy, and put them to flight; whence they say comes the expression of *pan-ic* terror. But Bochart pretends that there is no other reason for making Pan the author of those terrors, except that the Hebrew word Pan, or Phan, denotes a man under consternation. Diodorus Siculus says, that Pan was so much honoured by the Egyptians, that his statues were to be seen in all the temples, and that to his honour they had built in Thebais the city of Chemmis, that is, the city of Pan. This author, who takes no notice of Mendes in Lower Egypt, where that god was in high veneration, adds, that he had accompanied Osiris in his expedition to the Indies, together with Anubis and Macedo. We do not learn from Herodotus why the Egyptians represented the god Pan under the figure of a goat; but ancient mythologists assure us, that they were induced to do this, because Pan, having found the gods in Egypt, whither they had fled from the giants, advised them, as the means of preventing their discovery, to clothe themselves with the figures of different animals; and, as a pattern to them, he himself assumed that of a goat.

Upon the whole, all the Greek fables relating to Pan are said to amount to these particulars: that he was one of the eight great gods of Egypt; that he was honoured especially at Mendes; that his worship was brought into Greece by the Egyptian colonies; that he became more

remarkably famous in Arcadia; that Evander made him known in Italy, where he came and settled with his colony some years before the Trojan war; and that at last the worship of this god was received at Rome with the festivals which were celebrated to his honour. Polyænus attributes to Pan the invention of the order of battle of the phalanx, and of the distribution of an army into the right or left wings, or horns, whence, it is said, he derived his horns. The name Pan, which signifies *all*, has led some to make him the symbol of Nature.

Diodorus makes Pan one of the attendants upon Osiris in his Indian expedition. The same author, however, tells us that he was the leader of a troop of fauns and satyrs, or wild and rustic men, much addicted to singing, dancing, and feats of activity, who were presented to Osiris in Ethiopia; and with whom that prince was so much pleased, that he retained them in his service. He was the inventor of the instrument called the syrinx or fistula; which invention has given birth to a fable in Ovid's *Metamorphoses*.

Pan was regarded by the Egyptians, after his apotheosis, as the god who presided over the whole universe, as *Παν*, all, or all things, implies. He represented nature and festivity, and was god of the woods and fields, wholly taken up with the pleasures of a country life; dancing with the fauns and satyrs, and running after the nymphs, to whom he was such a terror, that it is supposed by some the word *panic* is derived from *panici terrores*, with which those who were said to have seen him were seized. Apuleius, however, gives an agreeable description of him. "By chance the god Pan, happened to be seated on a little eminence near a river, and, always constant in his love to the nymph Syrinx, transformed into a reed, he taught her to produce all kinds of agreeable sounds, while his goats were skipping round him, and feeding on the banks."

Lucian describes him as the companion, minister, and counsellor, of Bacchus; a servant of *all work*, having been occasionally employed in the capacity of shepherd, musician, dancer, huntsman, and soldier. In short, he served not only as *maestro di capella*, to direct the Bacchanals, but was so expert in playing upon flutes, and was such an excellent piper on the fistula, that Bacchus was never happy without him. We have the authority of the grave Virgil, and of the sentimental and pious Plato, for his attributes.

PAN, a city of China, of the second rank, in Setchuen: thirty-eight miles south-south-east of Pao-ning. Lat. 31. 2. N. lon. 106. E.

PAN-SIEN-ING', a town on the west coast of the island of Formosa. Lat. 23. 56. N. lon. 119. 52. E.

PA'NA. See PUNA.

PANACE'A, in mythology, one of the divinities of medicine, the daughter of Æsculapius, to whom were rendered divine honours, as well as to his other children, Hygeia, Thelesphorus, and Iaso. Hence,

PANACE'A, *f.* [from the Gr. *παν*, all, and *αιος*, a cure.] An universal medicine.—The chemists pretended, that it was the philosopher's stone; the civilians, that it was the most consummate point of equitable decision; and the physicians, that it was an infallible *panacea*. *Warton's Hist. E. P.*—An herb; called also *all-heal*:

There, whether it divine tobacco were,
Or *panachæa*, or polygony,
She found, and brought it to her patient deare. *Spenser.*

PAN'ACES, *f.* in botany. See *ARALIA*, *HERACLEUM*, and *LASERPITIUM*.

PANAC'MUS, a musician, quoted by Aristides Quintilianus, whose definition of music agrees entirely with that of the Chinese. "Music, (he said) was not only the order and arrangement of sounds proper to regulate the voice, but was likewise the regulator of all the harmony of nature."

PANA'DA,

PANA'DA, or **PANADO**, *f.* [from *panis*, Lat. bread.] Food made by boiling bread in water.—Their diet ought to be very sparing; gruels, *panados*, and chicken-broth. *Wise man's Surgery.*

PANADOU', or **MANADOU**, a bay on the coast of Cape Breton island, near the south part of the gulf of St. Lawrence.

PANÆI, in ancient geography, a people of Thrace, in the environs of Amphipolis.

PANÆTIUS, a celebrated philosopher of the stoic school, who flourished in the second century B. C. was a native of Rhodes, and descended from ancestors who had distinguished themselves in the military transactions of the republic. His inclination leading him to the study of philosophy, he became a disciple of Antipater of Tarsus, an able supporter of the stoic sect; but he did not implicitly admit all the opinions of the Stoics. He disliked the stoic doctrine of apathy; was a great admirer of Plato, whom he called divine, most wise, and most holy; and he freely borrowed opinions and sentiments from philosophers of every sect. From Rhodes he went to Athens, where he maintained the reputation of the school of Zeno, and had many illustrious disciples. His fame having reached Rome, he was induced to visit that city, where his lectures were crowded by the young nobility, and he enjoyed an intimate acquaintance with several eminent Romans, particularly Scipio and Lælius; and Cicero says, that his abilities and accomplishments rendered him highly worthy of their friendship. According to several writers, he accompanied Scipio in some of his expeditions; particularly, when he was nominated ambassador to the kings and nations in alliance with the republic, for the professed purpose of concerting measures for repressing piracy, and correcting abuses that might lead to the interruption of public tranquillity; but with the real design of obtaining information respecting the internal government, sentiments, forces, &c. of the kingdoms and nations which were the objects of jealousy or cupidity to the Roman senate. In this design he is said to have rendered essential service to Scipio; and he employed his interest with this great man, in conferring various benefits on his fellow-citizens at Rhodes. Panætius appears to have spent the latter part of his life partly at Rome, and partly at Athens; and he died at the last-mentioned city, but in what year we are not informed. His works were held in high estimation by the ancients; but no fragments of them have been preserved to modern times. His moral doctrines were, doubtless, excellent, since they are so highly extolled by Cicero. Astrological predictions, and divinations of every kind, he treated with contempt; and he seems to have rejected the doctrine of the immortality of the soul. *Cicero de Off. lib. ii. iv. Enfield's Hist. Phil. vol. i.*

PANA'GIA, a small island in the Grecian Archipelago, hardly a league in circumference: sixteen miles north-west of Santorin. Lat. 36. 39. N. lon. 25. 5. E.

PANA'GIA, a town of European Turkey, in Romania: fourteen miles north of Gallipoli.

PANA'GRA, in ancient geography, a town of Africa, in Libya Interior, upon the northern bank of the Niger.

PANAGUR', a town of Hindoostan, in Gurry Mundella: ten miles north of Gurrâh.

PANA'IA, a town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra: four miles north of Nicotera.

PANAM-PAL'CA, in botany. See **MYRISTICA**.

PAN'AMA, a province of South America, in the viceroyalty of New Grenada, bounded on the north by the Spanish Main, on the east by the province of Darien, on the south by the Pacific Ocean, and on the west by Veragua. This province has been long considered the most important province of Spain. A branch of the Andes runs through its whole length, the higher summits of which are cold and barren, but the intervening valleys, as well as the low ground, on the Caribbean and Pacific

seas, are rich and fertile, but on the eastern side generally unhealthy. From the centre of the ridge of the mountains of Panama the Southern or Pacific Ocean was first discovered by Balbao in 1513; and the province still continues the most easy point of communication between Europe and Peru. This route is accomplished by ascending the river Chagre from its mouth, near which is fort San Lorenzo, to the small town of Cruces, where the river ceases to be navigable. There is then an ascent by a road, practicable only for horses and mules, to the top of the Andes; an ascent so difficult, that some cannon designed for Panama, having been carried there, were found impossible to be removed. The distance from Cruces to the city of Panama is only five leagues; but from the acclivities, and the badness of the road, it requires twelve hours to perform it. The rapidity of the river Chagre is also a serious impediment, when it is full of water, so that this short journey frequently occupies five or six days. Most of the towns and villages of the province of Panama are situated in small plains along the shore, the rest of the country being covered with enormous and craggy mountains, uninhabited on account of their sterility. This province contains three cities, twelve villages, and a great number of *rancherías*, or assemblages of Indian huts. It has also several gold-mines, but they are greatly neglected, the Spaniards choosing rather to apply themselves to the pearl-fishery, which affords a more certain profit, and at the time is acquired with much greater ease.

The isthmus of Panama, if in the possession of an enterprising people, would be a source of immense national prosperity. A canal should be formed that would unite the two seas, with a city at each extremity; and the commercial advantages would be incalculable. At the bottom of the Bay of Panama, there is an archipelago of at least forty-three islands; between the isles Del Rey and Tobago, the sea is perfectly smooth; and not far from the coast lies a bank, pretty considerable, that contains the objects of the pearl-oyster fishery. The oysters here produce pearls of a very fine water; and some of them are remarkable for their size and figure. These were formerly sold in Europe; but, since art has imitated them, and the passion for diamonds has prodigiously diminished the use of them, they have found a new mart more advantageous than the first. Lima is the port to which these pearls are now conveyed, and from thence they are distributed through the provinces of Peru and Chili, where they are held in great estimation.

All such of the inhabitants of Panama and the neighbouring districts as possess the competent means, keep in their employ, negroes that are in the habit of diving for pearls on account of their masters. They are sent to the islands, where tents and boats are provided for their use. Eighteen or twenty of these unfortunate captives, that are expert swimmers, and constitutionally long-winded, are put under the orders of an inspector; and thus they proceed to sea, till they find an oyster-bank, where the water is not deeper than ten or fifteen fathom. Having fixed on an eligible point, they cast anchor; and the negroes, throwing round their bodies a cord fastened to their boats, and loaded with a little weight, to sink the fooser, plunge into the abyss. When at the bottom, they pluck the oysters; and, placing one under the left arm, another in the left hand, a third under their right arm, a fourth in their right hand, and another in the mouth, they ascend to take breath, and stow their oysters in a small sack kept in their boats. Having reposed a little, they plunge again, and so continue their labours, either till they are fatigued, or have procured a sufficient number of oysters. These diving negroes are obliged to furnish daily a certain number of oysters to their masters. When a negro has fished up this number, he opens his oysters in presence of the inspector, and delivers to him the pearls, great or small, perfect or imperfect,

to

to the stipulated number; the surplus belongs to the negro, who sells them commonly to his master at a cheap rate.

Besides the labour and care requisite to detach the oysters from the bottom of the sea, where they often stick among rocks and stones, they have dangers to dread from the tintorellas or taburones, fish of a monstrous size that devour the divers, as well as from an enormous species of ray that gripe the divers so violently as to strangle them, or, by falling on them with all their weight, crush them at the bottom of the sea. The diver frequently takes with him a sharp-pointed knife, wherewith to pierce these fish, and thus extricate himself. The negro inspector that remains in the boat, when the water is clear, will give warning, and often plunge in to the help of the diver. Notwithstanding these precautions, the negroes will sometimes come up with the loss of an arm or a leg, and sometimes they lose their lives in these perilous encounters.

In the aggregate, this traffic in pearls, gives circulation to a capital, the profits of which may be rated at 250,000 piastras.

PANAMA, the capital of the before-mentioned province, is a city and sea-port, built on the isthmus of Darien, at the bottom of a large bay of the Pacific Ocean. The first discovery of Panama is ascribed to Tello de Guzman, who landed here in the year 1515, when he found only fishermen's huts; and, from its peculiar appropriation to this business, it was called "Panama," denoting a place abounding with fish. In 1518, a colony was established here under Pedrarias Davila, governor of Terra Firma; and in 1521 this place was constituted a city. In 1670 it was taken and burned by the English adventurer, John Morgan; and afterwards rebuilt in its present situation, which is much more convenient, about a league and a half from the former. Being at first generally constructed of wood, it was almost wholly destroyed by fire in 1737, and again rebuilt chiefly of stone. Panama was the seat of a royal audience, abandoned in 1752; and by another fire in 1756, and a decline of commerce, it was reduced to a miserable situation. Nevertheless it is still a strong city, the see of a bishop, and contains several churches and convents. The harbour of Panama is formed in its road under the shelter of several islands, where ships lie safe, at the distance of about three leagues from the city. It is slightly fortified, and might be easily taken by any power that possessed naval superiority on the Pacific Ocean. The trade of Panama is at present inconsiderable: the treasure from Peru is indeed in some degree conveyed through it; but the facility with which voyages round Cape Horn are now made, and the freedom of trade which the court of Spain extended in 1786, have reduced its commerce very considerably. Its only remaining trade is with the villages in its jurisdiction, and with the province of Veragua, the goods being received by Portobello, mostly from Carthagena: the vessels from Peru commonly return empty. The neighbouring mountains produce excellent wood, especially the most esteemed mahogany and cedar, with many precious balsams. The royal chest is so poor, that it cannot even pay the garrison, which is now defrayed from Carthagena. The trade with Guayaquil is maintained by an easy and short voyage; the passage of the line being rather accompanied with calms, while in the Atlantic it is esteemed dangerous. This circumstance, as Pinkerton suggests, may have led to the name of the Pacific Ocean, given, by the Spanish conquerors of Mexico and Peru, before Magalhaens had felt its tempests.

This city was almost destroyed by fire, for the fourth time, in the year 1784. At present the number of inhabitants is about 16,000, of whom a very large proportion are negro-slaves; and these, as we have already observed, are chiefly employed in the pearl-fishery. Lat. 8. 58. 12. N. lon. 80. 15. 15. W.

PANAMA'O, one of the Philippine Islands, about fif-

teen miles in circumference, of a triangular form. Lat. 11. 27. N. lon. 124. 15. E.

PANAMAR'IBA, a river of Guiana, which runs into the Atlantic in lat. 6. N.

PANAMBU'-VAL'LI, in botany. See FLAGELLARIA. PANAMGOO'DY, a town of Hindoostan: twenty-five miles south of Tinevelly.

PANA'MOS, a mountain of Peru, in the diocese of Truxillo. It is part of the Andes.

PANANGOO'DY, a town of Hindoostan: eighteen miles south-east of Madura.

PANANICH', a village of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, noted for its medicinal springs: thirty-eight miles west of Aberdeen.

PANA'ON, or PANAHAN, one of the Philippine Islands, about forty-five miles in circumference; mountainous, and watered by a great number of small rivers: it is but thinly inhabited. Lat. 10. 7. N. lon. 125. 12. E.

PANAOUETICK', a river of Canada, which runs into the Saguenay in lat. 48. 24. N. lon. 70. 55. W.

PANA'RA, in ancient geography, a town of Arabia Felix, in the isle of Panchæa.

PANARA'GA, a town of the island of Java, and capital of a kingdom situated on the southern side of the island: sixty miles east of Mataram.

PANARCOU'CHI, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic: sixteen miles Cuddalore.

PANA'RD (Charles-Francis), an ingenious French poet, was born about 1690 at Courville near Chartres. He occupied a small post in a public office, when the actor and comic writer, Legrand, having heard a vaudeville of his composition, found him out, and encouraged him to write for the stage. From that time he became the author of a number of dramatic pieces of the light and humorous kind, which were generally well received, and most of which are still occasionally represented. He also excelled in songs, epigrams, madrigals, and especially in the vaudeville, which is a kind of satirical ballad, very popular in France, and often introduced upon the theatre. His satire was never personal, but was directed against vice and folly in general, without marking out individuals. He had the uncommon art of allying some useful moral to his gayest compositions; and his works are stamped with facility, nature, sentiment, wit, and good sense; but are occasionally negligent, prolix, and incorrect. He was uneducated, and drew all from his own sources. Full of vivacity to an advanced age, philosophical and content with little, he closed his life in 1765, in the seventy-fifth year of his age. The works of this author, under the title of "Théâtre et Œuvres diverses de M. Panard," were printed at Paris in 4 vols. 12mo. 1763. *Necrologe François.*

PANARE'TUS, *adj.* [from the Gr. *παν*, all, and *αρετης*, virtue; but not used.] Containing all virtues. *Cole.*

PANA'RIA, a town of Prussia, in Oberland: five miles south of Libstat.

PANA'RIA, one of the Lipari Islands, situated between Lipari and Stromboli, in the Tuscan Sea. It is only five miles in circumference; and the soil is barren. Lat. 38. 40. N. lon. 15. 21. E.

PANA'RO, a river of Italy, which rises in the south part of the duchy of Modena, and runs into the Po near Bondeno, in the Ferrarese.

PANARUCAN', or PANAROCAN, a town of the island of Java, on the north coast; and capital of a kingdom so called, near the eastern part of the island. The principal commerce is in slaves and long pepper: a considerable number of Portuguese are mixed with the inhabitants. Lat. 7. 30. S.

PANA'SA, or PANASSA, in ancient geography, a town of India, on this side of the Ganges, and on its bank. This is the *Pamnah* or *Parnu*, which see.

PANASRES'TI, a town of Turkish Armenia: twenty-eight miles north-west of Cars, and seventeen south-west of Ardanoudjée.

PAN'AT,

PAN'AT, a town of France, in the department of the Aveyron: seventeen miles south of Rhodéz, and eighteen west of Milhau.

PANATAL'LAH, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Ruttunpour: forty miles north-west of Ruttunpour.

PANATHENÆA, [Greek.] An ancient Athenian festival in honour of Minerva, the protectress of Athens, whom the Greeks called *Athena*. Harpocration and Suidas refer the institution of this festival to Erichthonius IV. king of Athens, who lived before Theseus. Theodoret alone says the feast was established by Orpheus. Be this as it may, till the time of Theseus it was a particular feast of the city of Athens, and was called simply *Athenæa*; but, that prince uniting all the people of Attica into one republic, they afterwards all assisted at the feast; whence the name *Panathenæa*, i. e. the feast of *all* Attica. In effect all Attica was present; as each people sent a bullock for the sacrifices, and for the entertainment of the vast multitude of people assembled.

There were two festivals under this denomination, the greater and the less. The greater panathenæa were exhibited every five years; the less every three, or, according to some writers, annually. The ceremonies were the same in both; excepting that a *peplus*, or banner, wherein the actions of the goddesses were represented in embroidery, performed by maids, with the names of those who had distinguished themselves in the service of the republic; was only borne at the greater festival.

Prizes were established there for three different kinds of combat. The first consisted of foot and horse races; the second, of athletic exercises; and the third, of poetical and musical contests, as noticed under our article MUSIC. These last are said to be instituted by Pericles.

The following is the order observed in the greater festival, according to M. Barthelemi, who quotes numerous authorities on the occasion: "The inhabitants of the different towns of Attica thronged to the capital, leading with them a great number of victims destined for sacrifices to the goddesses. On the first morning were the horse-races, in which the sons of the first citizens of Athens contended for the honour of the victory. In the *stadium* were other young men struggling for the prize at wrestling, and different exercises of the body; and in the *odæum* were several musicians engaged in gentler and less perilous contests. Some executed pieces on the flute or cithara; others sang, and accompanied their voices with one of these instruments. The subject proposed to them was the eulogium of Harmodius, Aristogiton, and Thrasylbulus, who had rescued the republic from the yoke of the tyrants by which it was oppressed: for, among the Athenians, public institutions are so many monuments for the citizens who have served the state, and lessons for those who are called upon to render it service. A crown of olive, and a vessel filled with oil, were the prizes bestowed upon the victors. Crowns were afterwards conferred on individuals who appeared to the people to have merited that mark of honour by their zeal in the service of their country.

"At the Ceramicus passed a procession, formed without the walls, and which began at that place to file off. It was composed of different classes of citizens crowned with chaplets of flowers, and remarkable for their personal beauty. Among the number were old men of a majestic and venerable appearance, bearing branches of olive; middle-aged men, who, armed with lances and with bucklers, seemed only to respire war; youth, from eighteen to twenty, who sang hymns in honour of the goddesses; beautiful boys, clad in a simple tunic, adorned only with their native graces; and, lastly, girls, who where of the first families in Athens, and whose features, shape, and deportment, attracted every eye. With their hands they held baskets on their heads, which, under a rich veil, contained sacred utensils, cakes, and every thing necessary for the sacrifices. Female attendants, who followed them, with one hand held over them an umbrella, and carried

in the other a folding chair. This is a species of servitude imposed on the daughters of all foreigners settled at Athens: a servitude they share in common with their fathers and mothers, who likewise carried on their shoulders vessels filled with water and honey, for the purpose of libations. They were followed by eight musicians; four of whom played on the flute and four on the lyre. After them came rhapsodists singing the poems of Homer; and dancers armed at all points, who, attacking each other at intervals, represented, to the sound of the flute, the battle of Minerva with the Titans. Next came a ship that appeared to glide over the ground by the power of the wind, and the efforts of a great number of rowers, but which really was put in motion by concealed machinery. The vessel had a sail of light stuff, the *peplus*, on which young girls had represented in embroidery the victory of Minerva over the Titans. On it also they had depicted, by order of the government, some heroes whose illustrious deeds had merited to be celebrated with those of the gods. This procession marched on with solemn steps, under the direction of several magistrates; and traversed the most frequented quarter of the city amidst a crowd of spectators, most of whom were placed on scaffolds erected for the occasion. When it had reached the temple of the Pythian Apollo, the *peplus* was taken down and carried to the citadel, where it was deposited in the temple of Minerva." The *peplus*, though here described as a sail, and in a former part of the article as a banner, was in fact a garment, such as was worn by women of distinction at Athens: it was a long robe that reached to the feet, without any sleeves, and so extremely fine, that the shape of the body could easily be discovered through it. With this *peplus*, the statue of Minerva was decorated at the conclusion of the feast.

"In the evening, at the academy, was the torch-race: The course is only six or seven stadia in length. It extends from the altar of Prometheus, which is at the gate of this garden, to the walls of the city. Several young men are stationed in this interval at equal distances. When the shouts of the multitude have given the signal, the first lights his flambeau at the altar, and, running with it, hands it to the second, who transmits it in the same manner to the third, and so successively. He who suffers it to be extinguished can no more enter the lists; and they who slacken their pace are exposed to the raileries, and even blows, of the populace. To gain the prize, it is necessary to have passed through the different stations with success. This trial of skill was frequently repeated, and is diversified according to the nature of the festival.

"The candidates who had been crowned at the different exercises invited their friends to supper. Sumptuous repasts were given in the prytaneum and other public places, which lasted till the following day. The people among whom the immolated victims were distributed spread tables on every side, and gave a loose to their lively and tumultuous mirth." Anarcharis, vol. ii.

PANATHENÆA'IC, *adj.* Belonging to the panathenæa. PANAU'R, or PONEAU'R, a river of Hindoostan, which rises near Ouscotta in Mysore, and runs into the bay of Bengal near Cuddalore.

PANAX, *f.* [a name borrowed from the old Greek botanists, whose *παναξ*, or *πανακς*, was so denominated from *παν*, all, and *ακς*, a medicine, because of its abundant virtues; and appears, by the account in Dioscorides, to have been a broad-leaved umbelliferous plant, though modern writers are not agreed respecting the species. The name therefore being unoccupied, Linnæus very happily adopted it for the Chinese ginseng, that famous restorative and panacea, whose reputed virtues certainly yield in no respect to the ancient *παναξ*, and which is moreover of the umbelliferous order.] GINSENG; a genus of the class polygamia, order dioecia, or rather perhaps pentandria digynia; natural order umbellatæ, *Linn.* (umbelliferæ, *Juss.*) Generic characters—I. Hermaphrodite 4 L Flowers.

Flowers. Calyx: umbel simple, equal, clustered. Involucre many-leaved, awl-shaped, very small, permanent. Perianthium proper, very small, five-toothed, permanent. Corolla: universal, uniform; proper, of five oblong equal recurved petals. Stamina: filaments five, very short, caducous. Antheræ simple. Pistillum: germen roundish, inferior; styles two, small, upright; stigmas simple. Pericarpium: berry cordate, umbilicate, two-celled. Seeds solitary, cordate, acute, plano-convex. II. Male Flowers on a distinct plant. Calyx: umbel simple, globular; with very many equal coloured rays. Involucre composed of lanceolate sessile leaflets, the same number with the external rays. Perianthium turbinate, quite entire, coloured. Corolla: petals five, oblong, blunt, narrow, reflex, placed on the perianthium. Stamina: filaments five, filiform, longer, inserted into the perianthium. Antheræ simple.—*Essential Character.* Umbel: Corolla five-petalled; stamina five. Hermaphrodite: Calyx five-toothed, superior; styles two; berry too-seeded. Male: Calyx entire.

This is the only known genus of the true digynous umbelliferous tribe, whose fruit is pulpy. That very natural order is so liable to occasional variations in the organs of impregnation, or, in other words, so many of its genera or species are, more or less constantly, polygamous, that it is desirable they should all be kept together in the pentandria digynia, to which they properly belong, notwithstanding that difference of structure which is said to exist between the calyx of the male and that of the perfect flowers. Bernard de Jussieu remarked that there are sometimes three styles and three seeds; and his nephew refers *Panax* to his order of *araliæ*, as does Linnæus to his own, nearly equivalent, order of *hederaceæ*. The smooth, very juicy, and usually beautifully-coloured, berries of *Panax*, are peculiar and characteristic. There are ten species.

1. *Panax quinquefolium*, or true Chinese ginseng: leaves tern quinate. Ginseng has a fleshy taper root as large as a man's finger, jointed, and frequently divided into two branches, sending off many short slender fibres. The stalk rises near a foot and a half high, and is naked at the top, where it generally divides into three smaller footstalks, each sustaining a leaf composed of five spear-shaped leaflets, serrate, pale-green, and a little hairy. The stalk is erect, smooth, round, simple, tinged of a deep purple colour. The leaves arise with the flower-stem from a thick joint at the extremity of the stalk: they are generally three, but sometimes more; the five leaves into which each of these are divided are of an irregular oval shape, veined, pointed, smooth, deep green above, on short footstalks, from a common petiole, which is long, round, and almost erect. The flowers grow on a slender peduncle just at the division of the petioles, and are formed into a small umbel at the top; they are of an herbaceous yellow colour, and appear at the beginning of June. The berries are first green, but afterwards turn red; and inclose two hard seeds, which ripen in the beginning of August. Linnæus remarks, that the seeds produce a ternate leaf, without any seed-leaves, like the monocotyledonous plants. Bernard Jussieu sometimes observed three styles in the flower, and three seeds.

Ginseng is a native of Chinese Tartary, from 39 to 49° of latitude. It has been gathered time immemorial in that country. In 1709, the emperor of China gave orders to ten thousand Tartars to go in quest of these roots, and to bring as much as they could find; every one was to give two pounds of the best to the emperor, and to sell the rest for the same weight of fine silver. In this manner the emperor procured twenty thousand *katye*, or Chinese pounds, in one year.

The Chinese name of *yan-sam* or *gin-sem*, and the American of *garantonges* or *garangtonging*, are both derived from the fancied resemblance with the branching root bears to the human figure. The Tartars call it *orhota*, "the most noble, or queen, of plants." Both they and

the Chinese ascribe extraordinary virtues to this root, and have long considered it as a sovereign remedy in almost all diseases to which they are liable, having no confidence in any medicine, unless in combination with it. Osbeck says, that he never looked into the apothecaries' shops, but they were always selling ginseng; that both poor people and those of the highest rank make use of it; and that they boil half an ounce in their tea or soup every morning, as a remedy for a consumption and other diseases. Jartoux relates, that the most eminent physicians in China have written volumes on the medicinal powers of this plant, asserting that it gives immediate relief in extreme fatigue, either of body or mind; that it dissolves pituitous humours and renders respiration easy, strengthens the stomach, promotes appetite, stops vomitings, removes hysterical, hypochondriacal, and all nervous, affections, giving a vigorous tone of body even in extreme old age. Jartoux himself was so biased by eastern prejudice in favour of ginseng, that he seems to give their extravagant effects full credit, and confirms them in some measure from his own experience. It was in the year 1709 that this author made a delineation and description of the real ginseng on the spot, and sent his drawing and description to the Royal Society, who published both in their Transactions, vol. xxviii. Fig. 2, on the Engraving at p. 265, represents this curious plant. A, the root, which, when washed, was white, and a little rugged and uneven, as the roots of other plants generally are. B C D represent the length and thickness of the stalk; which is smooth and pretty round, of a deepish-red colour, except near its beginning at B, where it is whiter, by its nearness to the ground. D is a sort of knot or joint, made by the shooting out of four branches, which all rise from the same centre, and divide from one another at equal distances, and at the same height from the ground. The under side of the branch is green, mixed with white; the upper part is much like the stalk, of a deep red, inclining to the colour of a mulberry. These two colours gradually decrease, and unite together on the sides, in a natural mixture. Each branch has five leaves, as represented in the figure. It is remarkable, that these branches separate from each other at equal distances, as well in respect of themselves as of the horizon, and make with their leaves a circular figure nearly parallel to the surface of the ground. I do not know that ever I saw leaves so large as these, that were so thin and fine: their fibres are very distinguishable, and on the upper side they have some small whitish hairs; the skin between the fibres rises a little in the middle above the level of the fibres. The colour of the leaf is a dark-green above, and a shining whitish-green underneath. All the leaves are serrated, or very finely indented on the edges. From D, the centre of the branches, rises a second stalk, D E, which is very straight and smooth, and whitish from bottom to top, bearing a bunch of round fruit of a beautiful red colour. This bunch was composed of twenty-four berries, two of which I have here drawn, marked g.g. The red skin of the berry is very thin and smooth: it contains within it a white softish pulp. As these berries were double (for they are sometimes found single), each of them had two rough stones, separated from each other, of the size and figure of our common lentils, excepting that the stones have not a thin edge like lentils, but are almost every-where of an equal thickness. Each berry was supported by a smooth, even, and very-fine, sprig, of the colour of those of our small red cherries. All these sprigs rose from the same centre; and, spreading exactly like the rays of a sphere, they make the bunch of berries of a circular form. This fruit is not good to eat. The stone is like the stones of other common fruit; it is hard, and incloses a kernel. It is always placed on the same plane or level with the sprig that bears the berry; from whence it is that the berry is not round, but a little flat on each side. If it be double, there is a kind of depression, or hollow place, in the middle, where the two parts unite. It has also a small beard at top,

top, diametrically opposite to the sprig on which it hangs. When the berry is dry, there remains only a shrivelled skin adhering close to the stones, and is then of a dark red, or almost black colour. This plant dies away, and springs again every year. The number of its years may be known by the number of stalks it has shot forth, of which there always remains some mark; as may be seen in the figures by the letters *bbb*; from whence it appears that the root *A* was seven years old, and that the root *H*, fig. 3, was fifteen.

"After I had designed the root," says Monf. Jartoux, "I observed the state of my pulse, and then took half of a root, raw as it was, and unprepared; in an hour after I found my pulse much fuller and quicker; I had an appetite, and perceived myself much more vigorous, and could bear labour better and easier than before. Four days after, finding myself so fatigued and weary that I could scarcely sit on horseback, a mandarin, who was in company with us, perceiving it, gave me one of these roots; I took half of it immediately, and an hour after I was not in the least sensible of any weariness. I have often made use of it since, and always with the same success. I have observed also, that the green leaves, and especially the fibrous part of them, chewed, would produce nearly the same effect. The Tartars often bring people the leaves of ginseng instead of tea: and I always find myself so well afterwards, that I should readily prefer them before the best tea; their decoction is of a grateful colour, and, when one has taken it twice or thrice, its taste and smell become very agreeable. As for the root, it is necessary to boil it a little more than tea, to allow time for extracting its virtue, as is practised by the Chinese, when they give it to sick persons; on which occasion they seldom use more than the fifth part of an ounce of the dried root. To prepare the root for exhibition, they cut it into thin slices, and put it into an earthen pot, well glazed, with about half a pint of water: the pot is to be well covered, and set to boil over a gentle fire; and, when the water is consumed to the quantity of a cupful, a little sugar is to be mixed with it, and to be drunk; immediately after this, as much more water is to be put to the remainder, and to be boiled as before, to extract all the juice, and what remains of the spirituous part of the root. These two doses are to be taken, the one in the morning, and the other in the evening."

Ginseng was formerly supposed to grow only in Chinese Tartary, affecting mountainous situations, shaded by close woods; but it has now been long known that this plant is also a native of North America, whence M. Sarrafin transmitted specimens of it to Paris in the year 1704; and the ginseng since discovered in Canada, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, by Lafiteau, Kalm, Bartram, and others, appears to correspond with the Tartarian species, and its roots are now regularly purchased by the Chinese, who consider them to be the same with those of eastern growth, which are known to undergo a certain preparation, by which they assume a somewhat different appearance. This plant was first introduced in England in 1740 by that industrious naturalist, Peter Collinson: The dried root of ginseng, as it is imported here, is scarcely as thick as the little finger, about three or four inches long, frequently forked, transversely wrinkled, of a horny texture, and both internally and externally of a yellowish-white colour. To the taste, says Lewis, (Mat. Med.) it discovers a mucilaginous sweetness, approaching to that of liquorice, accompanied with some degree of bitterness, and a slight aromatic warmth, with little or no smell. It is far sweeter, and of a more grateful smell, than the roots of fennel, to which it has by some been supposed similar; and differs likewise remarkably from those roots, in the nature and pharmacæutic properties of its active principles: the sweet matter of the ginseng being procured entire in the watery as well as the spirituous extract, whereas that of fennel-roots is destroyed or dissipated in the inspissation of the watery tincture. The slight aro-

matic impregnation of the ginseng is likewise in good measure retained in the watery extract, and perfectly in the spirituous.

Ginseng has been considered by the Chinese as a powerful aphrodisiac; but a fact to the contrary is alleged by Dr. Cullen in his Mat. Med. vol. ii. p. 261. Highly as the virtues of this root have been extolled by the Chinese, and by others upon their authority, we know of no proofs, says Dr. Woodville, (Med. Bot.) of its efficacy in Europe; and, from its sensible qualities, we judge it to possess very little power as a medicine. Father Loureiro doubts whether the American ginseng be the same with the precious *gin-sen* of the Chinese. He procured seeds from Tartary, but unfortunately on being sowed they did not germinate. He asserts that the efficacy of the Chinese root is very different from that of Canada; that the latter is therefore sold cheaper; and that the shape is so different, that neither medical practitioners nor merchants can mistake them. If therefore our physicians have only used the root which comes from Canada, they have not given the ginseng a fair trial.

2. *Panax attenuatum*, or taper-pointed tree-ginseng: leaves ternate or quinate; leaflets ovate, attenuated, crenate, trunk arborecent. This is a small tree, with round, smooth, unarmed branches. Leaves scattered, alternate, petioled, quinate, very seldom ternate, and still more seldom septenate. Common petioles round, smooth, longer than the leaves, a foot long, sheathing at the base: sheaths half embracing, within the base of the petiole, above free and acuminate. The last pedicels are half an inch long, and one-flowered. Flowers hermaphrodite, all fertile. Allied very nearly to *P. arboreum*. Native of the West Indies; in Guadeloupe, and St. Christopher's.

3. *Panax trifolium*, or small American ginseng: leaves tern ternate. Stem single, not more than five inches high, dividing into three footstalks, each sustaining a trifoliate leaf, with the leaflets longer, narrower, and more deeply indented on their edges, than in the first species. The flower-stalk rises, as in that, from the divisions of the petiole. Native of North America. Mr. Miller had a single plant of it from Maryland, which he lost by drought before it flowered. It is so nearly allied to the first sort, that Linnaeus doubts whether it be any thing more than a variety of that, only much smaller.

4. *Panax aculeatum*, or prickly shrubby ginseng: leaves ternate, the uppermost next the flowers crowded and simple; petioles and branchlets prickly; stem shrubby. This is a shrub with a recurved prickle at the base and at the tip of the petioles. Leaves solitary, ternate, tern at the flowers; with ovate blunt leaflets. Flowers with three styles. Native of China. Cultivated in 1773, by John Pothergill, M.D.

5. *Panax spinosum*, or thorny tree-ginseng: leaves quinate, alternate; spines solitary, below the branches; umbels lateral. Spines stout, very straight, spreading, instead of a leaf, below the abbreviated shoots of the branchlets. The shoots consist of three or four leaves without a branchlet, and among these leaves is a filiform peduncle with a simple umbel; and small white flowers. Leaves wedge-form, produced at the tip, serrate; the lower ones shorter. Native of Japan, where it was found by Thunberg; but is not mentioned in the Flora Japonica, or in his Travels.

6. *Panax arboreum*, or ferrated tree-ginseng: leaves septenate; (quinate-obovate, serrate-toothed, *Forstl.*) umbels compound. Native of New Zealand.

7. *Panax chrysophyllum*, or golden-leaved tree-ginseng: leaves in sevens and nines; leaflets lanceolate, quite entire, tomentose underneath; umbels panicled. This is a lofty tree, with branches the thickness of the thumb at top; these, the leaves underneath, the younger petioles, the branches of the panicle, the calyxes and petals on the outside, are all covered with a fine golden cottony down. Leaves ternate, compound; leaflets umbelled; the younger ones from three to seven inches in length, the lateral

lateral ones gradually less, drawn to a point at each end, especially on the outside, acute, flat, firm, obscurely veined, of a shining golden colour underneath, as in *Chrysophyllum* *Cainito*, smooth and even above; the full-grown ones a foot long, ovate at the base, nerved, obscurely veined, subcoriaceous, even, glaucescent underneath towards the edge, with a somewhat unequal repand edge, very much attenuated. Petioles round; those of the more advanced leaves a foot long, widening at the base: the partial ones three inches long: both smooth: those of the younger leaves shorter. Umbels peduncled: rays commonly eight, sometimes but seldom from nine to thirteen, a quarter of an inch in length, and spreading very much. Flowers small; calyx only a very short superior rim, obscurely five-toothed. Found by Aublet in Guiana, and Ryan in the island of Trinidad.

8. *Panax fruticosum*, or shrubby compound-leaved ginseng: leaves super-decompound, tooth-ciliate; stem shrubby. This is an upright shrub, six feet high, with a thick juicy unarmed stem, and oblique branches. Leaves bipinnate, with an odd one: leaflets lacinate-serrate, smooth: primary petioles long, swelling at the base, embracing, purple, even. Flowers red and green, terminating, in a diffused panicle, ending in umbels, on a long purple striated peduncle; antheræ oblong, two-celled, incumbent, before the flower expands inclosed in the grooves of the petals. Loureiro did not find any male flower. Native of the island of Ternate. Cultivated in China and Cochinchina; where the root and leaves are used in medicine. The plant has a strong smell and penetrating taste. It is reputed to be diuretic, and to be of service in the dropsy, dysury, gonorrhœa, &c.

9. *Panax simplex*, or simple-leaved ginseng: leaves alternate, lanceolate, serrate; umbels compound. Native of New Zealand.

10. *Panax horridum*, or palmate prickly-leaved ginseng: leaves simple, alternate, palmate, serrate, with prickly ribs; stem shrubby, very prickly. Gathered by Mr. Archibald Menzies, at Nootka Sound, on the west coast of North America. The branches are round, leafy, hispid, beset with innumerable yellow prickles, most crowded about the insertion of each leaf. Leaves on long, furrowed, prickly, somewhat-downy, footstalks, heart-shaped, a span wide, deeply-lobed, sharply cut and serrated, of a fine green; smooth and veiny above, paler beneath. Flowers numerous, in a terminal hispid cluster or spike, shorter than the leaves, whose lower branches are much elongated, imperfectly umbellate, bearing many crowded yellowish flowers, chiefly male, their stamens being large and conspicuous, their styles small or deficient. The upper part of the cluster consists of crowded, imperfectly-umbellate, female flowers, each with two rather spreading styles, and blunt simple stigmas, but few or no stamens.

Propagation and Culture. Ginseng has been introduced into the English gardens from America, and where it has been planted in a shady situation and a light soil, and the plants have thriven and produced flowers, and ripened their seeds annually, but not one of these seeds have grown. Mr. Miller says, "I have sown them several years soon after they were ripe without any success; I have also sown the seeds from America several times in various situations, and have not raised a single plant: and by the accounts which the missionaries have sent from China, it appears that they have had no better success with the seeds of this plant; so that I believe there is a necessity for the hermaphrodite plants to have some male plants near them, to render the seeds prolific; for, all those plants which I have seen, or saved seeds from, had hermaphrodite flowers; and, though the seeds seemed to ripen perfectly, yet their not growing, though I have waited three years without disturbing the ground, confirms me in the opinion." This account agrees with that of Loureiro given above; and shows that the flowers, which are apparently

hermaphrodite, are imperfect. It is a strong confirmation of the sexual system, and would be a proper subject of experiment in the countries where this plant grows naturally. See *FERULA*, *HERACLEUM*, *LASERPITUM*, *PASTINACA*, and *THAPSIA*.

PANAY', an island of Asia, and one of the Philippines, lying between those of Paragoa and Negro. It is 180 miles in circumference, and is the most populous and fertile of them all. It is watered by a great number of rivers and brooks, and produces a great quantity of rice. Its shape is triangular. The names of its principal capes are Potos, Naso, and Bulacabi. The middle of the island is in the latitude of ten degrees. On the north side, almost in the middle between the two capes of Potos and Bulacabi, the famous river Panay falls into the sea; and the mouth of the harbour is covered by a small island called *Lutaya*, in which port the Spaniards had a safe retreat before they discovered and conquered Manila and Gavité. The fertility of Panay is caused by the many rivers that water it, for there is no travelling a league without meeting a river; but more particularly by the Panay, which gives its name to the island, and runs a course of forty leagues. The island contains about 16,360 tributary Indians, partly belonging to the king, and partly to particular lords; but they all pay in rice, the island producing 100,000 bushels, Spanish measure, and but little other grain. The inhabitants are stout and lusty, industrious farmers, and expert hunters, the country being full of wild boars and deer. The women make cloth of several colours. Besides the tributary Indians, there are here those blacks the Spaniards call *Negrillos*, who were the first inhabitants of the island, and afterwards driven into the thick woods by the Bisayas who conquered it. Their hair is not so stiff curled, nor are they so stout and strong, as the Guinea blacks: they live in the most uncouth parts of the mountains with their wives and children, all naked like beasts. They are so swift, that they often overtake wild boars and deer. They stay about the dead beast as long as it lasts; for they have no other subsistence but what they acquire with their bow and arrows. Lat. 11. 15. N. lon. 122. 33. E.

PANAYAS', a town of Portugal, in Alentejo: six miles north-west of Ourique.

PAN'BRIDE, a town of Scotland in the county of Angus. In the reign of Malcolm I. a battle was fought here between the Scots and the Danes, in which the latter were defeated with great loss, and their general killed: ten miles east of Dundee.

PAN'CAKE, *f.* Thin pudding dressed in the frying-pan.—A certain knight swore by his honour they were good *pancakes*, and swore by his honour the mustard was naught. *Shakespeare.*

PANCALE, or PANCALIE'R, a town of Italy, on the Po: twelve miles south of Turin, and five south-west of Carmagnola.

PANCAR'PUS, *f.* A sort of spectacle or show, which the Roman emperors frequently exhibited to the people. The word is formed from the Greek παν, all, and καρπος, fruit; whence the name was also given by the Athenians to a sacrifice in which all kinds of fruits were offered.

The pancarpus of the Romans was a kind of chase, or hunt; for the performance whereof, a number of beasts, as hares, deer, bullocks, &c. were shut up in the circus, or amphitheatre; into which trees were frequently transplanted, so as to form a kind of forest, wherein the beasts were let loose; whence the pancarpus was also called *sythua*. The beasts were thus abandoned to the people, i. e. to all who were disposed to share in the pleasures of the chase, who pursued, shot, killed, and cut in pieces, all they could lay hold of. Heliogabalus, the Gordians, and Probus, gave this diversion very frequently; and it continued till the time of the emperor Justinian, in the sixth century.

PANCAW'IR, a town of Hindoostan, in the Malwa country;

country: forty-two miles west-north-west of Kaajegar, and sixty north of Ougein. Lat. 24. 14. N. lon. 76. 6. E.

PANCHÆA, in ancient geography, an island of the ocean, upon the coast of Arabia. According to Diodorus Siculus, it was inhabited by natives of the country, Indians, Cretans, and Scythians. In this island was a town called *Panara*, whose inhabitants, according to Diodorus, were singularly happy. They had a temple of Jupiter Triphylian, of which this author details all sorts of marvellous circumstances. The other three towns were Hiracia, Dabi, and Oceanis. But the existence of such an island is doubtful.

PANCHAGNI, *f.* An expiatory self-inflicted penance resorted to by Hindoo ascetics. The word means "five fires;" and the mode of the penance is for the devotee to look constantly on the sun, with four other fires close to him. Such devotees are called *Tapaswi*, and are described in Hindoo books very circumstantially, but not, we may conclude, very faithfully, as "standing, with uplifted arm, without aid or support, day and night, seeding on air, immovable, on the right toe, on the afflicted earth," &c. See **TAPAS**.

PANCHAMUKI, a name of the Hindoo deity Siva, meaning "five-faced," he being so represented and described in pictures and books. When five-headed, he has usually ten hands.

PANCHAW', a town of Bengal: forty-three miles north-east of Dacca. Lat. 23. 30. N. lon. 85. 38. E.

PANCHBE'YA, a town of Bengal: twenty-seven miles east-south-east of Purneah.

PANCHCOW'RYE, a town of Hindoostan, in Oude: twenty miles south-south-east of Bahraitch.

PANCHDOWNA, a town of Bengal: twenty miles north-east of Dacca.

PANCHGUR'RY, a town of Bengal: fifteen miles north-north-east of Calcutta.

PANCHGUT'CHY, a town of Bengal: ten miles south of Oliapour.

PANCHMOO'L, a town of Bengal: ten miles east of Rogonathpour.

PANCHPAR', a mountain of Bengal, north of Noony.

PANCHPA'RA, a town of Bengal: fifteen miles north-north-east of Bussunpour.

PANCHPE'ER, a town of Bengal: eight miles south of Oliapour.

PANCHREST, *f.* [from the Gr. *παν*, all, and *χρηστος*, useful.] A panacea, or remedy for all distempers.

PANCHRESTARIL, *f.* Among the Romans, were those who prepared the *panchrest*, or universal remedy.

PANCHRUS, *f.* The name given by some of the ancient writers on natural history to a gem which they say has all colours: probably the opal.

PANCHYM'AGOGUE, *f.* [from the Gr. *παν*, all, *χυμος*, juice, and *αγειν*, to draw off.] A purging extract made from aloes, rhubarb, senna, scammony, jalap, agaric, coloquintida, and black hellebore. Its name arises hence; that, being a composition of all the kinds of purgatives, it was supposed to have the virtue of purging all the sorts of humours from the body at once.

PANCIAT'ICA, *f.* in botany, so named by Piccioli, author of the *Hortus Pantiaticus*, published at Florence in 1783, in compliment to his patron the marquis Niccolò Panchiaticchi, president of the Academy of the Georgofili, and owner of the garden. See **CADIA**.

PANCIRO'LI (Guido), a very learned jurist and antiquarian, son of Alberto Panciroli, also an eminent lawyer, was born at Reggio in 1523. After he had acquired a proficiency in classical literature in his native place, he went to Ferrara for the study of jurisprudence. He successively pursued the same study at Pavia, at Bologna, and finally at Padua. In the latter university his reputation stood so high, that in 1547, while yet a scholar, he was chosen to the second extraordinary chair of the Institutes.

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After having graduated, he was promoted in 1554 to the first chair of the same, and in 1556 he was appointed to the second professorship in ordinary of civil law. This post he held till 1570, when he accepted an invitation from Emanuel Philibert, duke of Savoy, to occupy the chair of law at Turin, with a liberal salary. He continued in that university, till the air of the place had almost destroyed the sight of one eye and endangered the other; when, having with difficulty obtained his dismissal, he returned in 1582 to Padua. The first chair of civil law, with a stipend of 1200 crowns, was there assigned to him; and, notwithstanding the wishes of popes Gregory XIV. and Clement VII. to obtain his professional services at Rome, he preferred the freedom and tranquillity of his situation at Padua, where he died in 1599. He was author of a number of learned works, of which the principal are as follow: 1. *Commentarii in Notitiam utriusque Imperii et de Magistratibus*. This was not only printed separately, but also in the *Roman Antiquities* of Grævius. 2. *De Numismatibus antiquis*. 3. *De Quatuordecim Regionibus Urbis Romæ*. 4. *Rerum Memorabilium jam olim perditarum, et contra recens atque ingeniose inventarum*, lib. ii. 5. A valuable treatise, which was not published till the year 1637, entitled *De Claris Legum Interpretibus*. This, although interspersed with many popular errors, is considered as highly useful in tracing the vicissitudes of jurisprudence, and contains a copious store of curious notices, extracted from the works of the old lawyers, and other authentic monuments. Upon the whole this author displays more erudition than judgment or scientific knowledge. He also left behind him several works in manuscript, which have not yet seen the light. *Gen. Biog.*

PAN'CLA, a mountain of Thibet. Lat. 29. 22. N. lon. 87. 14. E.

PANCO POINT, a cape on the north coast of Java. Lat. 6. 48. S. lon. 112. 44. E.

PANCO'CA, a town of Peru, in the diocese of La Plata: thirty miles south of Potosí.

PANCOR'VO, a town of Spain, in Old Castile, near some mountains called *Pennas de Pancorvo*: four miles west of Mirando de Ebro.

PANCO'VIA, *f.* [so named by Willdenow, in memory of *Thomas Pancovius*, a Berlin botanist, who died in 1665 at the age of 43, having published, in 1654, a quarto volume entitled *Herbarium portatile*, with 1363 wooden cuts, which has since been re-published.] In botany, a genus of the class heptandria, order monogynia, natural order lamentaceæ, *Lim.* (leguminosæ, *Juss.*) Generic characters—Calyx: perianthium of one leaf, bell-shaped, inferior, in four deep, ovate, rather unequal, segments. Corolla: petals four, rather smaller than the calyx, hooded, toothed, plaited, and crisped, their claws inserted into the receptacle, at the base of each segment of the calyx. Stamina: filaments seven, awl-shaped, ascending, hairy half-way up, inserted into the receptacle between the two longer segments of the calyx, and twice their length; antheræ oblong, incumbent. Pistillum: not observed by Willdenow, who found in place of it a glandular depressed body. Isert, who discovered the plant, noted a solitary pistil. Pericarpium and seeds unknown.—*Essential Character*. Calyx bell-shaped, in four deep segments. Petals four, hooded, plaited, crisped, and toothed; with claws. Stamens ascending, longer than the calyx.

Pancovia bijuga, a single species. Native of Guinea. A tree with round branches; the young ones clothed with rusty down. Leaves alternate, abruptly pinnate, of two pair of stalked, coriaceous, elliptical, entire, smooth, veiny leaflets, each terminating in an elongated blunt point. Flowers downy, on downy stalks; bractes ovate, obtuse, densely downy, shorter than the flower-stalks.

PAN'CRAS, an extensive parish in Middlesex, situated north of London, commencing about one mile from Holborn Bars. It not only includes one-third of the

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hamlet

hamlet of Highgate, but the hamlets of Kentish-town, Battle-bridge, Camden-town, Somers-town, as well as all Tottenham-court-road, and all the streets to the west, as far as Cleveland-street and Rathbone-place. It comprises about 2700 acres of land, including the site of buildings. It is bounded by the parishes of Islington, Hornsey, and Finchley, on the north; by Hampstead and Mary-le-Bone on the west; by St. Giles's in the Fields, St. George the Martyr, St. George's Bloomsbury, and St. Andrew's Holborn, on the south; and by St. James's, Clerkenwell, on the east.

The increase of houses in this parish within the last forty years has excited the astonishment of all persons who can recollect its condition previous to that period: for then, as we are credibly informed, there were but two houses between the Foundling-hospital and the old church; whereas the whole distance, about a mile, is now covered with well-built streets. The first augmentation of much consequence happened in the neighbourhood of Tottenham-court road, about the year 1765, when all the streets near Percy-chapel were built. Somers-town was begun in 1786, Camden-town in 1791, Fitzroy-square in 1793, Brunswick-square in 1797, Tavistock-square about 1800, and Euston-square since that time. Of these, however, Brunswick-square is the only one that is finished; Fitzroy-square never will be completed according to the original plan.

Kentish-town has been enlarged more than two-thirds within these twenty-five years, and a considerable number of streets have been built between Brunswick and Russell squares, and the New Road. Many houses have likewise been added at Battle-bridge; and hence this parish is now by far the most populous of any in the vicinity of London. According to the late parliamentary returns (1811), it contained 6743 houses, and 46,333 inhabitants; and it is generally supposed that the forth-coming returns for the present year (1820), will carry the numbers up to 60,000.

Pancras is said to have been a parish before the Conquest; and is mentioned in Domesday-book. It derived its name from the saint to whom the church is dedicated. That edifice is of very ancient date, and is certainly the smallest parochial church in London or its vicinity: it consists only of a nave and chancel, with a low tower at the west end, crowned with a dome: it is built of stones and flint, since covered with plaster. Norden, who wrote his *Speculum Britannie* about the end of Elizabeth's reign, describes the church as "standing all alone, utterly forsaken, old, and weather-beaten;" and, in some MS. additions to his work now in the possession of Mr. Nichols, he adds, "Although this place be, as it were, forsaken of all, and true men seldom frequent the same but upon devyne occasions; yet it is vifited by thieves, who assemble there, not to pray, but to waite for praye; and men fall into their handes clothed, that are glad when they are escaped naked. Walke not there too late." It has been lately ascertained, that this church was built about the latter end of the fourth century: the date was found at Rome some years ago by the Rev. Dr. Champneys, a former vicar. The church contains some very old tablets and monuments. One in brass, in German text, is as follows: "At this puees end here lyeth buried Marye Beresford, the daughter of Alexander Glover, of Tottenham Courte, and the deare and well-beloved wife of John Beresford, Gentleman and Barester, of Grayes Inne, who departed this life the 21 day of August, in the yeare of our Lorde God 1588, whose soule is with God, for she trusted in the Lorde, and reposed her salvation wholye in Jesus Christ, in whome is all peace and rest, all ioye and consolation, all felicity and salvation, and in whome are all the promyses, yea and amen." There are some very ancient, without name or date. We shall copy one more: "A memoriall both to Daniell Clarke, esq. who left this life most comfortable the last of June 1626, Anno Etat. sue 79, having been Master Cooke to Queene Elizabeth

and to King James 29 yeare, called to that place betimes for his worthines, beloved there and elsewhere for his honest heart and open hand; and also of Katherine, his good and loving wife, who left this life the 24 of June 1613, A^o Etat. sue 50.

Reader, before this monumental stone
Two bodies lye interr'd that once were one;
Whom Death did for a time divorce,
But now hath married coarfe to coarfe.
Their ashes meete in death, and have
For their new marriage-bed the grave;
A third they yet expect, that fate
Nor time nor force shall violate,
Wher both shall married and unmarried bee,
Not to themselves but to eternitie.
Then sleep ye happy ashes there,
Nor let a groane, a sigh, or teare,
Disturbe your rest, till the glad noyse
Of the world waking trumpitts voyse
Raife you from this dead sleep, and call
Your dust from this sad funerall,
To wed their souls, and soul and body bring
Unto the marriage of their Lambe and King."

In this church and in the surrounding cemetery, are buried most of the Roman Catholics who die in the metropolis, among whom are several eminent French refugees. Here also rest the ashes of Jeremy Collier, the pertinacious non-juror; and William Woollet, the celebrated engraver, whose monument, in the cloisters of Westminster-abbey, is criticised under our article LONDON, vol. xiii. p. 557.

The church-yard was enlarged in 1793, by the addition of a large piece of ground to the south-east, in which is to be seen the monument of Mrs. Godwin, (the celebrated Mary Woolstonecraft;) the author of the *Rights of Woman*, and of other publications which excited general attention: she died in child-bed, September 10, 1797, in her forty-ninth year. Here likewise were buried the Rev. Arthur O'Leary; the celebrated Corsican general Paoli, who died in 1807, aged eighty-two years; the Chevalier d'Eon, 1810, aged eighty-three years; Mr. Edwards, author of a *Treatise on Perspective*; Tiberias Cavallo, a well-known writer on subjects of Natural Philosophy; Mr. John Walker, author of the *Pronouncing and Rhyming Dictionaries*; and many other persons of eminence for their actions or their writings.

The deficiency in the size of the parish-church has been in some degree supplied by chapels distributed in different quarters: the principal of these are—Kentish-town chapel; Percy-chapel, near Tottenham-court-road; Fitzroy-chapel; Woburn-chapel; Bethel-chapel, at Somers-town; St. James's Chapel; and St. Giles's chapel, belonging to the parish of St. Giles's in the Fields. The large Methodist-chapel in Tottenham-court-road, called Whitfield's Tabernacle, is also within this parish: it contains a monument commemorating his pious labours. Several burying-grounds annexed to other parishes are likewise locally situated in Pancras; as the cemeteries of St. Andrew, Holborn, St. George the Martyr, and St. George's Bloomsbury.

At length it has been thought proper to build a new church in a more central part of the parish. This edifice, which is now pretty well advanced, will form the south-east side of Euston-square, the New Road dividing it from the north-west side. It is of plain Grecian architecture, and will be capable of containing upwards of four thousand persons. We have been favoured with a drawing of the church, as it is to be when completed, which is represented on the annexed Engraving. The portico, which fronts the west, is copied from the Erechtheum, or Temple of Neptune Erechtheus, at Athens; (see *ATHENS*, vol. ii. p. 468.) The tower is to resemble that of the Temple of the Winds; and the entrance to the vaults is to have cypress pillars after the manner of some



St. Pancras new Church.

some other Greek temple, whose name has not reached us. The turreted house to the right of the spectator, is the residence of Mr. Inwood, the architect.

The first stone of the building was laid by his Royal Highness the Duke of York, on the 1st of July, 1819; and on that stone was the following inscription:

ΜΑΚΑΡΙΟΦΩΣΕΥΑΛΛΕΛΙΟΥΟΥΤΟΣΑΕΙ
ΦΟΤΙΖΟΙΤΟΣΕΘΝΟΝΑΦΑΝΕΙΣΝΕΟΣ

Which in modern Greek characters would read thus; *Μακαριω φως ευαγγελιστης εστις αει φωτιζων τους εθνας αφανεις νεως*. In English, "May the light of the blessed Gospel thus ever illuminate the dark temples of the Heathen." Our readers would probably think this a very proper inscription for a Heathen temple converted into a Christian church; or even for a Christian church founded upon the site of a Heathen temple; but would be at a loss to understand the meaning of it under the present circumstances, or see the propriety of an inscription in Greek, and still less for putting it in antique characters. We must therefore inform them, that the inscription was copied from one of the Heathen Greek temples we have mentioned, which has been converted into a Christian Greek church: but what this has to do with St. Pancras remains to be proved. The following English lines were intended to accompany the representation of the building engraved from the architect's original drawing:

In chaste magnificence God's temple stands,
The blended effort of Man's mind and hands:
O thou who gav'st him both—to whom he owes
A nobler tribute than earth's bosom shows—
Accept his off'ring, as an outward part
Of infelt love,—an earnest of the heart!
And, when within its walls thy awful Name
Shall sanctify his lips, oh! let the flame
Of holiest gratitude inspire his pray'r
With fervours angels need not blush to share;
Here may thy special presence win each breast
To seek and find—joy, purity, and rest!

At a small distance beyond the old church, on the way to Kentish-town, stands the workhouse, built in 1814. It is a noble brick building; and perhaps it will be difficult to find such another workhouse in the kingdom. At the back part, at a little distance, is the infirmary. The parish is governed by a select vestry, of which the vicar is president. The Rev. James Moore, LL.D. is the present vicar, who is universally esteemed, as one of the ablest advocates of all charitable institutions; and is one of the most learned, energetic, and eloquent preachers of the present day.

Many public institutions, for charitable and other purposes, are situated within this parish. Some of them, as the Foundling Hospital and the Welsh charity-school, have been noticed under the article LONDON, vol. xiii. p. 587-9. The Hospital for Inoculation, and the Natural Small Pox Hospital, are situated in a field close to Battle-bridge turnpike. Both these excellent charities were founded in 1746; but the present buildings were only erected, the former in 1765, and the latter in 1793. The building consists of a main body and two wings, with a cupola, raised on a turret of six sides, in the centre. Here is also an Hospital for Typhus and Scarlet Fever.

At Camden Town, in this parish, stands the Veterinary College, a new and singular institution in this country, established in the year 1792, under the auspices of persons of the first rank and fortune in the kingdom. The design is for the improvement of farriery and the treatment of cattle in general; but perhaps it is more immediately intended to promote a reformation in that particular branch of veterinary science called farriery; and to regulate the management and cure of disorders incident to

horses, and frequently the lives of those truly-valuable animals, from the hands of the unskilful and illiterate. It is calculated also to render that a respectable profession, which has hitherto been considered a disreputable occupation, beneath the study and attention of men of liberal education.

It is stated in "Boardman's Dictionary of the Veterinary Art," that the public are indebted for this truly national foundation to the humanity, discernment, and patriotic exertions, of a country agricultural society, that of Odiham in Hampshire; and that the first professor of it was a Frenchman of the name of St. Bel, or Sainbel, who had previously distinguished himself as a veterinary anatomist and writer in this country, by dissecting and describing different parts of the famous race-horse Eclipse, so much known and admired for his swiftness.

The college is chiefly supported by public subscription; the annual contribution is two guineas, but the payment of twenty guineas at one time constitutes a member for life. And in some instances the institution has shared the bounty of parliament; an important saving having resulted to the nation from the appointment of veterinary surgeons to the different regiments of British cavalry, in consequence of it.

The late duke of Northumberland was the first president of the college. There are likewise, eleven vice-presidents, twenty-four directors, a treasurer, professor, secretary, and collector. The president, vice presidents, and ten of the directors, the treasurer and collector, are chosen annually, by ballot. The entire management of the college is in the council, which consists of the president, vice-presidents, and directors; subject to the controul of four quarterly general meetings of the subscribers. The building extends in front 170 feet, and consists of a house for the professor and secretary; apartments for the pupils; committee-rooms, &c. In the plan likewise was included an amphitheatre, a museum, a laboratory, a room for pharmacy, an operating-room, a forge, very commodious stabling for 500 horses, a spacious riding-house, a botanical garden, &c. The depth of the building is 650 feet.

Dr. Colman is the professor who gives lectures in this college. The anatomical structure of quadrupeds and other animals, such as horses, cattle, sheep, dogs, and others, the diseases to which they are subject, and the remedies proper to be applied, are investigated and regularly taught; by which means, enlightened practitioners of liberal education, whose whole study has been directed and devoted to the veterinary art in all its branches, may be gradually prepared, provided, and dispersed over the whole kingdom, on whose skill and experience confidence may be securely placed.

Pupils to the college, in addition to the lectures and instructions of the professor, and the practice of the stables, enjoy the great advantage of free admission to the medical and anatomical lectures of the metropolis. These pupils, previous to leaving the college, are strictly examined by a medical committee, from whom they receive a proper certificate; and several, examined and approved, have, it is said, already left the college, and are at this time practising in various parts of the country with great success. Subscribers have the privilege of sending their diseased animals to the college, without further expense than that of their daily food; and these, in general, form a sufficient number of objects for the practice of the professor and pupils to be tried and exercised upon. On fixed days, the professor prescribes for animals belonging to subscribers who find it inconvenient to spare them from home, provided the necessary medicines be furnished and compounded at the college. Subscribers' horses are there also shod at the ordinary price, and new improved modes of shoeing practised in different cases.

His royal highness the commander-in-chief having been pleased to appoint a board of general officers to take into consideration the objects of this institution, they reported

the continual loss of cavalry to have been very heavy, in consequence of the almost total ignorance of those who have hitherto had the veterinary department in the army. This report his majesty approved; and henceforward, to qualify for the military service, a veterinary surgeon must be provided with a regular diploma from this college. A number of gentlemen, subscribers to the institution, attend once a fortnight, for the purpose of inspecting the discipline of the stables, and seeing that the regulations are duly complied with.

These form the most material objects and regulations of the establishment; from which it is evident, that it is capable of being of great use and advantage, if properly directed, and confined to the points which it has principally in view. We are informed, moreover, that a volume of the Transactions of the Society are published annually, and presented gratis to each subscriber.

In different parts of the parish are various sets of almshouses, and sundry charity-schools, among which we may mention the national school for 800 children near Euston-square, and one at Kentish-town for 200. The female charity-school in the Hampstead-road, supported by voluntary contributions, contains 70 girls, who are entirely clothed, boarded, and educated. A national school is now in progress near Brewers-street, Somers-town, which will accommodate 300 girls and as many boys.

At the top of Tottenham-court-road, where the King's-head public house now stands, there was a palace of king John's, but of which there are now no remains. And at Kentish Town, near the Castle-tavern, is the building (now a private house) which was formerly king John's dog-kennel.

Two miles from Tottenham-court-road, towards Hampstead, on the left hand, is Chalk-farm, of duelling notoriety.

The Regent's Canal passes through this parish from the Regent's Park to White Conduit House, where the tunnel begins, which goes under Islington on its way to the Thames. Its course is between Camden and Kentish Towns: there are six bridges and two locks in the distance of one mile. See the article PADDINGTON, p. 183.

The barracks lately erected for the reception of the life-guards are in this parish: they are situated on the banks of a branch of the canal which runs up to the basin at the Jew's Harp, near Portland Place.

At a place called the Brill, on which part of Somers-town is built, was an entrenchment, supposed by Dr. Stukeley to have been the camp of Julius Cæsar; but others think it by far more modern, and nobody knows to whom it really belonged.

Bagnigge-wells, situated in this parish, has been noticed under ISLINGTON, vol. xi. Another mineral spring near Pancras-church was formerly in great repute, but is now abandoned. The water of this spring was similar in its properties and effects to that of St. Chad's Well, near Battle-bridge, which is still held in considerable estimation for its diuretic and aperient qualities.

Caen-wood or Ken-wood, the beautiful seat of the earl of Mansfield, is situate at the northern extremity of the parish, between Hampstead and Highgate. The mansion, though hidden from the notice of passengers on the road, is delightfully and fantastically situate in the wood by which it is completely surrounded. The pleasure-grounds and gardens are most tastefully laid out; the judicious arrangement of wood, water, and pleasure-ground, make it indefinably beautiful. It is impossible to do it justice in description; it is a perfect terrestrial paradise, and must be seen before it will appear credible that there should be such a charming and retired spot so near London, the distance being little more than three miles. This place was purchased, in 1755, of the earl of Bute, by the first earl of Mansfield, then attorney-general, who improved the whole, with great elegance, after the designs of the celebrated architects of the Adelphi. The grand front, which is near the side of the road leading from Highgate

to Hampstead, is opposite the wood that gives name to the house. The garden-front, which is more extensive than the other, commands a fine view of rich meadows, falling in a gentle descent, and relieved by some noble pieces of water, (the reservoirs of the Hampstead water-works,) that supply part of the metropolis: this view is terminated by the spires of London, and the distant hills of Kent. The most remarkable room in the house is the library, a beautiful apartment, sixty feet by twenty-one, designed by Adam, and ornamented with paintings, by Zucchi. In this room is a whole-length of the first earl by Martin, and a fine bust of him by Nollekens. There is another bust of his lordship, when young, in the hall; one of sir Isaac Newton; and the antique bust of Homer, which was bequeathed to the first lord Mansfield by Pope. In the breakfast-parlour, is a bust of Pope, and a portrait of sir Christopher Hatton. In the other rooms are some portraits, well deserving of notice; particularly those of Pope, Garrick, the duchess of Queensberry, and a good head of Betterton, the tragedian, said to be by Pope, who had been instructed in the art of painting by his friend Jarvis; two landscapes, supposed by Claude; a piece by Teniers; and Wilkie's Village Politicians. Here, too, are some fine portraits, among which is the picture of lord Mansfield, by sir Joshua Reynolds, from which a well-known engraving has been made. The music-room was painted by Julius Ibbetson, and exhibits, in panels, the various operations of agriculture, (fancifully represented as carried on by unattired children,) interspersed with views in North-Wales, sweetly delineated. The pleasure-grounds, including the wood which gives name to the place, contain about fifty acres. The situation is naturally beautiful; and the hand of art has been successfully employed in making them still more picturesque. On the right of the garden-front of the house, is a hanging-wood of tall spreading trees; and, on the left, the rising hills are planted with clumps, that produce a pleasing effect. A fine shrubbery immediately before this front, and a serpentine piece of water, render the whole a very enlivening scene. Hornsey great woods, held by the earl of Mansfield under the bishop of London, join this estate on the north, and have been lately added to the inclosures. It must be here noticed, as a circumstance of local interest, that Venner, the fanatic, who created a disturbance at the head of the fifth monarchy-men, in January 1661, sought a retreat with his followers, for a short time, in Ken Wood.

Near this place, at Highgate, is Holly Lodge, the beautiful seat of Mr. Coutts, the banker. *Wilkes's British Directory*, vol. v. *Wakefield's Perambulations in London*. *Ambulator*. *Lambert's Hist. of London*, vol. iv. *Lisbon's Environs of London*, vol. iii. 1795. and *Supplement*, 1811. *Private Communications*, Nov. 1820.

PANCRA'TIAN VER'SE, the name of a sort of Greek verse, consisting of two trochees and a supernumerary syllable: *Πενταχορδα*. It is so called from its supposed inventor Pancrates, who is said to have lived in the time of Alexander the Great.

PANCRA'TIC, or PANCRA'TICAL, *adj.* [from the Gr. *παν*, all, and *κρατος*, power.] Excelling in all the gymnastic exercises.—He was the most *pancratical* man of Greece, and, as Galen reporteth, able to persist erect upon an oily plank, and not to be removed by the force of three men. *Brown*.—Arrived to a full *pancratick* habit, fit for combats and wrestlings. *Hammond*.

PANCRA'TIUM, *f.* [Greek; compounded of *παν*, all, and *κρατος*, I overcome.] Among the ancients, a kind of intermixed exercise, consisting of the *ludia*, or wrestling, and the *pugilate*, or boxing. The pancratium was the third gymnastic exercise, and was not introduced till long after the others. The people, who were engaged in these exercises, were called *pancratiastæ*; which name was also given to such as did not confine themselves to one exercise, but succeeded in several different ones.

As this exercise partook both of the *castus* and the *pala*,

as we learn from both Aristotle and Quintilian, the athlete borrowed many things from each of these sciences to render himself eminent in the pancratium. It was necessary for him to learn how to trip, and strike, and box, and grapple with his antagonist; to stand with firmness, fall with advantage, and rise with vigour and celerity, or maintain the combat upon the ground; to attack and to defend, to annoy and resist his enemy in every attitude; and to employ in one or other of those purposes every limb, nerve, and sinew, all the faculties and all the strength of his whole body, which is implied in the word *pancratium*; and this term gives the best account of an exercise, in which the combatants were allowed (under certain restrictions) to make what use they thought proper of all the arms which nature had given them, both offensive and defensive, and of only those: for neither (as in the *causus*) were their hands and fingers bound up or armed, nor their legs and feet prohibited from joining in the battle, nor were they constrained from striking, as in the *pala*. With no further arms than those, however, they were able so to mangle and injure one another, that it was thought proper to subject them to some restraints; lest a contest, in which they engaged for victory and honour, should be disgraced by murder or malice, and the combatants be provoked to encounter one another in a manner more becoming beasts than men. An athlete was therefore forbidden to kill his adversary designedly, to dig or pluck out his eyes, to tear him with his teeth, or strike him under the ribs with the ends of his fingers; but, notwithstanding these restrictions, scope enough was left for the combatants to exercise their skill and strength, their courage and resolution; because it was a common practice for a pancratiast to choke the strength and skill of his antagonist by twisting and entangling himself about his legs and arms; and to endeavour by fatigue, and pain, and suffocation, to worry him into a surrender of the victory. The pancratium was forbidden by the Spartan legislator, whilst he allowed and encouraged many contests no less rude and bloody; for, the law of these exercises requiring that one of the two combatants should yield, either in words, or by stretching out his hand or finger, or by giving some other testimony of his so doing, Lycurgus forbade his Spartans to engage in them, because, as he said, he would not have them accustom themselves to yield the victory, not even in sport. The combatants in these exercises were naked; and, as it was necessary to pair them, this, we may suppose, was done by lot. Pausanias speaks of a pancratiast named Sostratus, who had an easy method of obtaining the victory in these contests: his custom was to seize fast hold of his adversary's fingers, which he broke, and never quitted his hold till they renounced the contest. This method gained him twelve Isthmian and Nemean, two Pythian, and three Olympic, crowns, together with a statue at Olympia, and the surname of Acro-Cherites. *West's Pindar*, vol. iii. *Anachar-sis*, vol. iii.

PANCRA'TIUM, *f.* [of Pliny and Dioscorides; from *πας*, all, and *κρῆλος*, power; i. e. an herb of every virtue.] In botany, a genus of the class hexandria, order monogynia, natural order of spathaceæ, (narcissi, *Juss. lilia*, *Roy.*) Generic characters—Calyx: Spathe oblong, obtuse, compressed, opening on the flat side, shrivelling. Corolla: Petals six, lanceolate, flat, inserted into the tube of the nectary on the outside above the base. Nectary one-leafed, cylindric-funnel-form, coloured at top, with the mouth spreading, and twelve-cleft. Stamina: Filaments six, awl-shaped, inserted into the tips of the nectary, and longer than they are; antheræ oblong, incumbent. Pistillum: Germen bluntly three-cornered, inferior; style filiform, longer than the stamens; stigma blunt. Pericarpium: Capsule roundish, three-sided, three-celled, three-valved. Seeds several, globular.—*Essential Character*. Petals six; nectary twelve-cleft; stamina placed on the nectary.

This genus consists of perennial plants with very large

bulbous roots, from whence proceed long leaves, some very narrow, others broad, and a strong straight upright scape from one to three feet high, terminated by a large spathe, bursting on one side, and disclosing in some of the species many, in others only one or two, white flowers of great elegance and fragrance. There are fifteen species, six of which have been described by Mr. Salisbury in the 2d vol. of the *Linn. Transf.* 1791.

1. *Pancratium Zeylanicum*, or Ceylonese pancratium: spathe one-flowered, petals reflex. This has a pretty large bulbous root. Leaves long and narrow, of a greyish colour, and pretty thick, standing upright. The stalk rises among them a foot and a half high, naked, sustaining one flower at the top. Nectary large, cut at the brim into many acute segments. Stamens long, and turning towards each other at their points, in which it differs from the other species. The flower has a very agreeable scent, but is of short duration. Native of Ceylon. Cultivated by Mr. Miller in 1739.

2. *Pancratium Mexicanum*, or Mexican pancratium: spathe two-flowered; stem or scape a long span in height, round, forked towards the top, or dividing into two peduncles, with two oblong, tender, membranaceous, greenish leaflets, and terminated each with a white flower, divided to the very base into six narrow segments; in the middle of these is a white bell-shaped tube, which Linnaeus names the nectary, more tender than the petals; the mouth angular, and from each angle putting forth a filament, long, slender, and white, terminated by an oblong, incurved, saffron-coloured anther. The flowers have no smell, and shrivel up over the fruit. Leaves four, reclining, smooth, pale-green, and somewhat glaucous; rigid, slightly grooved in the middle, and with a single streak on each side, otherwise veinless; a long span or a little more in length, an inch and a half in width, produced to a point at the end. It flowers in May, from bulbs brought from Mexico.

3. *Pancratium Caribæum*, or Caribean pancratium: spathe many-flowered, leaves lanceolate, segments of the corolla linear, and longer than the tube; leaves about a foot long and two inches broad, having three longitudinal furrows. The stalk rises about a foot high, then divides like a fork into two small footstalks, or rather tubes, which are narrow, green, and at first encompassed by a thin spathe, which withers, and opens to give way to the flowers: these are white, and have no scent. Native of the West Indies. Dr. Browne says, it grows wild in most parts of Jamaica, and the other sugar-islands, with large leaves and numerous flowers, seldom rising above sixteen or eighteen inches in height. Dr. Houttoun brought some of the roots from Vera Cruz; and it was cultivated by Mr. Miller in 1730.

β. Mr. Salisbury has figured and described a species which he has often received from Barbadoes, and which he suspects may be the same with that of Sloane and Martyn, but different from that of Commelin; which he refers to his *amœnum*, the *declinatum* of Jacquin. He names it *Pancratium fragrans*, and gives this specific character: Petioles wide; tube of the corolla six-cornered, not freaked; segments longer than the tube, recurved, linear, alternately more concave, the sinuses of the crown repand emarginate. He thus describes it: Plant a foot and a half high; leaves seven to ten, green, bifarious; petioles sheathing at the base, spreading, half round; the leaves themselves much longer than the petioles, recurved, lanceolate, quite entire, blunt, a little channelled, smooth, especially above, fleshy. Flowers very fragrant, from seven to twelve in a bunch. Peduncle (or scape) pale glaucous, among the inner leaves, a little shorter than they; after flowering bent down towards the ground, compressed, ancipital, smooth with a glaucous bloom, slightly streaked, solid. Germ bright-green, shortly pedicelled, oval, three-cornered, smooth with the same glaucous bloom. He affirms, that Linnaeus has made up his *P. caribæum* from the doubtful synonyms of

Sloane and Martyn, and that of Commelin, which, according to him, does not belong to this species. Miller's plant does not seem to be the same with Mr. Salisbury's, and consequently not Martyn's, which is undoubtedly the same with Miller's. *Lin. Transf.* ii. 72.

4. *Pancratium maritimum*, or sea-pancratium: spathe many-flowered, petals flat, leaves tongue-shaped. This has a large coated bulbous root, three inches in diameter, of an oblong form, covered with a dark skin. The leaves are shaped like a tongue; they are more than a foot long, and one inch broad, of a deep green, six or seven of them rising together from the same root, encompassed at bottom with a sheath; between these arises the stalk, which is a foot and a half long, naked, sustaining at the top six or eight white flowers, inclosed in a sheath, which withers and opens on the side, to make way for the flowers to come out. The germs are situated close to the top of the stalk; from these arise the tubes of the flowers, which are three inches long: they are very narrow, swelling at the top, where the cup or nectarium is situated, on the outside of which are fastened the six segments or petals of the flower; these are narrow, and extend a great length beyond the nectarium; from the border of the nectarium arise six long slender stamens, terminated by oblong summits, which are prostrate; and in the centre arises a style the length of the stamens, terminated by an obtuse stigma.

Mr. Miller, in his figures, has added some particulars. The root resembles that of the squill, but is less, covered with a brown skin, and white within; the coats pellucid and gently striped, viscid or full of a clammy juice, bitter to the taste without acrimony. Cavanilles remarks, that the leaves are too broad in Miller's figure, as they might well be in a garden-specimen; that Clusius's small figure observes the proportion of the parts; but that his own is in due size and proportion both. He informs us also from Clusius, that this plant very seldom flowers when it is removed from its native soil, and then only when the flower is formed in the bulb.

Mr. Salisbury makes not only the *P. maritimum* of Linnæus and Cavanilles (whose figure he condemns) synonymous with *maritimum*; but also the Carolinianum of Linnæus, and the *verecundum* of the Kew Catalogue. He describes it as a plant a foot and half in height. Leaves six or seven, bifarious, sheathing at the base, from upright spreading, more or less twisted, linear, quite entire, blunt, smooth on both sides with a glaucous tinge, a little striated, flattish, fleshy. Flowers sweet, from six to ten in a bunch. Peduncle (or scape) pale glaucous, from one side among the leaves, erect, compressed, blunt not ancipital, even. Germ pedicelled, oval, three-cornered. Tube of the corolla pale-green, cylindrical, angular at top: border snow-white, a little shorter than the tube. Mr. Salisbury remarks, that it seldom flowers when cultivated, which agrees with what was observed above by Cavanilles from Clusius. He gathered it on the sandy coast below Montpellier in 1786. This, if any, is the true *maritimum* of Dioscorides. It is a native of the south of Europe in general; as in Spain about Valencia, &c. on the coast; found by Clusius near Montpellier; by Ray near Naples and in Sicily. Cultivated in 1629, by Mr. John Parkinson.

5. *Pancratium declinatum*, or broad-leaved pancratium: spathe many-flowered, scape compressed ancipital, segments of the corollas a little longer than the tube. Leaves tongue-shaped, sharp at both ends, quite entire, shining, erect, three feet long, three or four inches wide. Scape the length of the leaves, very much compressed, ancipital, an inch and a half wide, green; the whole always prostrate. Spathe twelve-flowered or thereabouts: flowers sweet, white, sessile, almost half a foot in diameter.

Mr. Salisbury, disliking Jacquin's trivial name, because several other species have a *declinate* scape, when in fruit; and also the younger Linnæus's, of *excisum*; has given this species the name of *amœnum*, and refers Commelin's figure in t. 87. to this, which Linnæus applied to his

caribæum. According to him, the plant is two feet high. Leaves nine to twelve, green, bifarious, sheathing at the base, recurved, lanceolate, quite entire, bluntish, smooth on both sides, finely streaked, channelled, keeled at the base, fleshy. Flowers fragrant, from ten to fifteen in a bunch. Peduncle (or scape) pale glaucous, among the inner leaves, a little shorter, at first upright, but after flowering bent down, very much compressed and ancipital, smooth with a bloom, a little streaked, solid. Probably a native of Cayenne. Cultivated in gardens at Martinico.

6. *Pancratium Carolinianum*, or Carolina pancratium: spathe many-flowered, leaves linear, stamens the length of the nectary. This has a roundish bulbous root, covered with a light-brown skin, from which arise several narrow dark-green leaves, about a foot long: among these comes out a thick stalk (scape) about nine inches high, sustaining six or seven white flowers, with very narrow petals, having large bell-shaped nectariums or cups deeply indented on their brims. The stamens do not rise far above the nectarium. Catesby discovered it in moist boggy soils in Georgia. Native of Jamaica and Carolina. Cultivated in 1759, by Mr. Miller. According to Mr. Salisbury, this is not different from *maritimum*.

7. *Pancratium Illyricum*, or Illyrian pancratium: spathe many-flowered, leaves ensiform, stamens longer than the nectary. This has a large bulb, covered with a dark skin, sending out many thick strong fibres, striking deep in the ground. Leaves a foot and a half long, and two inches broad, of a greyish colour. Scapes thick, succulent, near two feet high. Flowers from seven to fifteen in a bunch, white, sweet, shaped like those of *maritimum*, but with a shorter tube, and much longer stamens. It flowers in June, and frequently produces seeds, which ripen in September. Linnæus observes, that the leaves are the same size with those of the snow-drop. Native of the south of Europe. Cultivated in 1615, by Mr. John Parkinson. Mr. Miller says, it grows naturally in Slavonia and Sicily.

According to Mr. Salisbury, Linnæus confounded this with another species, which Jacquin has named *littorale*. Mr. S. names it *stellare*, and applies the synonyms of Miller in his figures and of Clusius which are given to *maritimum*, and of Seba which is attributed to *illyricum*. It grows wild on the sandy coast of the Isle of Rhe near Rochelle, according to Morison. It leafs in April, flowers in June, and the leaves wither at the end of August.

8. *Pancratium littorale*, or tall pancratium: spathe many-flowered, leaves lanceolate-linear bifarious, segments of the corolla linear, shorter than the tube; nectary almost linear; bulb the size of the fist; leaves ensiform, quite entire, acute, shining, spreading, deep-green, three or four feet long, scarcely an inch and a half in breadth, imbricate at the base and distich, embracing each other. Scape two to three feet high, very much compressed, an inch wide on one side, shining, green with a glaucous bloom, erect, or sometimes declining. Spathe ten-flowered or thereabouts: flowers seven to ten in a bunch, handsome, spreading, sessile at the top of the scape, having an agreeable aromatic odour. Found abundantly on the sandy coast of the island of Tierra Bomba near Carthagena, by Nic. Jos. Jacquin. In the Species Plantarum it is confounded with the *illyricum*, and hence has sometimes gone under that name.

9. *Pancratium verecundum*, or narcissus-leaved pancratium: spathe many-flowered, leaves linear, segments of the corolla lanceolate, shorter than the tube; the sinuses of the segments of the nectary stamiferous. Leaves a foot and a half long, half an inch wide. Scape erect, compressed, a foot high. Spathe oblong-lanceolate, acuminate, whitish, shrivelling; the outer larger, an inch and a half in length. Flowers fragrant, on three-cornered pedicels, scarcely half an inch long. Native of the East Indies. Cultivated in 1776, by Mrs. Theobald. It flowers from June to August.

10. *Pancratium Amboinense*, or Amboyna pancratium: spathe many-flowered, leaves ovate nerved petioled. Bulb oblong



PANCRATIUM.



Great West - Indian Pancratium.

Engraved for the Eng. and Am. Bot. Soc. 1820.

J. Busch del.

oblong, white, sending out several thick fleshy fibres, which strike downward. Leaves on very long footstalks, some ovate, others heart-shaped, about seven inches long and five broad, ending in points, having many deep longitudinal furrows; they are of a light-green, and their borders turn inwards. Stalk thick, round, and succulent, rising near two feet high, sustaining at the top several white flowers, shaped like those of the other sorts, but the petals are broader, the tube is shorter, and the stamens are not so long as the petals. There is a thin sheath, which splits open longitudinally. Native of Amboyna.

2. *P. Americanum* grows naturally in the islands of the West Indies, where it is called *white lily*. This has a pretty large bulb, a little flattened at the top, covered with a brown skin. Leaves near a foot and a half long, and little more than an inch broad, dark-green, and hollowed in the middle like the keel of a boat. Stalks near two feet high, thick, succulent, sustaining at the top eight or ten white flowers, shaped like those of *maritimum*, but of a purer white, and having a strong sweet odour, like that of balsam of Peru. The flowers seldom continue longer than three or four days, and in very hot weather not so long. When these fade, the germs, which are at the bottom of the tubes, turn to so many oblong bulbs, which are irregular in form, and, when ripe, drop off in the ground, where they put out fibres and become plants.

3. *P. latifolium* also grows naturally in the West Indies, where it is not distinguished from the preceding. This however differs from it, in the leaves being much longer and broader than that; for these are near two feet long, and more than three inches broad; hollowed like the keel of a boat, like the other. The flowers are larger, the petals longer, and the scent not so strong as that of the former. The roots flower in every season of the year. Cultivated by Mr. Miller in 1759.

7. Mr. Miller has added another sort in his last quarto edition of 1771, which he names *P. ovatum*. This also grows naturally in the West Indies; and has a large roundish bulb, from which arise several ovate leaves, about a foot long, and six inches broad in the middle, drawing to a point at both ends; they are of a deep green, and have many longitudinal furrows. The stalk is thick and succulent, a foot and a half high, sustaining at the top six or eight white flowers, of an agreeable sweet scent, smaller than those of the preceding (*Americanum*); the petals are narrower, the tubes shorter, and so are the spathe. Cultivated by Mr. Miller in 1771.

11. *Pancratium rotatum*, or large-crowned *pancratium*: sheath with few flowers; leaves linear; stamens between the jagged segments of the horizontal nectary. Native of Carolina, in the ground that is occasionally overflowed, from whence it was brought by the younger Michaux to Paris, and sent to Mr. Loddige before the year 1803. It flowers in the stove during most part of the summer, and increases greatly by offsets from the root. Leaves from half an inch to an inch wide. Flowers two, three, or more, with a segment of the sheath under each, white, nearly a span in diameter, from the great length of the linear channelled petals. The great flatness, and wide expansion, of the cup of the nectary, with its variously-jagged segments, between which the wide-spreading stamens, about twice its length, are attached, form the striking character of the present species, which Michaux in his *Flora* mistook for the Mexicanum.

12. *Pancratium calathinum*, or white Brazilian *pancratium*: sheath with few flowers; leaves linear; stamens between the jagged segments of the cup-shaped nectary, and scarcely exceeding them in length; tube nearly cylindrical. Native of the Brasils, from whence it was received by the late lady Amelia Hume in 1794. The leaves are obtuse, an inch wide, and two feet long. Flowers two or three from a sheath of as many or more divisions, white, very fragrant, somewhat drooping.

13. *Pancratium Anancaes*, or golden *pancratium*: sheath with few flowers; leaves lanceolate; stamens be-

tween the abrupt-toothed segments of the cup-shaped nectary, and about the same length; tube with six furrows. Native of Lima and Peru. Imported from the Brasils, in 1808, by Messrs. Middlemist and Wood at Shepherd's Bush, in whose stove it flowered in July 1809. This species is distinguished from all the preceding by the golden yellow of its flowers, which are described as exceedingly fragrant, and used by the Peruvian women to ornament their hair. The shape and size of the flowers most agree with the preceding. The leaves are more lanceolate, and broader, tapering to a point.

14. *Pancratium humile*, or small *pancratium*: sheath two-flowered; leaves thread-shaped; nectary cup-shaped, very short, in six obtuse cloven segments; stamens spreading, as long as the petals. Gathered by Cavanilles in Andalusia, flowering in October, before the leaves come out. These are two only, scarcely six inches long, very slender. Stalk not quite so tall, slender, thread-shaped, bearing two yellow flowers from one sheath, on unequal capillary stalks. This appears to us a very doubtful *Pancratium*; and, if the lobes themselves of the nectary do not bear the stamens, it ought to be removed to *NARCISSUS*.

15. *Pancratium speciosum*, or great West-Indian *pancratium*: sheath many-flowered; leaves elliptical; nectary with six teeth bearing the stamens; the intermediate ones simple, acute. Native of the West Indies, flowering in a stove most part of the summer. The leaves are of a very dark-green colour, from a foot and a half to two feet long, from three to four inches across the broadest part; in number uncertain, several fresh ones being produced each time the plant blooms, while the old ones do not decay in proportion, at least in our stoves. Scape rather shorter than the foliage, compressed, ancipital, streakletted; spathe two inches or more in length, light-green. Flowers pure white, nearly nine inches long, very ornamental, extremely fragrant, especially in the evening, retaining their scent for many months when dried. The cells of the germs in all the specimens we examined were dispermous, as in *P. amboinense*. We do not know a more desirable stove-plant than this. It is the finest of the whole genus, and most generally cultivated by those who have the means to make it bloom in perfection, which sometimes takes place twice in one summer. The four last species are from Curtis's Magazine: the present, which he calls "*balsam-scented sea-daffodil*," is represented on the annexed Plate.

Propagation and Culture. The sorts of the East and West Indies are too tender to thrive in England out of a good stove. If the pots be plunged in the bark-bed, they will thrive and flower very well. In the dry stove, their flowers will not be so strong, nor will they appear oftener than once a-year; whereas in the tan-bed, they will often flower two or three times. They are propagated by offsets from the roots, or by the bulbs which succeed the flowers. If the latter be planted in small pots filled with light earth from a kitchen-garden, and plunged into a moderate hot-bed, they will soon put out roots and leaves, and with care will become blowing roots in one year: if these are kept constantly in the tan-bed, they will put out offsets from the roots, and thrive as well as in their native countries.

7. This sort is hardy, and will thrive through the winter in the full ground; in very-severe seasons the surface should be covered with tanner's-bark, sea-coal ashes, straw, or pease-haulm. It is propagated either by offsets from the roots, or from seeds. The offsets will flower very strong the second year, whereas those which are raised from seeds seldom flower in less than five years. The roots should not be removed oftener than every third year, if they be expected to flower strong. The best time to transplant them is in the beginning of October, soon after their leaves decay. They should not be kept long out of the ground; for, as they do not lose their fibres every year, if these are dried, it greatly weakens the roots. It loves a light sandy soil, and a sheltered situation; the

the roots should be planted nine inches or a foot asunder every way, and five inches deep in the ground. If the plants are propagated by seeds, they should be sown in pots filled with light earth soon after they are ripe: these pots should be placed under a hot-bed frame in winter, but the glasses must be taken off every day in mild weather. For the other management, see NARCISsus.

PANCREAS, *f.* [*πᾶν*, and *κρεας*, flesh.] The *pancreas*, or sweet-bread, is a gland of the conglomerate sort, situated between the bottom of the stomach and the vertebræ of the loins: it lies across the abdomen, reaching from the liver to the spleen, and is strongly tied to the peritonæum, from which it receives its common membranes. It weighs commonly four or five ounces. It is about six fingers' breadth long, two broad, and one thick. Its substance is a little soft and supple. *Quincy.*

PANCREATIC, *adj.* Contained in the pancreas.—The bile is so acrid, that nature has furnished the *pancreatic* juice to temper its bitterness. *Arbuthnot.*

PANCREATIC JUICE, an insipid limpid juice, or humour, separated from the blood, and prepared in the pancreas. See ANATOMY, vol. i.

This juice is not acid, as most authors have supposed; nor alkaline, as some authors have thought; but a little saline, and much resembling the saliva in its origin, vessels, and properties. It is carried by the pancreatic duct into the duodenum, where it serves to dilute the chyle, to render it more fluid, and fit to enter the mouths of the lacteals; and perhaps to temper and dilute the bile, to change its viscosity, bitterness, colour, &c. and make it mix with the chyle, in order to reduce the several tastes, odours, and properties, of the several foods, into one homogeneous one. The duct is always found empty after death.

In the controversies about the nature of the pancreatic juice in the seventeenth century, numerous dogs were slaughtered without any very interesting results being obtained. De Graaf placed tubes in the pancreatic ducts of living dogs: phials were connected to the opposite end of them. In this way he collected two drachms, half an ounce, and even an ounce, in eight hours. Schuyt procured two and three drachms in two hours. (See De Graaf de Succo Pancreatici natura et usu; and Schuyt de Veteri Medicina.) Brunner attempted to cut out the gland, or to tie the duct, in dogs. (Experimenta nova circa Pancreas.) These tortures were inflicted in the attack and defence of a doctrine promulgated by Sylvius de Boe, and very generally adopted, that the pancreatic liquor was acid, and the bile alkaline, and that their mixture occasioned a fermentation in the stomach, by which chylification was effected! These notions were employed in explaining disease: the cold stage of fever was ascribed to the acid pancreatic juice, and alkaline remedies were ordered to correct it. After all, as we are ignorant of the quantity and exact nature of this secretion, we cannot be expected to explain what share it has in the changes which our food undergoes in the alimentary canal. *Haller's Elementa Physiologiae*, lib. 22. *Siebold's Historia Symplicis Salivæ*, 1797.

PANCSO'VA, a town and fortress of Hungary, on the north side of the Danube, in the bannat of Temesvar. In the year 1789, this town was burned by the Austrians, to prevent its affording a harbour to the Turks: eight miles north of Belgrade, and forty-three south-south-west of Temesvar. Lat. 45. 15. N. lon. 20. 16. E.

PANCTOU, a town of Thibet: seventy miles north-north-east of Lassa.

PAN'CY, or PANSY, *f.* [corrupted, I suppose, from *panaceæ*; *panacea*. *Dr. Johnson.*—It is the French *pensée*, as Dr. Johnson in a note on Hamlet admits; the name of the Viola tricolor. "It probably obtained the name of *pensée*, thought or fancy, from its fanciful appearance; the same circumstance which induced Milton to call it 'the pansy freak'd with jet,' that is, *fancifully touched with black.*" Nares's *Elem. of Orthoepey*, p. 305. *Todd.*]

A flower; a kind of violet.—There is *panfies*, that's for thoughts. *Shakespeare's Hamlet.*

From the brute beasts humanity I learn'd,
And in the *panfy's* life God's providence discern'd. *Harte.*
The daughters of the flood have search'd the mead
For violets pale, and cropp'd the poppy's head;
Pancies to please the sight, and cassia sweet to finell.

Dryden.

PAN'DA, in mythology, a goddess who was invoked and honoured as the protectress of travellers and navigators. The goddess of peace was also called *Panda*, because she opened the gates of cities which were shut in time of war. According to Varro, *Panda* is a surname of Ceres, derived à *pāne dando*, because she gave bread to mankind.

PAN'DA, a town on the north coast of the island of Cumbava. Lat. 8. 27. S. lon. 118. 48. E.

PANDACA'QUI, *f.* in botany. See CHIOCOCCA.

PANDÆMO'NIUM, *f.* [from the Gr. *πᾶν*, all, and *δαίμων*, a demon.] The great hall or council-chamber of the fallen angels. *Milton.*

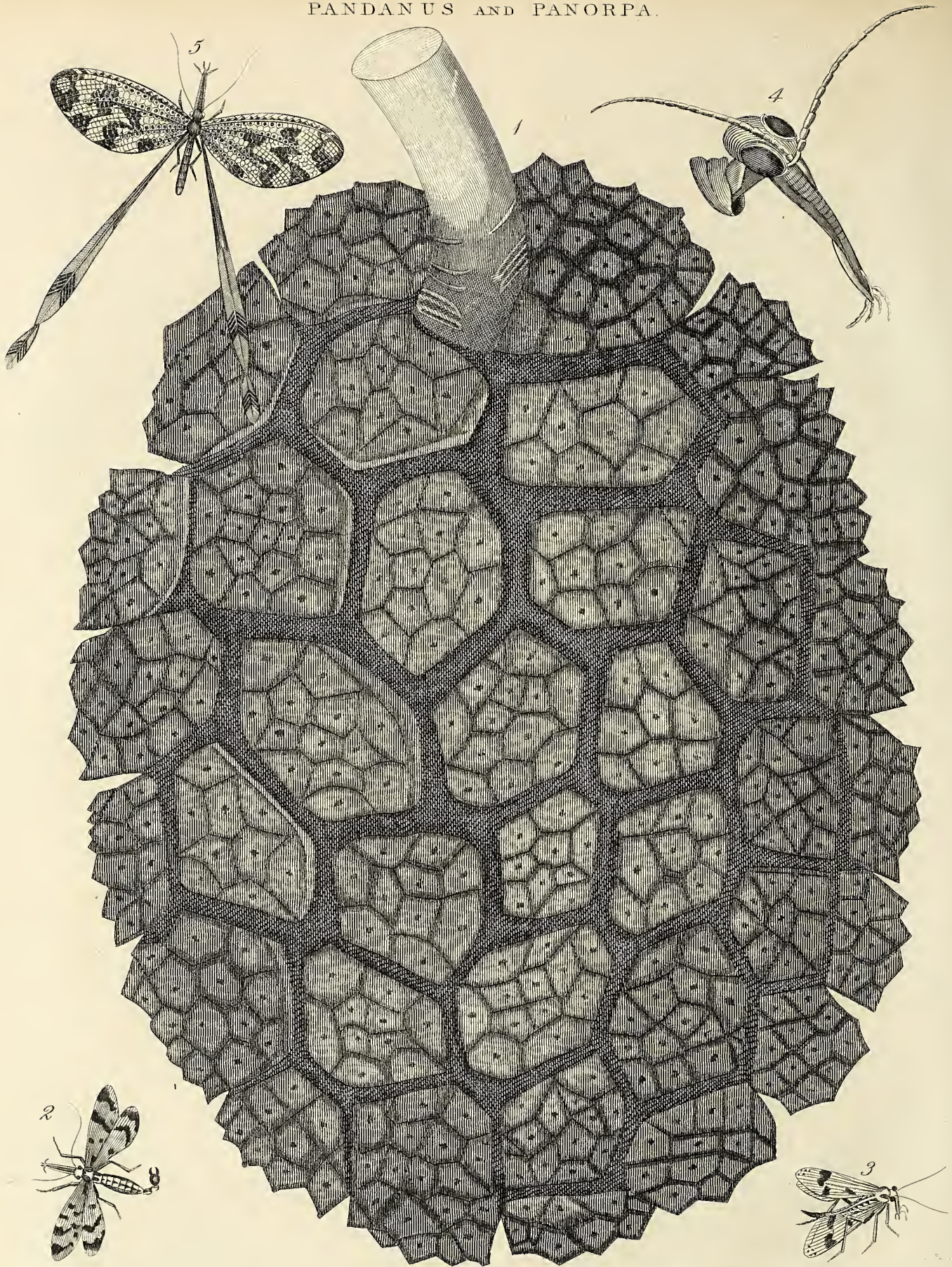
PANDA'IA, or PANTAIA, a town on the north coast of the island of Cyprus, in a bay to which it gives name: twenty-eight miles west of Nicosia.

PANDANG', a town on the west coast of the island of Celebes. Lat. 3. 33. S. lon. 120. E.

PANDANG CO'CHIN, a town on the south-west coast of Sumatra. Lat. 4. 36. S. lon. 102. 57. E.

PANDANUS, *f.* [a name adopted by Linnæus from Rumphius, who fabricated it from the Malay *pandang*, which signifies "to behold," and which is supposed to allude either to the beauty of the tree in question, or to its conspicuous appearance at a distance.] In botany, a genus of the class diccia, order monandria. Generic characters—I. Male. Calyx: spathes alternate, sessile, serrate-spiny. Spadix decomposed, naked. Perianthium, proper none. Corolla: none. Stamina: filaments very many, solitary, placed scatteringly on the outer ramifications of the spadix, very short. Antheræ oblong, acute, erect. II. Female. Calyx: spathes four, terminating, converging. Spadix globular, covered with numerous fructifications, scarcely included; perianthium none. Corolla: none. Pistillum: germs numerous, aggregate, sessile, five-cornered, convex at top, smooth; style none; stigmas two, cordate, margined. Pericarpium: fruit sub-globular, large, consisting of numerous wedge-shaped drupes, convex at top, angular, farinaceous, one-seeded. Seed solitary, oval, even, in the centre of the drupe.—*Essential Character.* Calyx and corolla none. Male: Antheræ sessile, inserted into the ramifications of the spadix. Female: Stigmas two; fruit compound.

1. Pandanus odoratissimus, sweet-scented pandanus, or screw-pine: trunk throwing out runners; drupes obovate at the summit. The pandanus is generally in the form of a very large branching spreading bush; but now-and-then a plant may be found with a single and pretty-erect trunk of ten feet in height, and a branching round head. From the stems, or larger branches, issue large carrot-shaped blunt roots, descending till they come to the ground, and then dividing. The substance of the most solid is something like that of a cabbage-stalk, and by age acquires a woody hardness on the outside. Leaves confluent, stem-clasping, closely imbricated in three spiral rows, round the extremities of the branches, bowing, from three to five feet long, tapering to a very long fine triangular point, very smooth and glossy, margins and back armed with very fine sharp spines; those on the margins point forward, those of the back point sometimes one way, sometimes the other. The male flowers are in a large pendulous compound leafy raceme, the leaves of which are white, linear-oblong, pointed, and concave; in the axil of each, there is a single thyrs of simple small racemes of long-pointed dependent antheræ; they are not sessile, but raised from the rachis of the raceme by tapering



1. Fruit of the sweet scented Pandanus, or Screw Pine.
2, 3, 4. Common Scorpion fly. 5. Greek Scorpion fly.

pering filaments. The female flowers are on a different plant, terminating and solitary, having no other calyx or corolla than the termination of the three rows of leaves forming three imbricated fascicles of white floral leaves, like those of the male raceme, which stand at equal distances round the base of the young fruit. Germs numerous, collected in firm wedge-shaped angular bundles of from six to ten or more, forming the compound germs of the future drupes, closely impacted round the receptacle. The fruit is compound, oval, from five to eight inches in diameter, and from six to ten in length, weighing from four to eight pounds, rough, of a rich orange-colour composed of numerous wedge-shaped angular drupes; when ripe, their large or exterior ends are detached from one another, and covered with a firm deeper orange-coloured skin; apices flat, consisting of as many angular somewhat-convex tubercles as there are cells in the drupe, each crowned with the withered stigma internally; the exterior half of these drupes, next the apex, consists of dry spongy cavities, their lower part next the core or common receptacle is yellow, consisting of a rich-looking yellow pulp, intermixed with strong fibres; here the nut is lodged. This is compound, top-shaped, exceedingly hard, angular, containing as many cells as there are divisions on the apex of the drupe; each cell is perforated above and below. Seed single, oblong, smooth, adhering lengthwise to a small fascicle of strong white fibres, which pass through the perforation of the cell. By far the greater number of these cells are barren.

It is a native of the warmer parts of Asia. All soils and situations seem to suit it equally well: it flowers chiefly during the rainy season. This plant is much employed there for hedges, and answers well, but takes much room. It grows readily from branches, whence it is rare to find the full-grown ripe fruit. The tender white leaves of the flowers, chiefly those of the male, yield that most delightful fragrance for which they are so generally esteemed; and of all the perfumes it is by far the richest and most powerful. The lower yellow pulpy part of the drupe is sometimes eaten by the natives in times of scarcity and famine. The tender white base of the leaves is also eaten raw or boiled at such melancholy times. The taste of the pulpy part of the drupe is very disagreeable. The roots are composed of tough fibres, which basket-makers use to tie their work with; they are so soft and spongy as to serve the natives for corks; the leaves also are composed of longitudinal, tough, useful fibres. It is not cultivated in the East Indies with any other view than for fences. In the Supplement of the younger Linneus it is said, from Forkahl and Thunberg, to be cultivated for the sake of its fragrance. *Mugalie* is the Telinga name of the male plant, and *ghazangee* that of the female; *caldera* is the name they are known by amongst Europeans on the coast of Coromandel. The above account, and the representation (natural size) of the beautiful fruit of this species, are from Roxburgh's splendid work on the Plants of the Coast of Coromandel.

In the South-Sea islands, where the pandanus is also a native, this or some other species or variety is used for making mats. The leaves are beautifully white and glossy. In the Sandwich-islands these mats are handsomely worked in a variety of patterns, and stained of different colours. The branches being of a soft spongy juicy nature, cattle will eat them very well, when cut into small pieces. They call it *wharra-tree* at Otaheite, according to Hawkesworth. Forster says, that the fruit in Otaheite is called *vara*, and the male flowers *hinamio*; that it is fond of sandy coasts, and is found on almost all the islands of the southern ocean, within the tropics, even on those which are occasionally inundated; that it resembles the ananas in the fruit and leaves, and may be connected with the palms with more propriety than *Stratiotes* and *Vallisneria*; that it is cultivated in Arabia and Ceylon on account of the fragrantcy of the male flowers; that the women in India, especially on the islands, powder their

hair with the dust of the anthers, which is very fragrant, and that they lay up the floral leaves and bunches of flowers among their clothes; that in Ternate they dress the flowers before they open as sauce for flesh and fish; that in Banda they lay the leaves on wounds; that in India the fruit is eaten by elephants, in Otaheite and the neighbouring islands by children, and, when bread-fruit is scarce, even by grown persons; and that it has a fine aromatic scent like the strawberry or the pine-apple, a taste at first sweetish, but afterwards astringent and austere.

Forster mentions four varieties figured in the Hortus Malabaricus, t. 5, 6, 7, 8. and says that some varieties have no fragrance. Loureiro has distinguished two other species: *humilis*, Hort. Malab. t. 6. and *lavis*. Rumph. Amb. p. 147. We are by no means competent to unravel all the varieties, or rather species, of this plant, described by Rumphius and Rheede, but which succeeding botanical travellers have left unexplained. Mr. R. Brown has given definitions of the following two species, without any synonyms.

2. *Pandanus pedunculatus*: trunk throwing out runners; drupes conical and lobed at the summit, somewhat contracted at the base. Native of the tropical part of New Holland.

3. *Pandanus spiralis*: trunk without runners; drupes depressed and tessellated at the summit, very obtuse at the base. Gathered likewise by Mr. Brown in the same part of the world.

4. *Pandanus leram*, the Nicobar bread-fruit tree: trunk throwing out runners; pine-shaped. We have noticed the tree that bears this nutritive fruit under the article NICOBARS, vol. xvii. p. 63. It is very abundant in those islands, as well as in Carnicobar: it grows promiscuously in the woods, among other trees, but it delights, more particularly in a damp soil. The trunk is often straight, thirty or thirty-five feet high, and ten or twelve inches (the oldest even two feet) in circumference. The bark is smooth, ash-coloured, with equidistant intersections of a compact hard texture in its interior part, but soft and quite hollow in the centre from the top of the trunk; the leaves grow disposed like a calyx, about three feet long, and four inches broad, ensiform and aculeate, of a dark-green hue, and of a tenacious hard substance. The roots are out of the ground, and inserted at eight or ten feet on the trunk, according to its age, being not quite two feet in the earth. The fruit which has the shape of a pine, and the size of a large Jaca, comes out of the bottom of the leaves. The age of a man is seldom sufficient to see the trees bearing fruit: its weight forces it out of the leaves, and, when it is nearly ripe, which is known by the natives on the change of its colour from green to yellowish, it is gathered, and weighs from thirty to forty pounds. The drupes are loosened by thrusting a piece of iron between their interstices: the exterior surface is cut off, and thus put into earthen pots covered with leaves, then boiled on a slow fire for several hours together: the fruit is sufficiently boiled, when the medullary part of it becomes soft and friable; it is then taken from the fire and exposed to the cold air; when cold, the drupes are separated from the stalk, and the medullary part pressed out by means of a shell forced into them. Within the woody part of the drupes there are two seeds, in shape and taste much like almonds: the soft part is then collected into a spherical mass: and, in order to extract all the stringy fragments remaining in it by the compression of the shell, a thread is passed and repassed, until the whole is extracted, and it comes out perfectly clean: it is then of a pale-yellow colour, much resembling *polenta*, or the dressed meal of the Zea mays, and in taste much like it: when not newly prepared it has an acidity, to which it tends very strongly if long exposed to the atmosphere; but it may be preserved a long time, if well covered.

The Nicobar bread-fruit tree differs very essentially from the palm described by Mr. Masson, and found in the interior

parts of Africa, which bears a sort of bread-fruit. It differs also from the bread-tree found in Otaheite as already noticed. The Pandanus of the Coromandel coast, and of the Isle of France, where it thrives in some degree, never attains the height of this species; nor is the size of the fruit, though large, to be compared with it. It is called *larum*, or *leram*, by the natives; *cadhi* by the Arabs; and *cetaca* by the Indians. The flowers are celebrated in Sanscrit, by poets for their colour or scent, and by physicians for their medical virtues. *Asiatic Researches*, vol. iii.

PAN'DARISM, *f.* [from *pander*, which ought to be written *pandar*. See PANDER.] The employment of a pimp or pandar. *Sherwood*.—I need not tell you of bloody Turks, man-eating cannibals, Patavian *pandarism* of their own daughters, or of miserable Indians idolatrously adoring their devilish pagodes. *Bp. Hall's Character of Man*.

To PAN'DARIZE, *v. n.* To act the part of a pimp or pandar.

PAN'DAROUS, *adj.* Pimping; acting in the character of a bawd or pandar:

I know that face to be a strumpet's:
I saw her once before here, five days since 'tis;
And the same wary *pandarous* diligence
Was then bestowed on her. *Middleton's Witch*.

PAN'DARUS, a native of Crete, punished with death for being accessory to the theft of Tantalus. What this theft was is unknown. Some, however, suppose that Tantalus stole the ambrosia and the nectar from the tables of the gods, to which he had been admitted, or that he carried away a dog which watched Jupiter's temple in Crete, in which crime Pandarus was concerned, and for which he suffered. Pandarus had two daughters, Camiro and Clytia, who were also deprived of their mother by a sudden death, and left without friends or protectors. Venus had compassion upon them and she fed them with milk, honey, and wine: she wished to make their happiness more complete; and, when they were come to nubile years, she prayed Jupiter to grant them kind and tender husbands. But in her absence the Harpies carried away the virgins, and delivered them to the Eumenides to share the punishment which their father suffered. *Pindar*.

PAN'DARUS, a son of Lycaon, who assisted the Trojans in their war against the Greeks. He went to the war without a chariot, and therefore he generally fought on foot. He broke the truce which had been agreed upon between the Greeks and Trojans, and wounded Menelaus and Diomedes, and showed himself brave and unusually courageous. He was at last killed by Diomedes; and Æneas, who then carried him in his chariot, by attempting to revenge his death, nearly perished by the hand of the furious enemy. *Diclys Cret.* ii. 35. *Homer's Il.* ii. v. *Virg. Æn.* v.

PANDATA'RIA. See VENTOTIENE.

PANDE'ANS, [from *Pan*.] A title given to itinerant companies of Italian musicians, who perform on the syrinx or Pan's pipes of different pitches with their mouths, and accompany themselves on different instruments with their hands and feet. The lowest set of reeds (the *septem discrimina vocum* of Virgil) is called the *contra-basso*, or double-bass; the next *fagotto*, or bassoon; the third septenary is the tenor, or second treble; and the fourth, or highest range of pipes, the first treble; so that in the aggregate there is a complete scale of four octaves, and they can play in three or four parts. The instruments with which they accompany themselves with their hands are the cymbals, the triangle, the double drum beat at both ends, the mezza luna, a Turkish instrument, and the tambour de basque.

The reeds or pipes are fastened under the chin of the performer, and the lip of the player runs from one to the other with seeming facility, without moving the instru-

ment by manual assistance: (*Et supra calamos unco percurrere labro*, Lucretius.) The music which these people perform is very gay and pleasing. A company of them was introduced at Vauxhall-gardens a few years ago; and since that they are common enough in the streets of London. It is to be observed, that some of the performers, particularly the first treble, have more than seven pipes, which enables them to extend the melody beyond the septenary.

PAN'DECT, *f.* [*pandecta*, Lat.] A treatise that comprehends the whole of any science.—It were to be wished, that the commons would form a *pandect* of their power and privileges, to be confirmed by the entire legislative authority. *Swift*.

Thus thou, by means the ancients never took,
A *pandect* mak'st, and universal book.

Donne.

PANDECTS, the digest, or collection, made by Justinian's order, of 534 decisions or judgments of the ancient lawyers, on so many questions occurring in the civil law; to which that emperor gave the force and authority of law by an epistle prefixed to them. See the article LAW, vol. xii. p. 364.

The word is Greek, Πανδεκτα; compounded of παν, all, and δεχομαι, I take; q. d. a compilation, or a book containing all things. The Pandects consist of fifty books; and they were originally denoted by two ππ; but, the copyists taking those ππ for ff, the custom arose of quoting them by ff.

When the monuments of ancient Rome were neglected or destroyed by the envy or ignorance of the Greeks, the Pandects themselves escaped with difficulty and danger from the common wreck; and in the year 1137, a copy of them, which had been bought by an Amalfitan merchant from the east, fell into the hands of the Pisans. Angelus Politianus believes this copy to be that which had been compiled by order of the emperor. However that be, it is certain that all other copies are taken from it, as being the most ancient. The purchasers carried the volumes to Pisa, and for near three centuries they were known by the name of the *Pandectæ Pisanae*. But, about the year 1416, Pisa being taken by the Florentines, they were transported from thence to Florence, where they are now preserved in the library of the Medici, and known by the name of the *Pandectæ Florentinae*. They consist of two quarto volumes, with large margins, on a thin parchment; but the Latin characters betray the hand of a Greek scribe.

PANDEMIC, *adj.* [παν, and δημοσ, the people.] Incident to a whole people.—Those instances bring a consumption, under the notion of a *pandemic*, or endemic, or rather vernacular, disease to England. *Harvey on Consumptions*.

PANDE'MON, *f.* [Greek.] In antiquity, the same with the festival Chalceia and Athenæa. It was so called from the great concourse of "people" that used to meet at this solemnity.

PANDE'MUS, one of the surnames of the god of love, among the Egyptians and the Greeks, who distinguished two Cupids, one of whom was the vulgar called Pandemus, and another of a purer and more celestial origin. *Plut. in Erot*.

PAN'DER, *f.* [from *Pandarus*, the pimp in the story of Troilus and Cressida; it was therefore originally written, *pandar*, till its etymology was forgotten. See PANDARISM.] A pimp; a male bawd; a procurer; an agent for the lust or ill designs of another.—If ever you prove false to one another, since I have taken such pains to bring you together, let all pitiful goers-between be called *panders* after my name. *Shakespeare's Troilus and Cressida*.

Let him with his cap in hand,
Like a base *pander*, hold the chamber-door
Whilst by a slave
His daughter is contaminated.

Shakespeare.

The

The sons of happy punks, the *pander's* heir,
Are privileged
To clap the first, and rule the theatre. *Dryden.*
Thou hast confes'd thyself the conscious *pandar*
Of that pretended passion. *Dryden.*

My obedient honesty was made
The *pander* to thy lust and black ambition. *Rowe.*

To PANDER, *v. a.* To pimp; to be subservient to
lust or passion:

Proclaim no shame,
When the compulsive ardour gives the charge,
Since first itself as actively doth burn,
And reason *panders* will. *Shakespeare's Hamlet.*

To PANDER, *v. n.* To play the part of an agent for
the ill designs of another.—Excommunication serves for
nothing with them but to prog and *pander* for fees, and
display their pride. *Milton.*

PAND'EREN (Egbert), a Dutch engraver, was born
in 1606. He resided, during great part of his life, at
Antwerp, but he often added the word *Haerlemensis* to
his name, from which we may infer that he was a native
of Haerlem. He worked entirely with the graver, in
a stiff formal style; and his prints have neither harmony
of effect, nor correctness of drawing to recommend them.
The most worthy of notice is, "God, an Angel, a Man,
and the Devil; or, The History of Sickness and Medicine,"
from Henry Goltzius, in quarto, a very rare print.

PANDER'IFORM, or FIDDLE-SHAPED, *adj.* Leaves
shaped something like a fiddle, or ancient guitar.

PANDER'LA, a town of Hindoostan, in Madura:
thirty miles north-north-east of Coilpetta.

PANDER'LY, *adj.* Pimping; pimply.—Oh you *panderly*
rascals! there's a conspiracy against me. *Shakespeare's*
M. Wives.

PANDI PA'VEL, *f.* in botany. See MOMORDICA.

PANDIA, *f.* [Greek.] An Athenian festival in honour
of Jupiter. For the origin of this solemnity, see Potter's
Archæol. Græc. lib. ii. cap. 20.

PANDIC'ULATED, *adj.* [from *pandiculo*, Lat. 'to
stretch.] Stretched out; opened; extended.

PANDICULA'TION, *f.* [*pandiculans*, Lat.] The rest-
lessness, stretching, and uneasiness, that usually accom-
pany the cold fits of an intermitting fever.—Windy spi-
rits, for want of a due volatilization, produce in the nerves
a *pandiculation*, or oscitation or stupor, or cramp in the
muscles. *Floyer on the Humours.*

PANDI'ON, a king of Athens, son of Erichthon and
Pasithea, who succeeded his father B. C. 1437. He be-
came father of Procne and Philomela, Erechtheus and
Butes. During his reign there was such an abundance
of corn, wine, and oil, that it was publicly reported that
Bacchus and Minerva had personally visited Attica. He
waged a successful war against Labdacus, king of Boeotia,
and gave his daughter Procne in marriage to Tereus, king
of Thrace, who had assisted him. The treatment which
Philomela received from her brother-in-law, Tereus, (see
PHILCMELA,) was the source of infinite grief to Pandion,
and he died through excess of sorrow, after a reign of forty
years.

PANDIPOU'R, a town of Hindoostan, in Oude: twenty-
two miles south of Fyzabad.

PANDIT. See PUNDIT.

PANDOLY, a town of Hindoostan, in Baglana: twenty-
five miles north-west of Junere.

PANDON'SER, a town of Hindoostan, in Dowlatabad:
twenty miles east of Poorundar.

PANDOO', a town of Hindoostan in Visiapour: twenty
miles north of Sattarah.

PANDOOKAN', a small island in the Sooloo Archi-
pelago. Lat. 6. 15. N. lon. 120. 34. E.

PAND'ORA, a celebrated woman, the first mortal fe-
male that ever lived, according to Hesiod. She was made

of clay by Vulcan, at the command of Jupiter who wished
to punish the artifice of Prometheus by giving him a wife.
When this woman of clay had been made by the artist,
and received life, all the gods vied in making her pre-
sents: Venus gave her beauty and the art of pleasing;
Juno gave riches; Apollo taught her how to sing; Mer-
cury instructed her in eloquence; and Minerva gave her
wisdom. From all these valuable presents, which she
had received from the gods, the woman was called *Pan-
dora*, which intimates that she had received every neces-
sary gift. Jupiter after this gave her a beautiful box,
which she was ordered to present to the man who mar-
ried her; and, by the commission of the god, Mercury
conducted her to Prometheus. The artful mortal was sensi-
ble of the deceit; and, as he had always distrusted Jupiter, as
well as the rest of the gods, since he had stolen fire from the
sun to animate his man of clay, he sent away Pandora
without suffering himself to be captivated by her charms.
His brother Epimetheus was not possessed of the same
prudence and sagacity. He married Pandora; and, when
he opened the box which she presented to him, there is-
sued from it a multitude of evils and distempers, which
dispersed themselves all over the world, and which, from
that fatal moment, have never ceased to afflict the human
race. Hope was the only one who remained at the bot-
tom of the box; and it is she alone who has the wonder-
ful power of easing the labours of man, and of render-
ing his troubles and his sorrows less painful in life. *Hesiod's Theog.*

PANDORE, *f.* [from *Pandora*.] A woman endowed
with all perfections:

To frame the like *Pandore*

The gods repine, and nature would grow poor.

Fuimus Troes.

PANDORE, *f.* A musical instrument of the lute kind.
—The cythron, the *pandore*, and the theorbo, strike.
Drayton.

The word according to some, is formed from the Greek
παν and *δωρον*, i. e. all gifts, all sorts of gifts. *Isidore*
derives the name from its inventor Pandorus; others from
Pan, to whom they attribute this invention, as well as
that of the flute. It has the same number of strings with
the lute; but they are of brass, and of consequence give
a more agreeable sound than those of the lute. Its frets
are of copper, like those of the cistrum; its back is flat,
like that of the guitar: and the rims of its table, as well
as its ribs, are cut in semicircles. Du-Cange observes,
that Varro, *Isidore*, and others of the ancients, mention
it as having only three strings; whence it is sometimes
also spoken of under the denomination *trichordum*. The
instrument called the pandura, or bandora, of the lute
kind, was very much in favour in our own country dur-
ing the seventeenth century: but now, not only its scale,
but even its form, is forgotten.

PANDOSIA, in ancient geography, a town of Italy,
in Brutium, upon the west coast, near the sea, and the
boundaries of Leucania. It was founded by the Ceno-
trians, who made it the capital of their territory. It was
situated on a small mountain, at the foot of which ran
the stream called Acheron.—Also, a town of Epirus, in
the interior of the country.

PANDOURS, a corps of Hungarian infantry, in the
service of the emperor of Austria, and so called from Pan-
dur, a village in Lower Hungary, where they were first
raised by baron Trenck in the year 1741. They wear a
loose garment fixed tight to their bodies by a girdle, with
great sleeves, and large breeches hanging down to their
ankles. They use fire-arms, and are excellent marksmen:
they have also a kind of sabre near four feet long, which
they use with great dexterity.

PANDROSIA, a daughter of Cecrops, king of Athens,
sister to Aglauros and Herse. She was the only one of
the sisters who had not the fatal curiosity to open a ba-
sket which Minerva had entrusted to their care, (see ERICH-
THONIUS;)

THONUS;) for which sincerity a temple was raised to her, near that of Minerva, and a festival instituted in her honour. *Pausanias*.

PANDSA TA'LA, a group of several small lakes in Thibet. Lat. 30.42. N. lon. 79. 26. E.

PANDU', in mythology, the name of a personage of some importance in the heroic history of the Hindoos. He was the father of the "five brothers," or Pandavas, whose contests with the sons of Kuru form the subject of that splendid poem, the Mahabarat. To these five heroes, it is usual in India to attribute the construction of any great work whose origin is lost in its antiquity; such as the excavations on Elephanta, at Elora, &c. See MAHABARAT, vol. xiv.

PANDU'R, a mean Rascian village of Hungary, near Baja, remarkable for the activity of the heyducks against robbers infesting the roads, and from which the Pandours took their name: twenty-six miles south of Colocza.

PANDU'RA. See PANDORE.

PANDURIFORM, *adj.* An epithet applied to a leaf resembling in form the *pandura*, or ancient lyre, being rounded and dilated at each end, with a contraction in the middle. The form of the modern violin seems to have been borrowed from that instrument, though it does not clearly appear for what reason. The leaf so denominated is scarcely to be found but in the species of *Rumex*, called, from this resemblance, which is very correct and striking, *fiddle-dock*.

PANDUXA'TOR, *f.* (in old records.) A brewer.

PANDUXATRIX, *f.* A woman that brews and sells ale.

PANDYS'IA, *f.* [Greek.] In antiquity, public rejoicings when the season, through its coldness and intemperance, forced the sailors to stay at home.

PANE, *f.* [*paneau*, Fr.] A square of glass.—The face of Eleanor owes more to that single *pane* than to all the glasses she ever consulted. *Pope's Lett.*

The letters appeared reverse through the *pane*,
But in Stella's bright eyes they were plac'd right again.
Swift.

A piece mixed in variegated works with other pieces.—A *pane* of cloth. *Barret.*

Him all repute,
For his device in handfoming a suit,
To judge of lace, pink, *panes*, and print, and plait,
Of all the court to have the best conceit. *Donne.*

PA'NE, a town on the north coast of the island of Sumatra. Lat. 2.40. N. lon. 99. 35. E.

PA'NEAS, in ancient geography, the apparent spring from which the Jordan rises, on the extremity of the west side of the Trachonitis.

PA'NEAS, the name of a district adjoining to the spring Paneas, with a cognominal town, either enlarged and adorned, or originally built, by Philip son of Herod, and called *Casarea* by Josephus, and in St. Matthew *Casarea of Philip*; with a temple erected to Augustus his benefactor, who conferred the Trachonitis upon him. It was afterwards called *Neronias*, in honour of Nero (Josephus).

PA'NED, *adj.* Variegated; composed of small squares, as a *counterpane* usually is.—I have seen the king come sodainly thither in a maske with a dozen maskers, all in garments like shepards, made of fine cloathe of gold and fine crimson fatten *paned*. *Cavendish's Life of Wolsey*.—Altar-clothes of blew bawdkyn *paned* with red velvette. *Direct. in Warton's Life of Sir T. Pope*.—My hooded cloak, long stocking, and *pan'd* hose. *Masfingers Gr. Duke of Floreuce*.

PANEGYR'IC, *f.* [*panegyrique*, Fr. from *pannyrgis*, Gr.] An eulogy; an encomiastic piece.—The Athenians met at the sepulchres of those slain at Marathon, and there made *panegyrics* upon them. *Stillingfleet*.

To chafe our spleen when themes like these increase,
Shall *panegyric* reign, and censure cease. *Young.*

The word is formed of *παρ*, all, *αγειν*, I assemble; because anciently held in public and solemn assemblies of the Greeks, either at their games, their feasts, fairs, or religious meetings. To make their panegyrics the more solemn, the Greeks used to begin with the praises of the deity in whose honour the games, &c. were celebrated; then they descended to the praise of the people or country where they were celebrated; then to the princes or magistrates who presided at them; and at length to the champions, especially the conquerors, who had gained the prizes in them.

PANEGYR'ICUM, in church-history, an ecclesiastical book, used by the Greek church, containing the panegyric orations of various authors on the solemnities of Jesus Christ and the saints. It is found in MS. in most churches, but it is not the same in all; each church having its particular saints; and the compilers of this kind of books usually suited their collections to the taste of their own devotion. They are disposed according to the order of the months, and frequently consist of twelve volumes, answering to the twelve months of the year.

PANEGYRIC, or PANEGYRICAL, *adj.* Encomiastic; containing praise.—In *panegyric* halleluiahs. *Donne's Poems*.—Some of his odes are *panegyric*al, others moral, the rest jovial, or, if I may so call them, bacchanalian. *Dryden's Pref. to Sylva*.—In his *panegyric*al descriptions, he has seldom descended lower than the centre of their hearts. *Orrery on Swift*.

PANEGY'RIS, *f.* [Greek.] Among the ancient Greeks, a fair, or festival day, on which the people used to meet together. It exactly corresponded to the Nundinæ of the Romans. Hence any festival or public meeting. Milton follows the Greek form of the word *panegyry*.—After another persuasive method, at set and solemn *panegyrics*, in theatres, porches, or what other place or way. *Milton's Reas. of Ch. Gov.*—Rejoicing especially was the practice, on the more solemn and festival performances; at public sacrifice, which they called *panegyres*; a meeting of a side of a county, a province. *Stukely's Palæog. Sacra*.—Will there not open a glorious scene, when God (to use St. Paul's words) shall celebrate the grand *panegyris*? *Harris on Isaiah*.

PANEG'YRIST, *f.* One that writes praise; encomiast.—Add these few lines out of a far more ancient *panegyrist* in the time of Constantine the great. *Camden*.

To PANEG'YRIZE, *v. a.* To commend highly; to bestow great praise upon.—Is not our royal founder already *panegyri*zed by all the universities? *Evelyn*.—Their mode of *panegyri*zing their deceased benefactors seems rather to have been a kind of dramatic representation of their services, than a rhetorical description of them. *Coventry's Phil. to Hyd.*

PAN'EL, *f.* [*panellum*, Lat. *paneau*, Fr. a square or pane.] A square, or piece of any matter inserted between other bodies.—The chariot was all of cedar, save that the fore end had *panels* of sapphires, set in borders of gold. *Bacon*.—Maximilian, his whole history is digested into twenty-four square *panels* of sculpture in bas-relief. *Addison on Italy*.—This fellow will join you together, as they join waincot; then one of you will prove a shrunk *panel*, and, like green timber, warp. *Shakespeare's As you like it*.

A bungler thus, who scarce the nail can hit,
With driving wrong will make the *panel* split. *Swift*.

PANEL, in law. According to sir Edw. Coke *panella*, or *panellum*, denotes "a little part;" but Spelman derives it from *pagella*, a schedule or page; in which sense we say, a *panel* of parchment, a *counterpanel* or counterpart of an indenture, &c. Panel or *pannel* is more commonly used for a schedule, or roll, containing the names of such jurors as the sheriff returns to pass upon a trial; and *empannelling* a jury is nothing but the entering them into

the sheriff's roll or book. *Cowel*.—Then twelve of such as are indifferent, and are returned upon the principal *panel*, or the tales, are sworn to try the same, according to evidence. *Hale's Hist. of England*.

PANEL, in Scots law, signifies the prisoner at the bar, or person who takes his trial before the court of justiciary for some crime.

To PAN'EL, *v. a.* To form into panels: as, a *panelled* wainscot.—A very handsome bridge, the battlements neatly *panelled* with stone. *Pennant*.

PA'NELESS, *adj.* Wanting panes of glass:

How shall I sing the various ill that waits
The careful sonneteer? or who can paint
The shifts enormous that in vain he forms
To patch his *paneless* window?

Shenstone.

PANELLE'NIA, or PANHELLENIA, *f.* [Greek.] An ancient festival, celebrated by an assembly of people from all parts of Greece.

PANE'MUS, *f.* in chronology, the Bœotian name of the Athenian month Metagitmon, which was the second of their year, and answered to the latter part of our July and beginning of August.

PANEMUS, among the Corinthians, answered to the Attic month Boedromion, or, according to Petavius, to our November. In the ancient Macedonian calendar, it was the ninth month of the year: but, after the conquest of Arabia, they gave this name to the sixth month.

PANEPHY'SIS, in ancient geography, a town of Egypt, and capital of a nome, called by Ptolemy *Neut*.

PANERE, a town of the island of Ceylon: twenty-four miles north-north-east of Columbo.

PANETURE, a town of the island of Ceylon: eighteen miles south of Columbo.

PANEUS, a mountain of Syria, which formed part of Mount Libanus, and at the foot of which was situated a town of the same name.

PANG, *f.* [either from *pain*, or from *bang*, Dutch, uneasy.] Extreme pain; sudden paroxysm of torment.—See how-the *pangs* of death do make him grin! *Shakespeare*.

Ah! come not, write not, think not once of me,
Nor share one *pang* of all I felt for thee.

Pope.

To PANG, *v. a.* To torment cruelly.—A kind word, that would make another lover's heart dance for joy, *pangs* poor Will. *Addison's Lover*.

PANG'A, a town on the east coast of Celebes. Lat. 1. 54. S. lon. 121. 16. E.

PANG'A, a town of France, in the department of the Moselle, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Metz; containing 232 inhabitants.

PANGÆUS, a mountain of Thrace, anciently called Mons Caraminus, and joined to Mount Rhodope near the sources of the river Nestus. It was inhabited by four different nations. It was on this mountain that Lycurgus, the Thracian king, was torn to pieces; and that Orpheus called the attention of the wild beasts, and of the mountains and woods to listen to his song. It abounded in gold and silver mines.

PANGASI'NAN, a town on the west coast of the island of Luçon, and capital of a province or kingdom. Lat. 15. 40. N.

PANGAS'MAN, a small island in the Sooloo Archipelago. Lat. 6. 6. N. lon. 120. 58. E.

PANGESANA, an island in the Eastern Indian Sea, about forty-five miles in length, and nine in breadth, situated between the island of Celebes and Bouton. Lat. 5. 5. S. lon. 122. 50. E.

PANGIMODOO', a small island in the Southern Pacific Ocean, at the entrance of the harbour of Tongataboo.

PANG'KER, a town of the duchy of Holstein: three miles north-north west of Lutkenborg.

PANG'LO, or PANGEA'O, one of the smaller Philippine Islands: sixty miles north of Mindanao.

PANG'O, a town of Africa, capital of a province in Vol. XVIII. No. 1246.

the kingdom of Congo, on the Barbela: forty miles north of Congo Batta.

PANGOOTA'ARAN, an island in the Sooloo Archipelago, about ten miles long, and four broad. Lat. 6. 15. N. lon. 120. 28. E.

PANGUET, a small island in the Eastern Indian Sea, near the coast of Queda. Lat. 5. 50. N. lon. 100. 5. E.

PAN'GY, a town on the east coast of the island of Celebes, in Gunong Tellu Bay. Lat. 1. 6. S. lon. 120. 15. E.

PAN'JA, *f.* in botany. See BOMBAX.

PANJAB. See LAHORE.

PANJANG', an island in the Eastern Indian Sea, near the coast of Siam, about fourteen miles long, and six broad. Lat. 8. N. lon. 98. 42. E.

PANJANG', a small island in the Eastern Indian Sea, near the east coast of the island of Borneo. Lat. 2. 15. N. lon. 117. 59. E.

PANJANG', an island near the west coast of Siam, about forty miles in circumference. Lat. 8. N. lon. 98. 42. E.

PANJANG', a small island in the Pacific Ocean, near the north coast of New Guinea. Lat. 3. 18. S. lon. 135. 25. E.

PANIA'NY, a town of Hindoostan, in Calicut, where the Dutch have a factory. Near this place is a passage through the Gauts, about sixteen miles wide, and fifteen in length; occupied by forest-trees, and defended by the fortresses of Animaly and Palicaudcherry; and is the important pass from the Malabar coast to the Mysore dominions. In 1720, it was taken by the British troops under the command of Col. Hartley. It is fifty miles west of Palicaudcherry, and forty south of Calicut. Lat. 10. 42. N. lon. 75. 56. E.

PANJAPILLY, a town of Hindoostan, in Mysore: thirteen miles west-south-west of Caveripatam.

PANIASSAS, a town of Louisiana, on the Akanfas. Lat. 36. 25. N. lon. 94. 21. W.

PANIC, or PANICAL, *adj.* [from *Pan*, "lieutenant-general of Bacchus in his Indian expedition; where, being encompassed in a valley with an army of enemies far superior to them in number, he advised the god to order his men in the night to give a general shout, which so surprised the opposite army, that they immediately fled from their camp: whence it came to pass, that all sudden fears, impressed upon men's spirits without any just reason, were called, by the Greeks and Romans, *panic terrors*." Potter, from Polyænus's Stratagems. "The custom of shouting, to dismay an enemy, seems to have been used by almost all nations, barbarous as well as civil; and is mentioned by all writers who treat of martial affairs. Homer has several elegant descriptions of it, particularly one in the fourth Iliad. We have likewise had our war-whoops, and still have our shouts." *James's Mil. Dict.*] Violent without cause, applied to fear.—The sudden stir and *panical* fear, when chancicleer was carried away by reynard. *Camden's Rem.*—Which many respect to be but a *panic* terror, and men do fear, they justly know not what. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

I left the city in a *panick* fright;
Lions they are in council, lambs in fight. *Dryden.*

PAN'IC, *f.* A sudden fright without cause.—There are many *panicks* in mankind, besides merely that of fear. *Ld. Shaftesbury.*

PAN'IC-GRASS. See PANICUM.

PANICASTRELLA. See CENCHRUS.

PAN'ICI EFFIGIE. See PANICUM.

PANICLE, *f.* [*panicula*, Lat.] In botany, a kind of inflorescence where the flowers are scattered on stalks variously and irregularly divided.—The distinction between a *panicle* and a spike is in all cases very great, but particularly important in the natural family of grasses, where it separates most of the genera into two grand sections. *New Cyclopædia.*

PANICOLO, a town of Naples, in Lavora: twenty-two miles north-west of Naples.

PANICULATE, or PANICULATED, *adj.* [from *panicula*.] Having flowers on long footstalks issuing on all sides from the middle stalk, and growing narrower towards the top.

PANICUM, *f.* [an old Latin name for the most celebrated species, *P. italicum*, and which Faber and Ambrosinus, after Pliny, declare to allude to its panicle of seed. Certainly the inflorescence of that grass, or corn, though now termed a spike, answers peculiarly well to the classical idea of a panicle. (See PANICLE.) Other etymologists deduce the word from *panis*, bread; for which, however, it seems to have served less than many other sorts of grain.] PANIC-GRASS, including MILLET; in botany, a genus of the class triandria, order digynia, natural order of graminæ, or grasses. Generic characters.—Calyx: glume two-flowered, two-valved: valves subovate, nerved: the outer valve a little lower, very small; one floret hermaphrodite, the other neuter or male. Corolla of the hermaphrodite; glume two-valved; the outer valve (in the bosom of the smaller calycine valve) flattish, nerved; the inner membranaceous, flat, with the edges bent in; often small or very small. Nectary two-leaved, very small, gibbous; in the neuter florets, none. Stamina: filaments three, capillary; antheræ oblong; the neuter florets have no stamens. Pistillum: in the hermaphrodites; germ roundish; styles two, capillary; stigmas feathered; in the neuters, none. Pericarpium: none; the corolla adheres to the seeds without opening. Seed one, covered, roundish, flattish on one side. Neglecting the inner valve of the neuter floret, the outer seems to belong to the calyx; hence three calycine valves are commonly reckoned by botanists, among which the third is very small.—*Essential Character.* Calyx two-valved, the third valve very small.

Panicum consists of thirty-four species only in Linn. Syst. Veg. ed. 14. Willdenow has eighty, having profited much by the labours of Retzius and Swartz; the former of whom has described many new species from the East, and the latter a considerable number from the West Indies. The new edition of Ait. Hort. Kew contains twenty-five species, all among those of Willdenow: five of them are natives of England. Only one new species, *P. cruciforme*, is defined in Smith's Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. The whole are distributed by Linnæus, and consequently by Willdenow, into two sections, Flowers spiked, and Flowers panicled. The author last named has forty species in each section. Mr. Brown, however, who has defined thirty-two new species of Panicum, even as he limits the genus, from New Holland alone, has divided it, upon new principles, into seven sections. Of these, for want of knowing his new species, we can form no conclusive judgment; and we shall therefore content ourselves with the old arrangement.

I. Flowers spiked.

1. *Panicum polystachion*, or many-spiked panic-grass: spikes round, involucrets one-flowered, in bundles and bristly; culms erect, branched at top. In the spikes this resembles *P. glaucum*, but they are only half the size, and the pistils are blood-red. Culm rooting at bottom, from one to six feet in height, very much branched. Leaves hairy, at top almost opposite. Involucrets almost six times as long as their flowers, purple, with ciliate bristles from the base to the middle with longish hairs. Native of the East Indies. Biennial. Loureiro, however, describes the culm as annual, only two feet high, upright, slender, round, jointed. Native of Cochinchina.

2. *Panicum sericeum*, or silky panic-grass: spike round, involucrets bristle-shaped villose one-flowered the length of the flowers; leaves flat. This is an annual grass, native of the West Indies. It was introduced in 1780, by John earl of Bute; it flowers from June to September.

3. *Panicum verticillatum*, or rough panic-grass: spike

whorled, racemelets in fours, involucrets one-flowered, two-bristled, culms diffused. This in its general habit agrees exactly with *P. viride*; but, in the size and form of the spike, and the parts composing it, differs very materially: the whole plant is generally one-third larger; the spike also is larger, and much less compact; it is evidently composed of little branches, which grow somewhat in whorls, whence its name: the bristles of the spike are considerably shorter than those of the viride, and differ from them particularly in being hooked, so that the spikes readily adhere to any thing; and, where several of them grow near each other, they are very apt, from this cause, to become entangled. According to Linnæus, the spike is composed of longer racemes than in *P. viride*, three or four in number, directed one way downwards. Flowers green, with purple pistils. Bristles one or two, rugged, to each flower, and longer than that. Pedicels on the falling of the flowers terminated by a truncate, concave, white cup. Culms even, two feet high; spike from two inches and a half to four inches in length, and near half an inch broad. Native of Europe, the Levant, and Japan. In England, Mr. Ray describes it as having been found between Putney and Roehampton, and beyond the Neat-houses by the Thames side. Mr. Curtis found it sparingly in the gardener's-ground in Battersea-fields, with the viride, and flowering at the same time. Scheuchzer remarks, that it is a troublesome weed in the gardens near Paris. Thunberg describes two varieties, a larger and a smaller; the latter seeming to be distinct.

4. *Panicum helvolum*, or pale-red panic-grass: spike round, involucrets one-flowered, in bundles and bristly; seeds nerved. This is an annual grass, bearing a great resemblance to *P. glaucum*, but in reality different. Culm six feet high, branched; barren branches shorter. Leaves towards the base above with white hairs near an inch in length, and spreading. Spike simple, a span long. Involucrets pale-red, one-flowered, many-bristled, longer than the flower. Glume, with longitudinal streaks, (but no transverse waved ones,) green, distinct. Native of the East Indies.

5. *Panicum glaucum*, or glaucous panic-grass: spike round, involucrets two-flowered in bundles and hairy, seeds waved and wrinkled. Root fibrous, annual. Culms a foot high, erect, leafy, having four knots, grooved at the top, even. Leaves broadish, flat, even, the upper one often longer than the spike. Spike as in the next species: the florets disposed in rows, three times as large, subsessile, solitary and in pairs, accompanied by bristles, finally becoming yellow, shorter than in *P. viride*. Native of the East Indies, America, and several parts of Europe, as Italy, the south of France, Germany, Switzerland. It flowers in June and July. Introduced in 1771, by Mons. Richard.

6. *Panicum viride*, or green panic-grass: spike round, involucrets two-flowered in bundles and hairy, seeds nerved. This is distinct enough from the preceding in having smooth seeds, not transversely waved and wrinkled. The glumes are nerved, as in the preceding. Scopoli says, that the third glume is not always present; Leers, that it is always wanting.

Mr. Curtis remarks, that this species, to correspond with its trivial name, should be always green; but that its foliage is often red, and its spikes reddish-brown; and that the verticillatum is the contrary; but the spike will always distinguish them. The hairs in the spike of the viride are much longer than those of the verticillatum; and, though the microscope discovers them to be prickly, yet, being upright, they show no manifest roughness.

Leers thus describes it. Root annual. Culms from a foot to eighteen inches in height, oblique, leafy, having three knots, streaked at top, rugged. Spike ovate-cylindrical, unequal in thickness, green, frequently tinged with violet on one side. The third petal of the corolla is found in the preceding, in *crus galli* and *miliaceum*, but not

not in this. According to Mr. Curtis, the calyx has three valves, two of which are opposite, equal, ovate, obtuse, ribbed; the third very minute, and placed below the others: the corolla has two valves, which are ovate, hollow, thinning, and nearly equal. He observes, that sparrows are remarkably fond of the seeds; and that the whole of this genus, when cultivated in a garden, require to be protected from them. Native of Europe, as Germany, Carniola, England. With us not common, though the most common of the panicums. In Battersea-fields, near London; by Martha's chapel, near Guildford in Surrey; and in the gravel-pits by Chippenham-park, Cambridge-shire, and the corn-fields adjoining. It flowers in July and August, and is an annual grass of no use in cultivation.

7. *Panicum Germanicum*, or German panic-grass: spike compound, close; spikelets glomerate; involucrets bristle-shaped, longer than the flower; rachis hirsute. This has been confounded with the next species, from which it is distinct, in having the spike not interrupted at the base, smaller and ovate; in the height of the culm; in the shortness of the involucrets; and in having the rachis hirsute. Mr. Miller says, it rises with a jointed reed-like stalk about three feet high, and about the size of the common reed; with a leaf at each joint a foot and a half long, and about an inch broad at the base where broadest, ending in an acute point, rough to the touch, embracing the stalk at the base, and turning downwards about half the length. The stalks are terminated by compact spikes, about the thickness of a man's finger at bottom, growing taper towards the top, eight or nine inches long, closely set with small roundish grain like that of millet. It is annual, and perishes soon after the seeds are ripe. There are three varieties of it, with yellow, white, and purple, grains. It has been formerly cultivated for bread, in some of the northern countries; but is not so much esteemed as the Italian sort; since, however, it will ripen better in a cold climate than that, it is generally cultivated where a better sort of grain will not succeed: neither of them are reckoned to afford so good nourishment as millet. Native of the southern part of Europe.

8. *Involucrets shorter than the flower*. Willdenow says, that he has frequently received the seeds of this variety under the name of *P. indicum* and *sibiricum*; that it approaches in habit to *P. verticillatum*, on account of the very short involucrets, sometimes scarcely visible without tearing the spikelets in pieces; but that it differs very much in the hairiness of the rachis, which in *P. verticillatum* is smooth.

9. *Panicum Italicum*, or Italian panic-grass: spike compound, with the base interrupted, nodding; spikelets glomerate; involucrets bristle-shaped, much longer than the flower; rachis tomentose. Culm annual, from a foot and a half to near four feet high, and much thicker than that of the preceding; the leaves are also broader. The spikes are a foot long, and twice the thickness of those of the former, but not so compact, being composed of several roundish clustered spikes; the grain is also larger. There are two or three varieties of this differing only in the colour of the grain. It is frequently cultivated in Italy (whence its trivial name) and other warm countries. It is a native of both Indies, and of CochinChina; and was cultivated by Mr. Miller in 1739. It flowers in July and August.

10. *Panicum setosum*, or bristly panic-grass: spike compound, spikelets panicle-fascicled, bristles mixed with the florets and very long, peduncles almost smooth. Height from two to four feet. Culm simple, erect, round, smooth, leafy. Leaves half a foot long, lanceolate, flat, entire, pubescent; sheaths embracing the culm, villose at the neck. Spike terminating, compound, a foot long, composed of panicle-fascicled racemes half an inch in length. Spikelets two to four, clustered, pedicelled, unequal, mixed with bristles, green. It approaches near to *P.*

Italicum; but in that the spikelets are glomerate, on hirsute pedicels.

11. *Panicum lanceolatum*, or spear-leaved panic-grass: spikes alternate, outer valve of the calyxes ciliate and awned, leaves lanceolate. Culms simple, decumbent, leafy, rooting, long. Leaves naked, nerved, with very fine lines between the nerves, ciliate at the base. Spike composed of alternate spikelets an inch long. Flowers directed one way, alternately in pairs, on a flexuose three-cornered rachis, one larger, both awned, sometimes, but seldom, on the lower part of the spike, solitary; all green. Native of the East Indies, whence it was sent by Koenig.

12. *Panicum stagninum*, or pond panic-grass: spikes alternate, directed one way; calyxes two-flowered, awned, hispid. Culms erect, three feet high, leafy. Spike compound, half a foot long. Spikelets an inch and a half in length; flowers in pairs and solitary, rather large. Native of the East Indies, in ponds. Found by Koenig.

13. *Panicum crus corvi*, or crow-foot panic-grass: spikes alternate, directed one way; spikelets subdivided; glumes sometimes awned, hispid; rachis three-cornered. Culm annual, two feet high, suberect, manifold, jointed, leafy. All the florets hermaphrodite. Though Loureiro describes it under the name of *crus corvi*, he observes that it is intermediate between that and *crus galli*, and different from both. Linnæus remarks, that it resembles the next species very much, but that it is less and more tender; the panicle more nodding, with a three-cornered (not five-cornered) rachis; the flowers on the spike are directed one way, and not incumbent all round on the rachis. Native of the East Indies, CochinChina, and Japan. Introduced in 1781 by Monf. Thouin. It flowers in July and August.

14. *Panicum crus galli*, or thick-spiked cock's-foot panic-grass: spikes alternate and conjugate; spikelets subdivided; glumes awned, hispid; rachis five-cornered. Root annual. Culms several, from one to two feet in height, thick, at first procumbent or oblique, but finally almost upright. Flowering-branches leafy, naked at top, even. Leaves on the culm very wide, flat, even on both sides, hispid at the edges. Instead of a ligule, a short triangular membrane, adnate, dusky. Sheaths loose, compressed a little, cloven, even; the lower ones acute, leafless. General rachis linear, flattish, rugged, with one angle underneath, scarcely projecting, two at the sides sharper, and one above, with a groove for the insertion of the branches. Partial rachis three-cornered, somewhat flexuose, subdivided, involucred at the base with whitish hairs in bundles. Florets clustered, directed one way, on very short subdivided peduncles, with bundles of hairs at the base. Calyx nerved, pubescent, rugged; two of the valves mucronate, and the third flat and awned; the awn terminating, rugged, straight, short.

Mr. Curtis remarks, that the leaves in more humble plants are three or four inches long, and from two to three lines in breadth; in taller plants six inches or nearly a foot in length, four lines and sometimes six or seven broad, tapering to a point, keeled, smooth, the edges very finely toothed, and about the mouth of the sheath hairy. Spikes pale-green, sometimes varying to purple. Spikelets often twelve in number, thick, roundish, the lowermost an inch and a half in length, longer and farther asunder than any of the rest. Seeds rather large, shining, covered by the valves of the corolla, round on one side, and flat on the other. These seeds being large and plentiful, this grass is much sought after by small birds. Native of Virginia, the Cape of Good Hope, and several parts of Europe, as Sweden, Germany, Switzerland, the south of France, and in England. Thomas Willifell found it in a garden between Deptford and Greenwich; with a smooth spike, in a lane near the Neat-house gardens; with an awned spike, by the rivulet-side near Petersfield, Hampshire, by Mr. Goodyer. Mr. Hudson describes it as growing by Martha's Chapel near Guildford.

Guildford. Dr. Milne found it in a coppice near Purfleet; and Mr. Curtis observed it in Battersea-fields. He has figured it without any awns, in which state it most frequently occurs with us. Leers remarks, that the florets are scarcely awned in cultivated grounds, but that in wet places it is found with very long awns. Linnæus says, that the latter, β , with awns ten times as long as the glumes, differs manifestly from the common sort, in which the awns are scarcely half as long again as the glumes.

14. *Panicum setigerum*, or bristle-bearing panic-grafs: spikes remote; florets directed one way; teeth of the rachis bristle-bearing. Culms filiform, branched, leafy. Leaves two inches long, subcordate at the base, with the edges of the sheaths ciliate. Flowers directed one way, in pairs, really sessile, one of them placed higher than the other. Native of China, whence it was sent by Bladh.

Retzius is of opinion, that *P. repens* of Burmann, Ind. 26. t. 11. f. 1. is not the *repens* of Linnæus, nor the *grossarium*, but this species.

15. *Panicum colonum*, or purple panic-grafs: spikes alternate, directed one way, awnless, ovate, rugged; rachis roundish. Root annual. Culms a span high, round, ascending. Native of the East Indies. Cultivated in 1699 by the dukes of Beaufort. It flowers in July and August.

16. *Panicum fluitans*, or floating panic-grafs: spikes alternate, sessile, directed one way; the third calycine valve minute. This is a very beautiful smooth even grafs. It differs from *P. brizoides*, which it resembles very much, in having the two valves of the calyx of the same length with the corolla, the accessory valve only short and refuse: both have the appearance of a *Paspalum*. Native of the East Indies, Arabia, and Madagascar.

17. *Panicum brizoides*, or briza-like panic-grafs: spikes alternate, sessile, directed one way; two of the calycine valves much shorter than the corolla, and refuse; the third the same length with the corolla. Native of the East Indies.

Swartz describes a grafs of Jamaica under this name, but it may be doubted whether it is the same species. Culm from one to three feet high, simple, round, even. Leaves broadish, not long, acute, erect, rugged at the edge, striated, sheathing at the base; the neck beardless. Rachis terminating, almost a foot long, simple, linear. Stigmas purple. Seed fastened to the corolla, roundish.

18. *Panicum eruciforme*, or caterpillar panic-grafs: spike compound; its branches alternate, erect, close-pressed, linear, hairy; flowers crowded, turned to one side, without awns; stems branched from the bottom. Discovered by Dr. Sibthorp in fields about the temple of Juno, in the island of Samos. Differs from the last in having a slender hairy stem, branched from the bottom, with numerous bent joints; leaves short and spreading; branches of the spike more slender, linear, and hairy; glumes less tumid, and the outermost valve of the calyx much more minute.

19. *Panicum flavidum*, or yellowish panic-grafs: culm leafy; spikelets remote, sessile, pressed close, directed one way, few-flowered. This is an upright grafs, from two inches to half a foot in height. Root fibrous, the fibres undivided. Culms several, erect, clothed with smooth leaves to the very lowest spike. Spikelets from three to seven, short, commonly six-flowered, erect, sessile, pressed close, three quarters of an inch distant from each other. Flowers globular, alternate, directed one way, yellow with green nerves; all the glumes of the calyx violet-coloured at the tip. It is very nearly allied to *P. brizoides*, which however is larger, green, and has longer leaves, with sheaths relatively narrower. The spikelets have as far as thirteen ovate white unspotted florets. Native of Ceylon, whence it was sent by Koenig.

20. *Panicum dimidiatum*, or half-spiked panic-grafs: spike halved, and directed one way; spikelets five-flowered; alternately pressed to the hollowed rachis. Culm ten feet

high, very finely striated, ascending. Leaves at the base of the culm distichally alternate, three inches long, on the middle of the culm one; all linear, blunt. Spike terminating, linear, three inches long, as it were halved. Rachis dilated, membranaceous, jointed, at the joints alternately deeply gashed, excavated alternately in front for the spikelets. Spikelets five-flowered, glued as it were in the hollow of the rachis, sessile, with the partial rachis flexuose. Flowers awl-shaped, sessile, striated, flat in front, gibbous behind. Calyx three-valved, one-flowered; outer valve cartilaginous, flat, with the sides bent at a right angle, lanceolate, streaked; inner equal in length, thinner, boat-form, gibbous, rounded and striated at the back, ciliate-bearded at the tip, involving the edges of the outer valve; accessory valve short, truncated, at the base of the outer valve. Corolla equal in length to the calyx, but narrower. This is the *P. dimidiatum* of Linnæus, very different from that grafs which the younger Linnæus made a species of *Rottbollia*. Native of the East Indies, where it was found by Koenig.

21. *Panicum Burmanni*, or wave-leaved panic-grafs: spikes mostly four, remote, directed one way, simple; the two outer glumes of the flowers awned. This is very different from *P. hirtellum* of Linnæus. Culm decumbent, branched, villose, and rooting at the base. Spikelets four to three. Rachis clothed with long hairs, especially under the pedicels. Florets alternate, commonly abortive. Corolla snow-white, very smooth. Native of the East Indies, whence it was sent by Koenig; also of Italy.

22. *Panicum hirtellum*, rough-haired panic-grafs, or Scotch grafs: spike compound; spikelets pressed close, alternate; calyxes doubled; all the valves awned, outer longest. Culm creeping, ascending, three inches to a foot. The smaller leaves waved, the larger stiff. Spike compound. Spikelets directed one way. Three valves of the calyx almost equal; the fourth, which is inmost, minute, membranaceous, awnless. The awns of the others long, (five times as long as the valve in the outmost,) ferruginous-red, glutinous; according to Linnæus, filiform, blunt, finally hooked. Antheræ whitish; stigmas feathered, long, blood-red. Native of the West Indies. This grafs is cultivated, and thrives very luxuriantly, in all the low and marshy lands of Jamaica, where it is almost universally used as fodder for all their stabled cattle: it is planted near the towns with great care, and found to be one of the most beneficial productions of the island. Its general growth is from two to four feet.

23. *Panicum pilosum*, or hairy panic-grafs: spikes panicled, alternate, directed one way; spikelets in pairs, one smaller, acuminate, even; rachis compressed, hairy; culm divaricate, jointed. Culm three or four feet high, branched, compressed, even: joints villose, large. Leaves lanceolate, acute, even, rugged at the edge. Native of Jamaica, and other islands in the West Indies, in woody mountainous pastures.

24. *Panicum molle*, or soft panic-grafs: spikes panicled, alternate, directed one way, spreading; spikelets approximating, pedicelled, directed one way, awnless. Culm from two to three feet high, decumbent at the base, ascending, subdivided at bottom, jointed, round, thick, pubescent. Leaves long, broad-lanceolate, rounded at the base, flat, villose, soft. Valves of the corolla in the hermaphrodite florets nearly equal, ovate; one flatter. Antheræ very dark purple; stigmas the same, and villose. Seed oblong, shining. Valves of the neuter corolla unequal: outer ovate, striated, brown; inner flat, whitish, minute. It is known immediately from the other species by its softness. The culms being thick and succulent, it is very grateful to cattle. Swartz says that it is a native of Surinam, and is commonly called *Dutch-grafs* in Jamaica, where it grows in moistish fertile pastures.

25. *Panicum fasciculatum*, or fascicled panic-grafs: spikes panicled, alternate, erect, subfastigate; spikelets directed

directed one way, roundish. Height two or three feet. Culm jointed, erect, round, leafy, smooth. Leaves a foot long, rounded at the base, broad-lanceolate, acute, streaked longitudinally, rough at the edge: sheaths long, striated, smooth, subvillose at the edge and neck. Spikes terminating, half a foot long, subverticillate. Florets roundish or ovate, small, brown. Outer valve of the calyx one third of the size of the other: inner ovate, concave, marked with longitudinal lines, appearing netted when magnified, ferruginous-brown. Valves of the hermaphrodite corolla ovate, whitish; one smaller, included. Male corolla empty: outer valve like the inner valve of the calyx; inner smaller, whitish, ovate. Native of Jamaica, in low grassy places.

26. *Panicum Carthaginense*, or *Carthagera panic-grafs*: spikes panicled; leaves shorter; spikelets directed one way, roundish. Roots long, filiform, stiff, perennial. Culm a foot high, very much branched, jointed, prostrate, compressed a little, grooved, stiff, smooth. Branches from the sheaths of the leaves, in bundles. Leaves rounded at the base, lanceolate, acuminate, two or three inches long, flat, entire, sometimes waved at the edge, striated a little, smooth: sheaths longer than the leaves, wide, longitudinally open, striated, pubescent, very much contracted at the edge and neck, subvillose. Spikes on every side terminating the branches, commonly shorter than the leaves, an inch long, frequently concealed in the sheaths. Native of Carthagera in South America in grassy places.

27. *Panicum conglomeratum*, or conglomerate panic-grafs: spike directed one way, subovate; florets blunt. It is thus described by Linnæus, in his *Mantissa*, under the name of *P. indicum*: "Culms filiform, prostrate, very much branched, rooting. Leaves lanceolate, even, with the sheaths shorter than half the internodes. Raceme terminating, peduncled, subspiked, small, shorter than the leaf, often eight-flowered, without hairs. Flowers alternate, sometimes two in the same tooth of the lower raceme, ovate. Pistils feathered, the size of the whole flower." Retzius describes it under the same name, as a filiform grafs, half a foot in height. Culm ascending, naked above. Spikes scarcely half an inch in length, without any involucrets. Inner valves of the calyx slightly hispid, almost equal, boat-shaped, acute: accessory valve blunt, minute. He can scarcely think it to be the *P. conglomeratum*, which seems to him to be the *Aira indica* of the *Species Plantarum*; for in *P. indicum* the spike is not directed one way, nor are the florets blunt. Native of the East Indies, by towns and in the streets: sent by Koenig.

28. *Panicum interruptum*, or broken-spiked panic-grafs: spike simple, interrupted; spikelets two-flowered, pedicelled, naked. This grafs is three feet high, and smooth. Knots of the culm black. Sheaths smooth. Leaves long, linear, striated, smooth. Spike a foot long, narrow. Flowers clustered. Peduncles one-flowered. Calyx two-flowered, two of the valves equal, acute, nerved; the accessory one less, obovate, obtuse, membranaceous. It differs from all the species in the inflorescence. Native of the East Indies, in stagnant waters.

29. *Panicum fanguinale*, or slender-spiked cock's-foot panic-grafs: spikes digitate, knobbed at the inner base; florets in pairs, awnless; sheaths of the leaves dotted. Root annual. Culms leafy, even, with three joints, at the two lower procumbent, the upper oblique; a foot high. Flowering-branches from the joints. Leaves two inches long. Sheaths somewhat compressed, blood-red, even, dotted. Rachis linear, subflexuose, flat, rugged, with a prominent nerve above, for the insertion of the florets; which, on the convex side, are pressed to the rachis, two together, or often three in each tooth: calyx awnless, pubescent: the third valve is flat, three-nerved, acute, sometimes violet-coloured; stigmas purple. Seed rufous, shining.

It is suspected that our *P. fanguinale* is not the same

with that of Linnæus. Mr. Curtis is induced to consider our plant as the sanguinale of Linnæus, rather by the figures and descriptions quoted by him, than by his specific distinction, which does not well accord with our plant; so that there yet remains a doubt whether our plant may not be the *P. filiforme* figured by Jacquin, *Obs.* 3. t. 70. It is observed by Miss Jennings of this grafs, that all the stems which lie near the ground take root; and by this means, though an annual and short-lived plant, it increases and spreads very wide. Heister, Haller, Scopoli, and Adanson, arrange this and some other species of *Panicum* under a distinct genus, which they call *Digitaria*, from the disposition of the spikes, like the fingers of the hand spread out. But, these having a three-leaved calyx, it seems better to continue them, with Linnæus, Schreber, &c. under the genus *Panicum*. This species is very universal; being found not only in Europe, but in Asia and America, and the Society Isles in the Southern Ocean: nevertheless it is not common in England. It grows at Elden in Suffolk, Witchingham in Norfolk, near Martha's Chapel by Guildford, Wandsworth-field, and in the gardener's grounds near Battersea: flowering from July to September. The name of *fanguinale* is not taken from its colour, but from an idle trick which the boys in Germany have of pricking one another's nostrils with the spikelets of this grafs till they draw blood.

30. *Panicum dactylon*, or fingered panic-grafs: spikes digitate, spreading; villose at the base on the inside; flowers solitary; runners creeping. Culm creeping at the base, and above that upright, nine inches or a foot in height, glaucous, smooth, frequently branched from the lower joints. Leaves keeled, acuminate, stiffish, from one to four inches in length, one or two lines in breadth, hirsute on both sides, somewhat rugged, glaucous. Sheath smooth with a yellow spot on each side at the insertion of the leaf. Joints purple, smooth, sometimes eight or nine. Spikes linear, four, five, or six, directed one way, three-sided, slightly hairy at the base, proceeding in a bundle from the top of the culm, at first purple, but by age acquiring the colour of chaff. Sometimes in the bundle of spikes a short branch springs forth, on the top of which is another bundle of spikes, few in number. The spikelets at first are pressed close to the scape; but in the time of flowering they recede in a vertical direction from it; and afterwards proximate to it again.

There is some little doubt whether ours be the exact plant characterised by Linnæus as the *P. dactylon*. Clusius's figure has long awns to the florets: but perhaps in the milder climates, of Spain and Italy the plant may be awned, though not so with us. In the figures of Bauhin, Morison, Monti, and Scheuchzer, there are no awns; and therefore they agree better with our plant. The hairs mentioned in the specific character, on the inside the base of the spikes, are not so evident in our specimens as to justify such an application; for, though our plants have some hairiness there, they have it at least as much on the outside, and still more in other parts. Native of Europe, the Levant, and the Cape of Good Hope. First found in England by Mr. Newton, between Penzance and Marazion in Cornwall; and lately again in the same place by Mr. Stackhouse. It flowers in July and August, till late in the autumn.

31. *Panicum umbrosum*, or shady panic-grafs: spikes about four, remote; florets in pairs, unequally pedicelled; culm creeping, flaccid. Culms filiform, a foot high, ascending, leafy, weak, putting out roots at the joints. Leaves linear-lanceolate, short, naked. Native of the East Indies, in shady grafs-spots: sent by Koenig.

32. *Panicum filiforme*, or filiform-spiked panic-grafs: spikes subdigitate, approximating, erect, filiform; rachis flexuose; teeth two-flowered, one sessile; inner valve very small; culm and leaves smooth; leaves lanceolate. Culms almost leafless, a foot high, filiform, at top naked, upright. Spikes slender, at first so close as to appear one, although

they are alternate. Native of North America, where it was found by Kalm. Also of Japan and the Cape of Good Hope, according to Thunberg; of the Society and Easter Islands. Introduced in 1781 by Monf. Thouin. It is an annual grass; flowering from July to September.

33. *Panicum Ægyptiacum*, or Egyptian panic-grass: spikes subdigitate, approximating, erect, filiform; rachis flexuose; teeth two-flowered; flowers pedicelled; inner valve three-nerved; culm and leaves hairy. Resembles the preceding very much, but differs in having the culm and leaves hairy, the spikes a little thicker, but especially in having the inner valve ovate, twice as large, and three-nerved: the accessory valve is extremely minute. It is an annual grass as well as the former. Culms from one to two feet high, covered with sheaths that have long hairs closely set. Its native place is not ascertained, notwithstanding its trivial name.

34. *Panicum ciliare*, or ciliated panic-grass: spikes subdigitate, approximating, erect, filiform; rachis flexuose; teeth two-flowered; flowers pedicelled; outer valve ciliate; culms and leaves hairy. Height a foot and a half, branched at the base. Outer glume of the calyx smaller, lanceolate; inner larger, the length of the corolla, hairy at both edges: the accessory valve is a scalelet scarcely observable, and often wanting. Corolla quite smooth. Flowers lanceolate, acute, one of them sessile. It varies with the leaves more or less hairy; and with the sheaths and joints hairy, and naked. This resembles *P. filiforme* so much, that they may easily be confounded: and perhaps, sanguinale, filiforme, Ægyptiacum, and ciliare, are nothing more than varieties. This species was brought from Java and China by Wennerberg.

35. *Panicum lineare*, or linear-spiked panic-grass: spikes digitate, in fours or thereabouts, linear; florets solitary, directed one way, awnless. Native of both Indies. Retzius says he had it from Koenig, with the culms branching very much, and leafy to the very spikes, with tender leaves; and from Thunberg, gathered at the Cape of Good Hope, with the culms creeping, less leafy at top, the leaves far more rigid, and the sheaths equitant in two rows. He doubts whether they are the same or different.

36. *Panicum cinicinum*, or bug panic-grass: panicle umbelled; racemes in fours; one of the calycine glumes ciliate; root annual. Culms a foot high, upright or ascending, even. Leaves lanceolate, even, ciliate. Flowers alternate: the outer flower falls entire with the seed, and on account of the hairs in some measure resembles a bug. Linnæus, not observing the glume which is received by the margin of that which is awned, but taking the smaller glume of the calyx for a glume of the corolla, made this grass a *Milium*. Koenig, who found it in the East Indies, first discovered it to be a *Panicum*.

37. *Panicum distachyon*, or distich-spiked panic-grass: spikes in pairs, directed one way. Culm somewhat branched, a foot high, narrower. Leaves short, rugged at the edge. Spikes two together, (according to Retzius commonly three, and sometimes four,) terminating, nearly equal. Flowers sessile in a double longitudinal row along the rachis, awnless, ovate, even; antheræ yellow; pistils feathered, purple. It has the appearance of *Paspalum distichum*; but the leaves are lanceolate and flat, not bristle-shaped and involuted; flowers sharpish, but not mucronate; the calyx has a short accessory valve, whereas there is none in *Paspalum*. Native of the East Indies, where it was found by Koenig.

38. *Panicum squarrosum*, or scaly panic-grass: spikes in pairs, horizontal; involucre of the flowers squarrose; culms decumbent. Culms prostrate, rooting, branched, leafy. Leaves short, clustered, tomentose, as are also the sheaths. Rachis membranaceous, dilated, flexuose, jointed; at each joint a bundle of two or three flowers, fenced with involucre or difform cartilaginous bractes: one valve of the calyx very large, ovate, acuminate, flexuose, the other smaller, lanceolate; both hard and cartilaginous

like the bractes; the accessory valve small, acute, under the larger. A bundle of barren flowers terminates the spike. The appearance and structure are so singular, that it seems to constitute a distinct genus. It has somewhat the appearance of a *Cenchrus*; and Linnæus placed it in that genus. Willdenow remarks, that the spikes are usually in pairs, but that there is only one in Linnæus's own specimen. Native of the East Indies. Annual. Frequent in the sands of Malabar during the rainy season.

39. *Panicum hispidulum*, or hispid panic-grass: spikes binate and ternate, erect; calyxes hispid, two-awned. This approaches nearest to *P. stagninum*, but is very different. The culms and leaves are the same as in that. Spikes compound, half a foot long, in clusters; spikelets scarcely an inch in length, almost pressed to the rachis, binate, ternate, or solitary. Outer valve of the calyx terminating in a naked awn four times as long as the flower; inner somewhat longer, terminated by a dagger-point, or short awn; both hispid, especially at the edge: the accessory valve short, from a wide base surrounding the pedicel, ending in a point, naked. Corolla as in *stagninum*, but acuminate and hermaphrodite: besides, between the corolla and that valve of the calyx which has the longer awn, there is a hyaline petal, as in *P. stagninum*; but in this there is no rudiment of stamens or pistil. Native of the East Indies; sent by Koenig.

40. *Panicum compositum*, or compound-spiked panic-grass: spike compound; spikelets linear, directed one way; florets in pairs, remote; calyxes awned. Culm creeping, leafy, rising, filiform, tender, simple. Leaves lanceolate, wider than in the rest, shorter. Spikelets four or five, alternate, remote, pressed to the rachis, growing on one side. Valves of the calyx lanceolate, slightly keeled, mucronate, with a straight awn, double the length of the florets, except the innermost, which has the awn shorter. Native of Ceylon; and the Society-isles in the Southern Ocean, according to Forster.

41. *Panicum elatius*, or tall panic-grass: spike compound, spikelets oblong scattered pressed close, florets crowded, calyxes mucronate-awned. This resembles the preceding very much. Culm upright, stiff, six feet high. Leaves long. It is an annual grass, native of Malabar.

II. Flowers panicled.

42. *Panicum dichotomum*, or dichotomous panic-grass: panicles simple, culm branched dichotomous. In stature this grass emulates a small tree, simple below, and fascicled above. Native of Virginia.

43. *Panicum ramosum*, or branched panic-grass: panicle with simple branches, flowers in threes or thereabouts, lower subsessile, culm branched. Culms a foot high, erect, branched, even; with the internodes thickish at the base, and knee-jointed. Native of the Indies.

44. *Panicum deustum*, or burnt panic-grass: panicle spreading, flowers solitary, glumes smooth, purple at the tip. Native of the Cape of Good Hope. Found there by Thunberg.

45. *Panicum coloratum*, or coloured panic-grass: panicle spreading, stamens and pistils coloured, culm branched, (quite simple, *Jacquin*.) Culms two feet high, very much branched, even, with the sheaths of the leaves hairy, and at length rugged. Panicle spreading very wide, loofish, with filiform branches. Glumes one-flowered, awnless, ovate, green and purple, eight-grooved; antheræ saffron-coloured, and pistils deep violet, by which it is readily distinguished from *P. capillare* and others. It is an annual grass, found by Forskahl near Cairo.

Jacquin describes the root as perennial, composed of thick long whitish fibres. Culms annual, several, aggregate, thickening at the base into a sort of bulb, and there connected and rooting; erect, round, smooth; not branched, as Linnæus says they are, but quite simple without the least branchlet, only connate immediately above the root. Leaves ensiform-linear, about ten inches in length,

length, four lines in width, acuminate, even, smooth, sometimes thinly haired below, loose, prominent underneath into a sharp midrib, sometimes flat, sometimes converging, cartilaginous, toothed at the edges, only to be discerned by the magnifier. Panicle spreading very much, filiform, branched, wide. Flowers scattered, solitary, on capillary pedicels, which are commonly pressed so close to the branchlets of the panicle as not to be discerned, so that the flowers appear to be sessile. Corolla whitish, pellucid, obtuse, nearly the size of the calyx; filaments white, purple at the tip; antheræ twin, oblong, yellow; stigmas feathered, purple. The seeds were sent from St. Domingo. It was introduced here as a native of Egypt in 1771, by Monf. Richard; and flowers in July and August.

46. *Panicum repens*, or creeping panic-grass: panicle rod-like, leaves divaricating. This is allied to the preceding. Culms creeping, a foot high, ascending. Lower leaves wider, covering the stem all over with their sheaths; spreading so much, that they are almost divaricate and reflex, mucronate; the sheaths subpubescent: the upper leaves are narrower, longer, erect. It is an annual grass, cultivated in the East Indies. It was introduced in 1777, by Patrick Ruffel, M. D. and flowers from July to September.

47. *Panicum Ischæmoides*, or white panic-grass: panicle erect contracted, calyxes two-flowered polygamous acute, culm simple, leaves distich rigid. Culms upright, quite simple, leafy. Leaves spreading, with the sheaths tomentose at the edge. The whole grass is whitish, and is taller than the other panics. It is very common in Malabar, on the borders of ponds: found by Koenig.

48. *Panicum remotum*, or distant panic-grass: branches of the panicle three-sided, florets subgeminat one pedicelled, culm branched four-cornered compressed. Culms two feet high and more, slender, four-cornered compressed, branching. Leaves linear, from four to six inches long, narrow, naked. Koenig sent this from Tranquebar.

49. *Panicum aristatum*, or awned panic-grass: culm creeping rooting, branches of the panicle undivided, florets in pairs sessile awned. Culm branched, creeping far and wide, putting out long and very simple fibres at the joints, thence rising straight, pubescent above the leaves, which are lanceolate, naked, and short. Wennerberg brought this from China.

50. *Panicum miliaceum*, or millet: panicle loose flaccid, sheaths of the leaves rough-haired, glumes mucronate nerved. Common millet rises with a reed-like channelled stalk, from three to four feet high: at every joint there is one reed-like leaf, joined on the top of the sheath, which embraces and covers that joint of the stalk below the leaf, and is clothed with soft hairs; the leaf has none, but has several small longitudinal furrows running parallel to the midrib. The stalk is terminated by a large loose panicle, hanging on one side. Loureiro describes the culm as annual; upright, thick, somewhat compressed and flexuose, hollow, jointed, branched. Leaves awl-shaped, largish, hairy, flat, reflex. Native of the East Indies, and China. In those countries, as also in the south of Europe, it is cultivated as an esculent grain. It varies in the colour of the seed.

β. *P. attenuatum*, has the panicle attenuated, the culm upright, the leaves lanceolate, the sheaths even and smooth. Gerard, in his Herbal, (1597,) says, "I have of it yearly in my garden."

Miller mentions two varieties, one with white, the other with black, seeds, but not differing in any other particular. He has also another species, which he names *Milium sparsum*. It was found at Vera Cruz by Houftoun, who called it *M. panicula ampla erecta sparsa*. It has a more slender stalk than common millet, about three feet high. The sheaths have no hairs, but are channelled. The leaves are shorter; the panicle stands erect, and the chaff has shorter awns or beards.

Loureiro mentions a variety with brownish or dusky

red seeds. Retzius describes the variety with black seeds (*Milium femine nigro*. Bauh. Pin. 26. and Mor. Hist. iii. 196. t. 5. f. 2.) Culm round, jointed almost upright, branched. Leaves a foot long, half an inch wide, hairy, with hispid sheaths: no ligule, but instead of it widish bristles. Flowers on each pedicel commonly two, sometimes one or three, pedicelled; sometimes, but very seldom, one sessile; corolla globular, hyaline; seed brownish-black.

51. *Panicum antidotale*, or medicinal panic-grass: panicle nodding, calyxes two-flowered polygamous acute; culm erect, very much branched. Root perennial, stoloniferous. Culms eight feet high and more, erect, branching very much. Leaves round at the edge, and on the larger nerves; edges of the sheaths bearded with bundles of whitish hairs like fringes. Panicle a foot long, branching very much. Pedicels two-flowered, so that one flower is subsessile on the pedicel of the other. Florets copious, green, round, acuminate; hermaphrodite floret two-petalled. Cultivated in Malabar, where it never produced seed, but is increased by offsets or runners; whence Koenig supposes it not to be a native, but to have been introduced from some other parts. The natives there use it, particularly in ulcers of the nose, and as a discutient in other cases, either simply bruised, or made into a cataplasm by boiling, as Koenig reports.

52. *Panicum notatum*, or black-spotted panic-grass: panicle spreading, axils marked, leaves lanceolate ciliate. This is a tall grass, with a slender culm and black knots. Leaves acuminate, very slightly hairy, five inches long, and three quarters of an inch wide. Panicle almost a foot long, with long branches spreading at an acute angle and rugged, spotted with black in the axils. Flowers scattered, solitary or in pairs, pedicelled, oblong, acute, small; the two inner glumes of the calyx equal, purple; the accessory valve a little shorter, whitish; all lanceolate. Corolla of the same length and shape with the calyx. Wennerberg gathered it in Sumatra.

53. *Panicum muricatum*, or muricated panic-grass: panicle spreading, flowers solitary muricated, culm rooting, ascending. Height a foot and a half. Culm filiform, decumbent at the base, rooting here and there. Leaves short, perfectly lanceolate, with white scattered hairs. Native of the East Indies; sent by Koenig.

54. *Panicum capillare*, or capillary panic-grass: panicle capillary erect spreading, peduncles strict, calyxes acuminate even, sheaths of the leaves very hirsute. This grass resembles *Poa capillaris*, but is entirely hirsute. It is three feet high, with a panicle more than a foot long, the peduncles and pedicels stiff and straight. Native of Virginia and Jamaica. Cultivated in 1758, by Mr. Miller. It is an annual grass; and flowers from June to August.

55. *Panicum flexuosum*, or flexuose panic-grass: panicle capillary spreading, peduncles flexuose, calyxes ovate, beard of the joints reflex. This has been confounded with the preceding. It is about a foot in height; culms decumbent, branched, slightly hairy. Leaves two inches long, narrow, hairy as are also the sheaths. Panicle scarcely three inches long, the whole of an ovate form, with the pedicels remarkably flexuose. Native of the East Indies.

β. *P. totum glabrum*. Retzius mentions a variety that is wholly smooth, found by Koenig every-where in the rice-fields.

56. *Panicum grossarium*: branches of the panicle simple, flowers in pairs with one of the pedicels very short, the other the length of the flower. Culm simple or branched, two feet high and more. Leaves ensiform, with ciliate sheaths. Native of Jamaica and Japan.

57. *Panicum maximum*, large panic-grass, or guinea-grass: panicle compound capillary spreading, branches racemed, knots of the joints and sheaths hirsute at the base. This is very nearly allied to *P. grossarium*. Root creeping, perennial; culms from five to ten feet high, upright, simple, even. Leaves lanceolate, towards the top convolute and sharp, smooth, except at the edge, which is

rugged, and at the base, which is rough-haired. Panicle erect, a foot long and more: the lower branches in whorls, the upper in pairs. Florets numerous, alternate, ovate-sharpish, pressed to the raceme, on short subflexuose pedicels. Instead of the hermaphrodite, there is often a female floret with a male at the side of it, or a female alone without the hermaphrodite and male. Seed oblong, shining. Native of the West Indies; said to have been brought from the coast of Africa. Guinea-grass is much esteemed in Jamaica, both for sheep and cattle; and flowers chiefly in October.

58. *Panicum nemorosum*, or wood panic-grass: panicle simple, branches distant erect, florets remote scattered ovate acuminate, culm decumbent jointed, sheaths and neck hairy. Height from one to two feet. Roots and radicles very long, filiform. Culm creeping at the base, ascending, somewhat branched, rooting at the joints, round, striated, pubescent or smooth, loose. Panicles small, erect, with terminating and axillary peduncles; branches short, few-flowered; florets pedicelled, small, green. The two valves of the corolla, in the hermaphrodite flower, are oblong, blunt, whitish; one of them smaller, and included; antheræ pale; stigmas feathered, whitish. In the male flower, the outer valve is ovate, acute, concave, and includes the inner, which is smaller, ovate, acute, and more tender; antheræ purple. Native of Jamaica and Hispaniola.

59. *Panicum acuminatum*, or sharp-leaved panic-grass: panicles simple shorter than the leaves, branches capillary diffused, spikelets remote obovate, culm decumbent jointed branched, leaves lanceolate-subulate erect, sheaths villose. This grass is a span in height. Culm creeping, but in a fertile soil erect, round, tomentose: branchlets ascending, short, about an inch in length, leafy, sheathed, jointed, tomentose-hirsute. Florets small, ovate, obtuse, on short waved pedicels. Valves of the hermaphrodite corolla ovate; antheræ purple; stigmas villose, dark purple, short; seed oblong, shining. In the male or neuter floret, the outer valve is like the inner calycine valve, ovate, striated; the inner is very small, flat, whitish. Native of Jamaica, on sandy fields in the mountains.

60. *Panicum rigidum*, or stiff-panicked panic-grass: panicle simple rigid spreading, culm branched decumbent, leaves horizontal rugged. Culm a foot high and more, decumbent, creeping a little, branched, jointed, sheathed, round, striated, smooth. Florets remote, ovate, minute. Glumes of the corolla, in the hermaphrodite florets, a little less than those of the calyx, more slender, whitish; antheræ ovate, largish, bifid, vertical, whitish-yellow; stigmas villose, long, recurved, whitish. In the neuter floret, the outer valve of the corolla is ovate and striated, the same size with the inner glume of the calyx: the inner valve is tender, less, whitish. This grass is distinguished by its rigidity. Native of Jamaica in the high mountains.

61. *Panicum fuscum*, or brown panic-grass: panicle simple, branches erect, florets directed one way in pairs, one on a shorter pedicel; culm erect subdivided, leaves broad-lanceolate. Height from one to two feet; culm jointed, round, pubescent. Leaves retuse and oblique at the base, entire, smooth, striated, three or four inches long. Panicles peduncled, an inch and more in length; peduncle long, filiform: florets brownish green, ovate. The rest as in *P. carthaginense*, which it resembles: but the culm is by no means branched, the sheaths are more contracted, the panicles peduncled, the florets in pairs, and the glumes ovate not acute. Native of Jamaica, in boggy pastures.

62. *Panicum laxum*, or loose panic-grass: panicle simple nodding, branches capillary, spikelets approximating alternate pressed close, culms simple filiform flaccid, leaves linear-lanceolate. Height from two to four feet; culm subdivided, compressed a little, striated, even. Leaves striated, even, spreading. Florets very minute, pedicelled, pressed close, approximating, ovate, bright green.

Valves of the corolla in the hermaphrodite floret equal, less than the calycine glumes, ovate, concave; antheræ yellowish; stigmas blood-red; seed roundish, shining, extremely small. In the neuter floret, the outer valve resembles that of the calyx. Native of Jamaica, in dry woods; flowering at the end of the year.

63. *Panicum latifolium*, or broad-leaved panic-grass: panicle with racemes lateral simple, leaves ovate-lanceolate hairy at the neck. Native of North America. Loureiro says that he found it in Cochinchina. He describes the culm as annual, thick, five feet high. Leaves lanceolate, large, plaited and grooved, with an embracing villose neck. Introduced 1765, by Mr. John Cree. It flowers in August and September; and is a perennial grass.

64. *Panicum flavescens*, or yellow panic-grass: panicle simple erect stiff, branches subfastigate, the lowest opposite, spikelets approximating directed one way, pedicels two-flowered. Height three or four feet. Culm simple, erect, round, at top compressed and pubescent. Florets pressed to the rachis, ovate, blunt, smooth, yellow. Valves of the hermaphrodite corolla ovate, concave; antheræ small, purple; stigmas villose, blood-red; seed oblong, shining, yellow. Outer valve of the neuter floret concave, ovate, striated: inner flat, more tender, whitish. This species is singular in the colour being constantly yellow, which is not the case in the rest. It occurs but rarely, in dry places in the southern parts of Jamaica.

65. *Panicum diffusum*, or diffused panic-grass: panicle somewhat simple capillary spreading, spikelets distant, culm decumbent simple, leaves linear, hairy at the neck. Culm a foot, sometimes two feet, in height, ascending, filiform, round, leafy, smooth. Leaves long, sharp, erect, striated, even. Sheaths striated, villose at the neck and throat. Glumes of the hermaphrodite corolla equal, less than the calyx, pellucid, whitish; antheræ purple; stigmas villose, blood-red; seeds roundish, yellow, shining. In the male floret, outer valve ovate, acute, smooth; inner minute, flat, whitish; filaments one to three, minute, barren. Common in dry places in the West Indies.

66. *Panicum oryzoides*, or rice-like panic-grass: panicle almost simple, branches erect, florets somewhat remote ovate acute, culm erect undivided, leaves broad-lanceolate rounded at the base, sheaths even. Culm three or four feet high, round, leafy, smooth. Leaves a span long, entire, longitudinally striated, smooth. Panicle a foot long: branches alternate, stiffer, angular, subflexuose, smooth. Spikelets smooth, pedicelled, commonly in pairs, one shorter than the other; and much larger than in any of the species. Native of Jamaica, in mountain-woods, in the southern parts.

67. *Panicum clandestinum*, or hidden panic-grass: racemes hidden within the sheaths of the leaves. Culms dichotomous, branched. Leaves ovate-lanceolate; with the sheaths dotted and hairy; the racemes of fructification are so entirely concealed within them, that no vestige appears on the outside; in other respects it is nearly allied to *P. latifolium*. Native of Pennsylvania, where it was found by Kalm.

68. *Panicum arborescens*, or tree panic-grass: stem very much branched, leaves ovate-oblong acuminate. This grass contends for height with the loftiest trees in the East Indies, where it is a native; and yet the culm is scarcely wider than a goose quill. In Linnaeus's *Flora Zeylanica* it is said to be creeping. Leaves embracing, even, wider in this grass, in proportion to its length, than in any other; hence the culm resembles that of *Commelina*. Introduced in 1776 by Mons. Thouin. It flowers here in March and April.

69. *Panicum curvatum*, or crooked-chaffed panic-grass: panicle racemed, glumes curved obtuse nerved. Native of the East Indies.

70. *Panicum virgatum*, or long-panicked panic-grass: panicle rod-like; glumes acuminate even, outmost gaping. This is a very tall grass, with a very large diffused panicle.

cle. Native of Virginia, and other parts of North America. Introduced in 1781, by Mr. William Curtis. It flowers in August and September.

71. *Panicum patens*, or spreading panic-grass: panicle oblong flexuose capillary spreading, calyxes two-flowered, leaves linear-lanceolate, culm rooting. Native of the East Indies. This, or one like it, is also found in Portugal.

72. *Panicum trigonum*, or triangular-seeded panic-grass: panicle erect, peduncles two-flowered, calyxes obtuse hispid one-flowered, seeds three-cornered. Culms a span high, prostrate, leafy, rooting. Leaves smooth, narrow. Native of the East Indies: found by Koenig.

73. *Panicum pallens*, or pale panic-grass: panicle compound ovate, branches clustered erect, spikelets ovate subulate, culm subdivided jointed, leaves ovate-lanceolate, sheaths ciliate on the neck and at the edge. Culm from one to two feet high, round, leafy, subdivided at the joints, grooved, striated. Native of Jamaica, among other grasses in woods.

74. *Panicum lanatum*, or woolly panic-grass: panicle compound erect smooth, spikelets ovate, culm branched, leaves ovate-lanceolate pubescent, sheaths lanuginose-hirsute. Culm a fathom in height at most, round, pubescent. Branches divaricating, leafy, hirsute. Leaves acuminate, half a foot long, spreading, striated, lanuginose-hirsute, soft. Panicles half a foot long, with spreading flexuose smooth branches. Native of Jamaica.

75. *Panicum arundinaceum*, or reedy panic-grass: panicle compound spreading, branches and branchlets stiff capillary, spikelets roundish, culm subdivided jointed, leaves broad-lanceolate acuminate rigid. Culm a fathom in height, erect, round, leafy, smooth. Native of Jamaica, in the high mountains near Coldspring in St. Andrew's parish.

76. *Panicum glutinosum*, or glutinous panic-grass: Panicle compound spreading, branches flexuose, spikelets pedicelled distant glutinous, culm erect simple, leaves broader. Culm three or four feet high, smooth, leafy. Leaves broad-lanceolate, an inch in breadth, more than a foot in length, acuminate, erect, rounded at the base, hairy, ciliate at the edge, marked with lines, smooth, somewhat rugged underneath. Panicle almost a foot long, erect. Native of Jamaica, in the southern parts, in the woods of the highest mountains. It is there called *ginger-grass*, on account of the width of the leaves. The great clamminess of the spikelets, whence its trivial name, is peculiar to this species.

77. *Panicum radicans*, or rooting panic-grass: panicle, culm branching rooting, the base of the leaves and the sheaths longitudinally ciliate. This grass is a foot high, slender, smooth. Culm leafy up to the panicle, decumbent, putting forth long, very simple, solitary, rooting fibres at the joints. Leaves linear-lanceolate, acute, an inch and a half in length, having long white hairs at the base on both edges. Panicle two inches long, slender, upright. Flowers small, peduncled, oblique, blunt, purple, naked. It resembles *P. trigonum*, even in the shape of the seed. Gathered near Canton in China, by Wennerberg.

78. *Panicum trichoides*, or hair-like panic-grass: panicle very much branched, spreading; branches and branchlets subdivided, capillary; culm declined, jointed; leaves ovate-lanceolate, very smooth. Culm one foot high to two feet, sometimes rooting, subdivided at the base, loose, round, smooth, leafy: knots approximating, smooth. Leaves acute, rounded and oblique at the base, entire, spreading, striated. On comparing several specimens of *P. brevifolium*, from the East Indies, with the Jamaica-grass, they do not appear to be distinct, although the latter is larger and more spreading, and with the glumes scarcely blunter. Calyxes in both two-flowered, and the leaves wider or narrower. Some other species have short leaves; and therefore Linnæus's trivial name

of *brevifolium* is a bad one: *trichoides* is very descriptive of the panicle in this species.

β. *Milium capillare* of Rottboell. Aft. Hafn. 1778. 271. which is *P. capillare* of Rolander, seems to be only a variety of this; the third calycine glume, of which those two authors deny the existence, is found in many of the spikelets, though extremely slender. All the parts are larger in this variety, except the spikelets, which are very small; the sheaths are very smooth, but the leaves are pubescent. Dr. Patrick Browne calls it *smaller wood-grass*, and says it is very common in the woods of Jamaica, agreeing for the most part with the Guinea-grass both in the arrangement and formation of its flowers. The stalk and leaves are excellent fodder for all sorts of cattle, and the seeds serve to feed small birds.

79. *Panicum divaricatum*, or straddling panic-grass: panicles short, awnless; culm very much branched and extremely divaricating; pedicels two flowered, one shorter. Native of Jamaica.

80. *Panicum hirsutum*, or shaggy panic-grass: panicle compound, capillary, spreading; culms and sheaths bristly-hirsute; leaves lanceolate, acuminate, nerved, strict. Culm four or five feet in height, simple, round, leafy. Leaves broadish, two feet long, erect. Sheaths close, grooved-striated. Panicle a foot long, erect. Spikelets pedicelled, somewhat remote, small, pale-green. Valves of the corolla in the hermaphrodite floret ovate, acute, white; antheræ purple; stigmas feathered, whitish. In the neuter, outer valve of the corolla like the inner of the calyx; inner more tender, whitish. It is very nearly allied to *P. maximum*, (Nº 57.) differing chiefly in its shagginess.

Swartz has another species from Jamaica, which he names *P. caespitosum*, very nearly allied to *grosularium*, (Nº 56.) but that has the culm more erect, large, and strict; the spikes panicle, more numerous and approximating; with clustered, larger spikelets.

Thunberg also has a species from the Cape of Good Hope, not enumerated above; *Panicum caudatum*, which he thus characterises: Panicle subspiked contracted or squeezed close, flowers solitary, glumes smooth, acute.

We are obliged to Retzius and Swartz for the greater part of the above species, which are natives either of the East or West Indies. The former has, in his second fasciculus, a species, which he names *P. Caffrorum*. It is called *Cafferhorn* at the Cape, and may be of the genus *Holcus*. In his fifth fasciculus, p. 18. Nº 34. he has *P. hispidulum*, sent by Koenig from the East Indies, which he says is nearly allied to *P. stagninum*, but is different from it. The corolla is acuminate and hermaphrodite; between the corolla and the long-awned valve of the calyx there is a hyaline petal, as in that; but in this there are no stamens, nor is there any rudiment of a pistil.

Propagation and Culture. 7, 8. The seeds of these sorts may be sown in the spring, at the same time as barley is sown; and may be managed exactly in the same way; but they should not be sown too thick, for these seeds are very small; and the plants grow stronger, therefore require more room. The German sort does not grow above three feet high, unless it is sown on very rich land, in which case it will rise to be four feet high; but the leaves and stems of this corn are very large, and therefore require to stand four or five inches apart, otherwise they will grow up weak, and come to little. These large-growing corns should be sown in drills at about eighteen inches apart, so that the ground may be hoed between the rows, to keep them clear from weeds, and the stirring of the ground will greatly improve the corn. In August the corn will ripen, when it may be cut down and dried, and then should be housed. The Italian panic grows much larger than the German, and produces much larger spikes; so this should be allowed more room to grow, otherwise it

will come to little. This is also later before it ripens, so it is not very proper for cold countries.

Most of the other sorts are natives of very warm countries, where some are used by the inhabitants to make bread. These grow very large, and require a good summer, otherwise they will not ripen in this country. The seeds should be sown the latter end of March, or the beginning of April, on a moderate hot-bed; and the plants should be planted out, when grown to a proper size, upon a bed of light rich earth, in a warm situation. They should be planted in rows about three feet asunder, and the plants must be kept clear from weeds. When the plants are grown pretty tall, they should be supported by stakes; otherwise the winds will break them down; and, when the corn begins to ripen, the birds must be kept from it, otherwise they will soon destroy it. These are preserved in some curious gardens for the sake of variety, but they are not worth cultivating for use in England.

22. Scotch-grass is propagated in Jamaica by the joints or root, and set in small drilled holes about two feet and a half asunder. The young shoots begin to appear in a few days; and, as they grow, they spread and creep along the ground, casting a few roots, and throwing out fresh shoots from every joint, as they run; these soon supply the land, and fill the field with standing plants, which alone are generally cut. It is fit to cut in six months from the first planting, and every month or six weeks after, if the season fall in kindly, and due care be taken to keep the ground free from weeds. An acre of good ground, well stocked with this grass, near Kingston or Spanish-town, is computed to bring in above 120*l.* a year; and when once planted holds many years: but, when the main stalk or root grows hard or woody, the younger shoots do not push so luxuriantly, and they are then obliged to plant anew; this however is easy, being done gradually, for the pieces are generally supplied as they clean them, by throwing up every stubbed or falling root they find, planting a few joints in the place.

50. The common millet was originally brought from the eastern countries, where it is still greatly cultivated, from whence we are furnished annually with this grain, which is by many persons greatly esteemed for puddings, &c. but is seldom cultivated in England in quantity, but by way of curiosity in small gardens, for feeding of poultry; but the seeds generally ripen very well. They must be sown the beginning of April, upon a warm dry soil, but not too thick, because these plants divide into several branches, and should have much room; and, when they come up, they should be cleared from weeds, after which they will, in a short time, get the better of them, and prevent their future growth. In August these seeds will ripen, when it must be cut down, and beaten out, as is practised for other grain; but when it begins to ripen, if it be not protected from birds, they will soon devour it.

57. Guinea-grass is increased in the same manner, but does not require near so much moisture, and is reckoned a more hearty fodder. It is not so much cultivated as it ought to be. The lands about the towns are too subject to drought to produce it in any perfection; and in the other parts of the country they are too indolent to be at the trouble of planting it; not considering how much time and labour is lost in seeking for other fodder, which is not so good, and cannot so easily be obtained; nor do they consider the losses they sustain in stock, for the want of abundance of good wholesome food. See *ANDROPOGON*, *ALOPECURUS*, *CYNOSURUS*, *HOLCUS*, and *PASPALUM*.

PANIEFOULE, a lake of Africa, in Hoval, which communicates with the Senegal in lat. 16. 40. N.

PANIGAROLA (Jerome), an Italian prelate, and one of the most celebrated preachers in the sixteenth century, was descended from a noble family, and born at Milan in 1548. He discovered early proofs of extraordinary genius and abilities; and, besides an uncommon facility

in acquiring knowledge, possessed surprising powers of memory, which enabled him to retain whatever he learned. Being soon sent to the university of Pavia, he distinguished himself by the rapidity of his progress in learning, while at the same time he rendered himself notorious for his irregularities and turbulent spirit. Never was there any disturbance in the university, but Panigarola would be found concerned in it; and scarcely a night passed, in which, at the head of the pupils from Milan, he was not engaged in quarrels and battles with the students from Placentia, Pavia, or some other place. At length his excesses proceeded to such a length, that the senate of Milan ordered his father to withdraw him from Pavia. He was now sent to Bologna, where for some time he rendered himself notorious for his amours and debaucheries; but suddenly and most unexpectedly an entire change took place in his disposition, and he expressed a strong inclination for embracing the monastic life; and, having overcome the repugnance of his father, who entertained other views for him, he took the habit of St. Francis at Florence, in 1567, when he was nineteen years of age. In this new career he became quite an altered man, and his whole delight consisted in the most regular and punctual observance of the duties of the cloister, and assiduous study. In the year 1570, the guardian of his convent, who was engaged to preach the lent-sermons at Sarzana, having fallen sick, directed Panigarola to become his substitute. Though then only twenty-two years of age, he displayed such powers of eloquence, that the knights of the military order of St. Stephen at Pisa would have him for their advent-preacher; and, in the following year, the grand-duke Cosmo appointed him to preach the lent-sermons in the cathedral at Florence. When he had finished this course of sermons, to the universal satisfaction of his crowded auditory, he went to Rome, where a chapter-general of his order was held, and where all ranks were charmed with his impressive preaching. Pope Pius V. heard him, and was astonished; but, well knowing that so young an orator stood in need of a more perfect acquaintance with divinity, the sacred scriptures, and the fathers, than it was possible for him to have already acquired, recommended it to him to devote some time to close study; and, as he was likely to be perpetually interrupted by solicitations to fill the pulpit in Italy, he advised him to go to France, and attend the professors at the university of Paris.

Panigarola followed the advice of his holiness, and studied with the utmost diligence during two years; after which he resumed his pulpit-labours, and preached at first to the Italians who were settled at Lyons, and afterwards to his numerous countrymen whom commercial pursuits had drawn to Antwerp. Upon his return to Italy, his celebrity became so great, that there was no church sufficiently large to accommodate the crowds who were attracted by his preaching; and, when he was upon a journey, he could scarcely pass through any city or town, without being compelled so far to satisfy the people as to give them at least one sermon. Being at Rome in the year 1586, he was consecrated titular bishop of Chrysopolis, and appointed coadjutor to the bishop of Ferrara, at the instance of the duke, who by that means hoped to fix his residence in that city. In less than three months, however, he received an order to quit Ferrara and the duchy; which disgrace he attributed to the intrigues of a minister, who, jealous of the great credit which he enjoyed at court, was so artful as to persuade the duke, that he betrayed the secrets of state to cardinal Ferdinand de Medici. He went immediately to Rome; and was received with great kindness by pope Sixtus V. who appointed him to preach at St. Peter's in the year 1587. In the same year Charles-Emmanuel, duke of Savoy, granted him a nomination to the bishopric of Asti in Piedmont, which Sixtus readily confirmed. In 1589, the same pontiff sent our prelate into France, to encourage the party of the League against Henry IV. He was present at the siege

siege of Paris, and employed all his eloquence in animating the Parisians to submit cheerfully to the privations and miseries which they suffered during the memorable blockade of their city. When Henry raised the siege, Panigarola returned to Asia, where, while he was occupied in correcting a number of abuses which had crept into his diocese, he died in 1594, when only forty-six years of age. It was the very general opinion, that he fell a sacrifice to poison administered by those who dreaded the reforms which he was intent on introducing. His most celebrated productions consist of several volumes of "Sermons," in Latin and Italian, which are entitled to be ranked with the best specimens of sacred eloquence among the orators of Italy in the sixteenth century. Notwithstanding the premature age at which he died, and his numerous engagements, he found time for the composition of various other theological pieces, as commentaries, theses, orations, and poems; also "Paraphrasi sopra Demetrio Falerio, &c." consisting of a learned commentary upon the treatise of Demetrius Phalereus on eloquence. *Morevi.*

PANIGENA, in ancient geography, a town on this side of the Ganges, between Paluga and Conagera. *Ptolemy.*

PANINI (Paolo), a painter of perspective and architecture. He was born at Placentia in 1691, with a most happy genius to painting, which he cultivated by studying at Rome, where he designed every vestige of ancient magnificence, the ruins of superb Roman edifices, cenotaphs, columns, baths, arches, and obelisks; as also some of the most entire buildings, the ornaments of modern Rome. His composition is rich; the truth of his perspective is critically exact; and his paintings are universally esteemed for the grandeur of the architecture, for the clearness of his colouring, for the beautiful figures which he generally introduced, and also for the elegant taste with which he disposed them. He always designed them correctly, and set them off with suitable attitudes and expression. At Rivoli, a pleasure-house belonging to the king of Sardinia, there are several of Panini's paintings, which are views of that fine retreat and its environs. They are beautifully coloured, well handled, and with a touch full of spirit; though in some parts the yellow seems a little too predominant, and the lights are not always distributed in such a manner as to produce the most striking effect.

PANIONIA, [Greek.] An ancient festival celebrated in honour of Neptune by a concourse of people from all the cities of Ionia. It is remarkable in this festival, that, if the bull offered in sacrifice happened to bellow, it was accounted an omen of divine favour, because that sound was thought to be acceptable to Neptune.

PANLOWCE, a fortress of Russian Poland, near Kamienec, in Podolia; which, in 1621, withstood the attack of the Turks.

PANIS, an island in the Atlantic, at the mouth of the river Bandi, near the coast of Africa. Lat. 5. N.

PANIS, a tribe of Indians, on a branch of the Missouri. 600 miles from the Mississippi.

PANISSIÈRE, a town of France, in the department of the Rhône and Loire: twenty-one miles west of Lyons, eighteen south-east of Roanne.

PANIUM, in ancient geography, a promontory of Europe, on the coast of the Thracian Bosphorus.

PANIUS. See PANEUS.

PANKE, *f.* [a name, as we presume, of American origin, published by Feuillée, and adopted by Molina, though the latter has transferred it from the original plant of Feuillée, which is a Gunnera, to a totally distinct genus, termed by that author Llaupanke. Willdenow has retained this barbarous name, and thus it has become established.] In botany, a genus of the class enneandria, order monogynia. Generic essential character—Calyx four-cleft; corolla bell-shaped, four-cleft; capsule of two valves, with one seed.

1. Panke tinctoria: leaves stalked, five-lobed. Native of moist situations on the mountains of Chili. Root perennial. Stem five feet high. Leaves serrated, five-ribbed, papillary, downy, pulpy, permanent. Footstalks round, prickly, half a foot long. Flowers very numerous, on partial stalks. *Willd. after Molina.*

2. Panke sonchifolia, (Llaupanke of Feuill. Peruv. ii. 742. t. 31.) leaves lyrate, clasping the stem: found by Feuillée on the mountains of Chili. Root perennial, tapering. Stem herbaceous, three feet high, simple, round, leafy. Leaves a foot long, obtuse, slightly wavy, and finely toothed or crenate; their lobes rounded, close, lying over each other, finely downy, reticulated with veins. Flowers crimson, the lowermost a little remote, and of six petals or rather segments, the rest of but four; each segment is oval, about half an inch long, with a violet spot in the middle. Stamens, according to Feuillée, only equal in number to the petals, or rather segments of the flower. There is a disagreement between his account and the class, as well as character, indicated by Molina. This species is used in dying black. It also serves to stop the bleeding of the piles, as well as to relieve the pain of that complaint; the qualities of the herb being, as it seems, astringent.

3. Panke anapodophylli folio, (Feuil. ii. 741. t. 30.) by later authors called Gunnera scabra: leaves lobed palmate, serrated, very harsh, taller than the fruit-bearing stalk. All the stalks prickly. Native of watery marshy places in Chili and Peru. Much larger than the preceding, and distinguished by its lobed leaves, which are extremely rough on the upper side, with minute callous points, as well as besprinkled on both sides with short hairs. The stalks, both of the leaves and flowers, are beset with scattered prominent prickles, and the latter are much the lowest. The bunch of flowers is a span long, very dense and thickly branched. Feuillée says this plant is of a cooling quality, and that a decoction of its leaves is taken for that purpose in hot weather, and the stalks of the leaves are peeled and eaten. He found their flavour sweetish and agreeable. The root is used for dying black, like the preceding, and for tanning, which proves its astringent quality.

PANKINA, a town of Russia, in the government of Kolivan: sixty-eight miles north-west of Biisk.

PANKIRA, a town of Hindoostan, in Baglana: twelve miles north of Saler Mouler.

PANKLIËR, a town of Curdistan, in the government of Van, on Lake Van: twenty-five miles east of Aklat.

PANKOVA, a town of Russia, in the government of Irkutsk, on the Ilim: fifty-six miles west of Orlenga.

PANLANG, a town of Birmah, on the Rangoon branch of the Irawaddy, formerly a place of great opulence and extent, and even now of some importance: sixteen miles north-west of Rangoon.

PANMA-KELEUGO-MARA'VA. See POLYPODIUM.

PANNA'DE, *f.* The curvet of a horse. *Ainworth.*

PANNAG, [Heb. balsam.] Whether this be the name of a place whence wheat was brought, as it was from Minnith, (see Ezek. xxvii. 17.) as seems most probable, or the name of a drug, according to its signification, is uncertain: Cruden supposes the latter. See Brown's Dict. of the Bible.

PANNAGE, *f.* [*panagium*, low Lat. *panage*, Fr.] Food that swine feed on in the woods, as mast of beech, acorns, &c. which some have called *panues*. It is also the money taken by the agitors for the food of hogs with the mast of the king's forest. *Cowel.*—Acorns, which are included in the name of mast, are the chief of those things which the ancient laws call *pannage*. *Gibson's Codex.*

PANNAH, a town of Hindoostan, in the country of Allahabad: thirty miles east-south-east of Chatterpour, ninety-five south-west of Allahabad. Lat. 24. 48. N. lon. 80. 28. E.

PANNA'RIA, one of the Lipari islands. (See LIPARI.) The ancients called it *Thermisia*, from the hot waters which

which they found in it. It may be about eight or nine miles in circumference. It bears wheat, and grapes from which the inhabitants make wine. Pannaria, like the other adjacent islands, appears to be a volcano; its original having been destroyed by continued eruptions. It is now no longer of a conical figure. It contains about 100 inhabitants, reckoning every soul, men, women, and children. It is, like Stromboli, governed by a curate, who depends on the priest of the parish of St. Joseph in Lipari; and, when any couple in the island determine to marry, they must cross the sea to Lipari to receive the nuptial benediction in the parish of St. Joseph, or pay a sum for a licence to empower the curate of Pannaria to perform the ceremony. All the other adjoining islands are subject to the same regulation.

The inhabitants of Pannaria live by fishing, and by taking small quantities of game on this and the little contiguous islands. They bring up and tame those birds known by the name of gulls, which are seen in tempestuous weather flying near the surface of the sea: they are here called *corraccio*; they have their nests on the steep inaccessible cliffs of the several islands. When the islanders bring these birds up tame, they feed them with fish, which, though of such size you would think it impossible for their stomachs to receive them, they eagerly stretch their necks and swallow rapaciously. These birds are thus brought up to be as tame as pullets or pigeons; and such an attachment do they often acquire to the places in which they are reared, that some of them have been known to return to these islands after being conveyed to Mellazzo and Messina. See the article *LARUS*.

On the summit of a hill in this island, which projects over the sea, the inhabitants pretend to show a castle and an inscription. But their castle is only an elevated peak of the rock, which nature seems to have prepared as a retreat for birds. It consists of puzzolana; and has been actually formed by the action of winds and rains, for a long course of time, into a fantastic figure, which may appear, when carelessly viewed from a distance by an undistinguishing eye, the remains of some ancient structure. The good people of the island, not being able to judge of it otherwise than from appearance, are persuaded, that it can be nothing but a castle, which must have been reared for the defence of the island against the Turks and the corsairs of Barbary. These they consider as the most dreadful scourge with which mankind can possibly be afflicted, and fear them much more than the eruptions of the volcano. When they feel their island shaken, they embark with all their wealth, which a single sloop easily contains; and on-board they are safe from both the shaking of the earth and the eruptions of the lava.

In this island there appear various remains of ancient buildings, but very ruinous and very scanty. In ploughing the fields, many remains of sepulchres, in different modes of construction, are found; some of rough stones, tiles, or bricks; others consisting each of a single stone. Vases of various sorts and sizes are also said to have been found in the same fields; utensils of different kinds, money, chains, and medals of lead. In places along the shore of the island, where the sea appears to have encroached, there are some hewn stones to be seen: they seem to be remains of walls, which must have been very strong and of elegant architecture. In other places farther distant from the shore, there likewise appear fragments of walls sunk in the ground, and apparently overwhelmed with mud, which the winds and rains have brought down from the mountain above. These remains show, that Pannaria, either under the Greeks, or in that period when all the elements were taxed for the gratification of Roman luxury, must have been adorned with superb buildings, as well as the adjacent islands of Lipari, Stromboli, and Basiluzzo.

PAN'NE, a river of America, which runs into the Wabash in lat. 40. 22. N. lon. 86. 36. W.

PAN'NEL, *f.* [*panneel*, Dutch; *paneau*, Fr.] A kind of rustic saddle:

A *pannel* and wanty, pack-saddle and ped,
With line to fetch litter, and halters for hed. *Tusser.*

His strutting ribs on both sides show'd,
Like furrows he himself had plow'd;
For underneath the skirt of *pannel*,

'Twixt every two there was a channel. *Hudibras.*

PANNEL, in falconry, the stomach of a hawk. *Ainsworth.*

PANNEL, in law. See *PANEL*.

PANNELS, in military affairs, are the carriages which carry mortars and their beds upon a march. *James's Milit. Dict.*

PAN'NELA, (Old,) a town of Hindoostan, in Visiapour: twelve miles east of Merritch.

PAN'NELA, (New,) a town of Hindoostan, in the country of Visiapour: twenty-two miles west of Merritch, twenty-nine south of Currer. Lat. 17. 3. N. lon. 74. 58. E.

PANNELLATION, *f.* [from *panel*.] Act of empannelling a jury.—They in the said *pannellation* did put Rich. Wotton, and other privileged persons, which were not wont anciently to be impannelled. *A. Wood's Ann. Univ. Ox.*

PANNERBARY, a town of Bengal: eight miles north-east of Goragot.

PAN'NI, a town of Naples, in Capitanata: nine miles south of Troja.

PAN'NIC, or PAN'NICLE, *f.* A plant. See *PANICUM*.—The *pannicie* is a plant of the millet kind, differing from that by the disposition of the flowers and seeds, which, of this, grow in a close thick spike: it is sowed in several parts of Europe, in the fields, as corn for the sustenance of the inhabitants; it is frequently used in particular places of Germany to make bread. *Miller*.—September is drawn with a cheerful countenance; in his left hand a handful of millets, oats, and *pannicie*. *Peacham*.—*Pannick* affords a soft demulcent nourishment. *Arbutnot.*

PAN'NIER, *f.* [*panier*, Fr. probably from *pain*, bread, as having been originally used to carry bread and other provisions.] A basket: a wicker vessel, in which fruit, or other things, are carried on a horse.—We have resolved to take away their whole club in a pair of *panniers*, and imprison them in a cupboard. *Addison*.

The worthless brute
Now turns a mill, or drags a loaded life
Beneath two *panniers* and a baker's wife. *Dryden.*

PAN'NIER-MAN, *f.* [in the inns of court.] One who calls the gentlemen to dinner and supper; and provides mustard, pepper, and vinegar, for the hall.

PAN'NIKEL, *f.* [*pannicula*, Ital. *pannicle*, Fr.] The brain-pan; the skull. *Obsolete*.

To him he turned, and with rigour fell
Smote him so rudely on the *pannikell*,
That to the chin he cleft his head in twaine. *Spenser.*

PAN'NIPUT, a town of Hindoostan, in the country of Delhi. In a plain near this town a battle was fought, between Abdallah king of Candahar and the Mahrattas, in the year 1761. It was one of the most bloody battles ever fought in Hindoostan; the army of Abdallah amounted to 150,000, that of the Mahrattas was not less than 200,000; the carnage was dreadful, and the number of Mahratta prisoners almost incredible. They lost the flower of their army, and their power from that period declined: fifty miles north-west of Delhi. Lat. 29. 25. N. lon. 77. 10. E.

PAN'NONA, in ancient geography, a town situated in the interior of the isle of Crete, between Gortyna and Gnosus. *Ptolemy*.

PANNO'NIA, a large province of Europe, which was known

known to the Romans in the time of Augustus. See the article GEOGRAPHY, vol. viii. p. 375. It was during the war of Augustus with the Japydes and the Dalmatians that the Roman arms penetrated into the country of the Pannonians: and it became a Roman province under Tiberius. In the time of Antonine, Pannonia was divided into Superior and Inferior, the separation being made by the river Arrabo (Raab): one of these divisions was called Pannonia Prima, and the other Pannonia Secunda.

The more ancient inhabitants of Pannonia were the Scordisci and Taurisci, who were in their origin Gauls. Ptolemy assigns to this country a great number of places; but none of them appear to be very considerable. This country was occupied by a semi-barbarous people, when Philip, king of Macedon, conquered it: but they soon afterwards revolted, and Alexander re-conquered them. The Gauls, under the conduct of Brennus and Belgius, forcibly transferred it to Ptolemy, brother of the king of Macedon. Cæsar gained a settlement in part of it, and passed to it across the mountain, hence called Alpes Juliæ. Tiberius, as we have said, added Pannonia to the Roman empire, and it continued tributary to the Romans till the fall of their empire. It afterwards became subject to the Goths, and then to the Huns, from whom Hungary is said to have derived its name.

PANNO'NIUS (Janus), a modern Latin poet, born in 1434, was a native of Hungary. He travelled into Italy for instruction in polite literature; and upon his return, used his endeavours to promote the study of it in his own country. He was raised to the see of Funfkirchen (five-churches) in Lower Hungary, where he died in 1472. This prelate is said to have been remarkably distinguished for his proficiency in the Greek and Latin languages, in the latter of which he composed a variety of poems, which were printed both separately and in the *Deliciæ Poetarum Hungarorum*. An edition of them from a manuscript in the imperial library, was given at Utrecht so lately as 1784, in two volumes octavo. *Gen. Biog.*

PANNU'NAH, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Kerleh: twenty miles south-east of Maltoy.

PAN'NUS, *f.* A disease of the eye; a kind of fleshy web occasioned by an inflammation.

PANNY'A, a town of Bengal, forty-five miles west of Nagore.

PANNYAL'LUM-CRUT'CH, a town of Hindoostan, in Tinevelly: fifteen miles south-east of Coilpetta.

PAN'NYLE, a town of Bengal: eighteen miles north-west of Sishet.

PANO'MI, a town of European Turkey, in Macedonia: sixteen miles south of Saloniki.

PANOMPHÆ'US, in mythology, a designation given to Jupiter, because he was looked upon as the author of "all sorts of divination," having the books of fate, and out of them revealing either more or less, as he pleased, to inferior demons.

PAN'OPLY, *f.* [Gr. from παν, all, and οπλα, armour.] Complete armour.—We had need to take the Christian *panoply*, to put on the whole armour of God. *Ray on the Creation.*

In perfect silver glistening *panoply*
They ride, the army of the Highest God!

More.

In arms they stood
Of golden *panoply*, refulgent host!

Milton's P. L.

PANOP'OLIS. See ACHMIN, vol. i.

PANORA'MA, *f.* [*panorame*, Fr. from the Gr. παν, all, the whole, and οραμα, a view.] A large circular painting, having no apparent beginning or end, from the centre of which the beholder views distinctly the several objects of the representation.

PANOR'MA, a harbour on the north coast of the island of Myconi. Lat. 37. 29. N. lon. 25. 23. E.

PANORMITA'NO (Antonio), or ANTHONY of PALERMO, whose proper name was *Beccadelli*, a writer
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of some distinction both in prose and verse, was born in 1374, of a respectable family, originally from Bologna. He was sent on a public allowance to study the law at Bologna; and afterwards entered into the service of Philip Maria Visconti, duke of Milan, who kept him at his court with an honourable pension. He was also made professor of belles-lettres and of rhetoric in the university of Pavia; and there, probably in 1432, received the honour of the poetic laurel from the emperor Sigismund. Alphonso king of Naples, probably on leaving Milan in 1435, carried Antonio with him to his court; and he was thenceforth the inseparable companion, both in peace and war, of this prince, who heaped on him all kinds of favours. He was aggregated to the body of Neapolitan nobility; enriched with many donations; among the rest that of a delightful villa called Sisia; and employed in various honourable commissions. One of these, in 1451, was a deputation to Venice, in order to request from that state the supposed arm-bones of the historian Livy, which he obtained. So great was the veneration of Antonio for this famous writer, and his love for literature, that he sold a farm in order to purchase a copy of Livy written by the hand of Poggio the Florentine. After the death of Alphonso, Beccadelli was equally favoured by his son and successor Ferdinand, who made him his secretary and counsellor. This learned man died at Naples in 1471.

Antony of Palermo was a distinguished Latin writer, both in prose and verse. 1. As an historian, he was known by his work *De Diâis et Factis Alfonso regis Arragonum*. On the Sayings and Actions of Alphonso king of Arragon; for which he was rewarded by that monarch with a thousand gold crowns: no proof of its impartiality. It has frequently been reprinted, with additions. He also undertook to write the life of the succeeding king, Ferdinand; but no part of this work ever appeared. 2. A collection of five books of his Epistles, Two Harangues, and some Verses, was printed at Venice in 1453. 3. But the most noted of his productions, and unfortunately one of the latest, was the collection of short poems in two books, entitled *Hermaphroditus*, of which the greater number were so grossly obscene, that they excited, even in that licentious age, the loudest clamours against the author. They were attacked both in writing and from the pulpit; they were publicly burned in several cities of Italy, and the writer's effigy in some places accompanied them to the flames. It does not appear that the worst of these pieces were ever printed; but a few copies of the whole are still preserved in some of the libraries of Italy. *Gen. Biog.*

PANOR'MO, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, on the south coast of the sea of Marmora: sixteen miles south-east of Artaki.

PANOR'MO, a town of European Turkey, in Albania, situated on a gulf of the Adriatic, opposite the island of Corfu: forty-five miles south-south-east of Valona. Lat. 40. N. lon. 20. 1. E.

PANOR'MUS, in ancient geography, (Palermo,) a town of Sicily, situated towards the north-west, founded, as it has been said, by the Phœnicians. It held a distinguished rank among the towns of Sicily. In the year of Rome 499 it was taken by the Romans, and in 503 they gained a battle there under the orders of the proconsul Metellus. It afterwards became a Roman colony. Now PALERMO.—A town on the north coast of the isle of Crete, between Citæum and Heraclæum.—A town of Achaia, in Peloponnesus, near the promontory Rhium.—A town of Samos.—A town of the Thracian Chersonesus, placed by Pliny on the west side of the peninsula, and mentioned by no other writer.

PANORMUS, a port of Attica; its name denoting it to be capacious.—Another, of Epirus; a large harbour in the heart of the Montes Cerauni, below the citadel Chimæra.—A third, of Ionia, near Ephesus, with the temple of the Ephesian Diana.—A fourth, in Ionia, north-east of the promontory of Posidium, south-east of the pro-
4 S montory

montory of Trogilium, and south of Miletus. South of this port was the famous temple of Apollo Branchidæ; and to this place strangers repaired to consult the oracle. The ancients pretended that the stream, which discharged itself into the sea at this port, sprang from mount Mycale, and passed under the sea till it re-appeared in the vicinity of this temple.

PANOR'PA, *f.* The SCORPION-FLY; in entomology, a genus of insects of the order neuroptera. Generic characters—Mouth lengthened into a cylindrical horny proboscis; feelers four, nearly equal; stemmata three; antennæ longer than thorax; tail of the male only chelated or clawed, resembling the dart of a scorpion; a circumstance from which almost all naturalists have given it that name; but this formidable instrument is not formed for any hostile purpose; it is used by him in laying hold of his female during their amorous embraces. There are nine species.

1. *Panorpa communis*, the common scorpion-fly: wings of equal length, spotted with black. This, as its name imports, is the most familiar of all the species, being very frequently seen in our meadows during the early part of summer. It is a longish-bodied fly, of moderate size, the body yellow and black, with four transparent wings elegantly variegated with deep brown or black spots: the tail of the male insect, which is generally carried in an upright position, is formed by the three last segments of the abdomen, and is of a reddish colour; head the same. The wings are as long as the body. Inhabits Europe. This species is represented on the preceding engraving: fig. 2. the male; 3. the female; 4. the head magnified, to show the singular proboscis, or snout.

2. *Panorpa Germanica*: wings equal, hyaline, tipped with brown. It inhabits Germany, and resembles the common.

3. *Panorpa scorio*: wings equal, black spotted with white; body dusky. It is found in different parts of North America.

4. *Panorpa fasciata*: wings equal, yellowish with black dots and bands. It is found in North America.

5. *Panorpa hyemalis*: wings subulate, slightly incurved, ciliate: the female is apterous. It is a small insect, and is found in Saxony.

6. *Panorpa tipularia*: wings equal, immaculate; abdomen falcate; body yellow, legs very long. It inhabits Italy.

7. *Panorpa Capensis*: wings equal, and immaculate; body ferruginous. It inhabits the Cape.

8. *Panorpa Japonica*: wings equal, hyaline, with two black bands; body black. It is found in Japan.

9. *Panorpa Cos*, the Greek scorpion-fly: wings erect, lower ones nearly linear, and very long. This is a native of Greece and the islands of the Archipelago, and is an insect of a very peculiar appearance. It is distinguished by having the lower wings so extremely narrow or slender as to resemble a pair of linear processes with an oval dilatation at the tip, while the upper wings are very broad, oval, transparent, and beautifully variegated with yellowish-brown bars and spots. See fig. 5.

PANO'V, a river of Russia, which runs into the Niznei Tunguska. Lat. 64. 40. N. lon. 102. 54. E.

PANO'VA-TSJERA'VA. See TROPA.

PANREE'DY, a town of Bengal: thirty miles south-east of Curruckdeah.

PAN'SA, (C. Vibius), a Roman consul, who, with A. Hirtius, pursued the murderers of Julius Cæsar, and was killed in a battle near Mutina. On his death-bed he advised Octavius to unite his interest with that of Antony, if he wished to revenge the death of Julius Cæsar; and from his advice soon after rose the celebrated second triumvirate. Some suppose that Panfa was put to death by Octavius himself, or, through him, by the physician Glicon, who poured poison into the wounds of his patient. Panfa and Hirtius were the two last consuls who enjoyed the dignity of chief magistrates of Rome, with full power.

The authority of the consuls afterwards dwindled into a shadow. *Patere*. ii. 6. *Dio*. 46.

PANSAGUT'CHY, a town of Bengal: eight miles north of Rajemal.

PANSANG', or PU'LO PANSANG, a small island in the gulf of Siam. Lat. 9. 15. N. lon. 103. 30. E.

PANSAR', a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat: sixteen miles north of Amedabad.

PANSE', a branch of the river Wabash, in the Indiana territory.

PAN'SHAH, a town of Meckley: fifty-five miles south-south-east of Munnypour.

PAN'SHALA, a town of Guriel: thirty miles east of Pati.

PANSOPHICAL, *adj.* [from *pan sophy*.] Aiming or pretending to know every thing.—It were to be wished indeed, that it were done into Latin, for the humbling of many conceited enthusiasts and *panosophical* pretenders. *Worthington's Lett. to Hartlib*, 1660.

PAN'SOPHY, *f.* [from *παν* and *σοφία*, Gr.] Universal wisdom. This old word has lately been revived.—The precepts of *panosophy* ought to contain nothing in them, but what is worth our serious knowledge. *Hartlib's Reform. of Schools*, 1642.—The French philosophers affect a dogmatical manner, the reverse of true philosophy; a sort of *panosophy*, or universality of command over the opinions of men, which can only be supported by the arts of deception. *Boothby on Burke*.

PANS'RUCKY, a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: twenty-seven miles south of Bahar. Lat. 24. 46. N. lon. 85. 44. E.

PAN'SY, *f.* A flower. See PANCY.

PANT, a river of England, in the county of Essex, which rises about three miles south-east from Malden, passes by Bocking, &c. and about three miles east of Braintree runs into the Blackwater, if it be not the same river.

To PANT, *v. n.* [*panteler*, old Fr.] To palpitate; to beat as the heart in sudden terror, or after hard labour.—Yet might her piteous heart be seen to *pant* and quake. *Spenser*.

Below the bottom of the great abyss,
There, where one centre reconciles all things,
The world's profound heart *pants*. *Cresshaw*.

To have the breast heaving, as for want of breath.—Miranda will never have her eyes swell with fatness, or *pant* under a heavy load of flesh, till she has changed her religion. *Law*.

Pluto *pants* for breath from out his cell,
And opens wide the grinning jaws of hell. *Dryden*.

To play with intermission:

The whispering breeze
Pants on the leaves, and dies upon the trees. *Pope*.

To long; to wish earnestly: with *after* or *for*.—They *pant after* the dust of the earth, on the head of the poor. *Amos* ii. 7.

Who *pants* for glory, finds but short repose;
A breath revives him, and a breath o'erthrows. *Pope*.

PANT, *f.* Palpitation; motion of the heart:

Leap thou, attire and all,
Through proof of harness, to my heart, and there
Ride on the *pants* triumphing. *Shakespeare*.

PAN'TABLE, *f.* A corruption of *pantofle*; a shoe; a slipper.—What pride equal to his [the pope's] making kings kiss his *pantables*! *Sir E. Sandy's State of Relig.* 1605.

Rich *pantables* in ostentation shewn,
And roses worth a family. *Massinger's City Madam*.

PANTÆ'NUS, a learned Christian philosopher of the Stoic sect in the second century, and the first president of the

the catechetical school of Alexandria of whom there is any mention made in antiquity by writers of undoubted credit. His descent, and the country of his birth, are both uncertain; some authors stating him to have been of Jewish extraction, others a native of Sicily, and others the descendant of Sicilian parents, but born at Alexandria. According to Cave, he flourished about the year 182. He is generally thought to have been one of the masters of Clement of Alexandria, who speaks of him with great respect. He is also mentioned very respectfully by Alexander, bishop of Jerusalem, in a fragment of a letter to Origen, preserved by Eusebius; in which he particularly says, that Pantænus was the person who introduced him to the acquaintance of that father. Of the high estimation in which he was generally held we may form some idea from the consideration, that Origen justifies himself in the study of heathen learning by the example of Pantænus, whom he calls a very useful person, and well furnished with that part of knowledge. Photius speaks of him as a hearer of some of those who had seen the apostles, and even of some of the apostles themselves; but the latter statement he does not positively assert, and there are few moderns who will admit its probability. Upon the whole, Pantænus was eminent for his learning, prudence, and piety; and presided over the catechetical school at Alexandria with great reputation and success. So great, likewise, was his zeal for the success of the Christian cause, that, when the Ethiopians applied to Demetrius, bishop of Alexandria, to send them some person who should instruct them in the principles of Christianity, he readily undertook that mission, and is said to have acquitted himself in it with great ability. After his return to Alexandria Pantænus resumed the precedence of the catechetical school, in which he continued to explain the Scriptures publicly under the reigns of the emperors Severus and Caracalla, rendering greater service to the church, says St. Jerome, by his discourses than by his writings. The same father informs us, that there were extant Commentaries of his upon the Scriptures; but there is now nothing remaining of his writings, excepting a short passage in the Eclogæ, ascribed to Clement of Alexandria, containing the following rule for the better understanding of the prophetic language, which has been since adopted by all the interpreters of the prophecies: "That the prophets often express themselves in indefinite terms, and that the present tense is frequently used by them for both the preterite and future tenses." Cave places the death of Pantænus about the year 213. *Cave's Hist. Lit.* vol. i.

PANTA'IA. See PANDAIA.

PANTAGRUEL, the feigned name of a giant in Rabelais.

PANTAGRUELIST, *f.* A good companion, imitating Pantagruel. *Bailey.*

PANTAGY'AS, in ancient geography, a small river on the eastern coast of Sicily, which falls into the sea, after running a short space in rough cascades over rugged stones and precipices.

PANTALARIA, a small island in the Mediterranean, situated between the island of Sicily and Cape Bon, on the coast of Tunis; about twenty-five miles in circumference, and containing about 4000 inhabitants. The principal productions are olives, figs, raisins, capers, and cotton; the cattle are numerous, but bread-corn is imported from Sicily. The language is a mixture of African and Italian. Lat. 36. 55. N. lon. 12. 15. E.

PANTALE'O, (St.) a town of the island of Sardinia, the site of which was anciently that of the episcopal city of Dolio: sixteen miles north of Cagliari.

PANTALE'ON, a king of Pisa, who presided at the Olympic games, B. C. 664, after excluding the Eleans, who on that account expunged the Olympiad from the Fasti, and called it the second Anolympiad. They had called for the same reason the eighth the first Anolympiad, because the Pisæans presided.

PANTALEONE, a small low island in the Mediterra-

nean, near the west coast of Sicily; formerly united to the continent by a neck of land, which was destroyed by the inhabitants to keep off the enemy. In this peninsula stood the ancient Motya. Lat. 37. 56. N. lon. 12. 28. E.

PANTALEONE, a stringed instrument in Germany at the latter end of the seventeenth century. The inventor's name was Hebenstrick; but, from the success of his instrument, he assumed that of Pantaleone. It was more than nine feet long, and had, when in order, 186 strings. The tone was produced by two sticks, like the dulcimer; it must have been extremely difficult to the performer, but seems to have been capable of great effect. Mr. Binder, organist of the Duom Kirk, at Dresden, was the last person who played upon it. It was this instrument, and the performance upon it at Paris in 1705, which gave birth to a very ingenious little work, under the title of "Dialogue sur la Musique des Anciens," by the abbé Chateauneuf. When we saw the ruins of this instrument at Dresden, soon after the seven years' war, the strings were almost all broken, and the court was so impoverished as not to like to be at the charge of new mounting it. It used to be one of the musical curiosities of that city, during the time that the elector of Saxony was king of Poland. *Burney.*

PANTALOO'N, *f.* [*pantaloon*, Fr.] The name of an ancient garment frequent among our forefathers, consisting of breeches and stockings all of a piece. A dress somewhat similar has been lately revived. The denomination comes from the Venetians, who first introduced this habit, and who are called *Pantalonis*, from St. Pantaleon, who was formerly their patron.—Whether the trunk-hose fancy of queen Elizabeth's days, or the *pantaloon* genius of our's be best. *Phillips's Theat. Poet.* 1675.

The French, we conquer'd once,
Now give us laws for *pantaloons*,
The length of breeches and the gathers. *Hudibras.*

A character in the Italian comedy; a buffoon in the pantomimes of modern times: so called from the close dress which he usually wears.—There are four standing characters, which enter into every piece that comes on the stage; the Doctor, Harlequin, *Pantalone*, and Coviello. *Pantalone* is generally an old cully, and Coviello a sharper. *Addison's Remarks on Italy.*

The sixth age shifts
Into the lean and slipper'd *pantaloon*,
With spectacles on nose, and pouch on side. *Shakespeare.*

PANTA'NO, a town of Sicily, in the valley of Noto: ten miles south of Modica.

PANTA'NO, a town of Italy, fifteen miles south-west of Modena.

PANTA'NO, a town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra: nine miles east of Bova.

PANTA'NO, a river of Naples, which runs into the sea ten miles east of Bova.

PANTAR, an island in the Eastern Indian Sea, of a square form, about forty-eight miles in circumference, separated from the east coast of the island of Lomablen by the strait of Alvo, and from the west coast of Ombay by a narrow channel, called the Strait of Pantar. Lat. 8. 10. S. lon. 124. 30. E.

PANTER, *f.* One who pants:
Swiftly the gentle charmer flies,
And to the tender grief soft air applies,
Which, warbling mystic sounds,
Cements the bleeding *panter's* wounds. *Congreve.*

PANTER, *f.* [from *painter*, Irish, a net; *paintealim*, to ensnare. *Lye.*] A kind of net; a pitfall. *Obsolete.*

To catch in his *panters*
Thesedamofels and brchilers,
Love will none othir birdis catche. *Chaucer.*

PAN'TESS, *f.* The difficulty of breathing in a hawk. *Ainsworth.*

PANTHE'A,

PANTHEA, *f.* [Greek.] Among the ancients, were single statues, composed of the figures, or symbols, of several different divinities combined.

Father Joubert, who has observed them on several medals, says their heads are most commonly adorned with the symbols or attributes belonging to several gods. An instance of this kind we have in a medal of Antoninus Pius; which at the same time represents Serapis, by the bushel it bears; the Sun, by the crown of rays; Jupiter Ammon, by the ram's horns; Pluto by the large beard; and Æsculapius, by the serpent twisted in his hand.

M. Baudelot, in a dissertation on the Lares, will have the Panthea to have had their rise from the superstition of those, who, taking several gods for the protectors of their houses, united them all in the same statue, by adorning it with the several symbols proper to each of these deities.

PANTHEISM, [from the Gr. *παν*, all, and *Θεος*, God.] A philosophical species of idolatry, in which the Universe was considered as the Supreme God. Who was the inventor of this system is, perhaps, not known; but it was of early origin, and differently modified by different philosophers. Some held the universe to be one immense animal, of which the incorporeal soul was properly the God, and the heavens and earth the body of that God; whilst others held but one substance, partly active and partly passive; and therefore looked upon the visible universe as the only *Númen*.

The earliest Grecian pantheist of whom we read was Orpheus, who called the world *the body of God*, and its several parts *his members*, making the whole universe one *divine animal*. In the ancient Orphic theology we are taught, that this universe, and all things belonging to it, were made *within* God; that all things are contained together in the womb of God; that God is the *head* and *middle* of all things; that he is the basis of the earth and heaven; that he is the depth of the sea, the air we breathe, the force of the untameable fire; that he is the sun, moon, and stars; that there is one divine body; for, *Πάντα γὰρ ἐν μεγάλῳ ταυ δε σωματι κείται*, "All these things lie in the great body of God."

But, further to prove that the most ancient Greek philosophers resolved all things into God, and made *God all*, we shall cite a most remarkable passage from Plutarch's *Defect of Oracles*: "Whereas there are two causes of all generations, the divine and the human, the most ancient theologers and poets attended only to the more excellent of these two; resolving all things into God, and pronouncing this of them universally; *Ζεὺς ἀρχή, Ζεὺς μέσσα, Διὸς δ' ἐκ πάντων πελονται*; 'That God is both the beginning and middle, and that all things are out of God;' inasmuch, that they had no regard at all to the other natural and necessary causes of things. But on the contrary, their juniors, who were called *naturalists*, deviating from this most excellent and divine principles, placed all in *bodies*, their passions, collisions, mutations, and commixtures."

That by "the most ancient theologers" here mentioned, Plutarch meant Orpheus and his immediate followers, is plain from the Orphic verse by which he proves their antiquity. By their "juniors," whom he calls *naturalists*, he could mean no other than the first Grecian philosophers, Anaximander, Anaximenes, and Hippo, who were followed by the atomists, Leucippus, Democritus, Protagoras, and Epicurus. But, with respect to the Universe being God, and all things divine and human being modifications of mere matter, the Stoics undoubtedly agreed with Anaximander and his followers; for the school of Zeno held but one substance. This doctrine, that all things are God, and that there is but one substance, was revived in modern times by Spinoza, an apostate Jew. As we shall give a life of him and a view of his principles, we must refer the reader for a fuller account to the article **SPINOZA**.

PANTHEIST, *f.* One who confounds God with the universe; a name given to the followers of Spinoza. See **PANTHEISM**.

PANTHEIS'TIC, *adj.* Confounding God with the universe.—Let any one but seriously consider the *pantheistic* system, whether it be not as wild enthusiasm as ever was invented and published to the world. It supposes God and Nature, or God and the whole universe, to be one and the same substance, one universal being; inasmuch that men's souls are only modifications of the divine substance: from whence it follows, that what men will, God wills also, and what they say, God says; and what they do, God does. Was there ever any raving enthusiast that discovered greater extravagance? This doctrine first owed its birth to Pagan darkness, and revived afterwards among the Jewish cabbalists: from thence it was handed down to Spinoza, who was originally a Jew; and from him it descended to the author or authors of the Pantheisticon; who, while they are themselves the greatest visionaries in nature, yet scruple not to charge the Christian world with enthusiasm. *Waterland's Christianity Vind.*

PANTHEOLOGIA, or **PANTHEOLOGY**, *f.* [from the Greek *παν*, all, *Θεος*, God, and *λογία*, a word.] An entire system or body of divinity.

PANTHEOLOGIST, *f.* A student in divinity, one who writes a system or body of divinity.

PANTHEON, *f.* [Greek; from *παν*, all, and *θεος*, god.] A temple, or church, of a circular form; dedicated to all the gods, or to all the saints. We shall mention a few of the most remarkable edifices of this kind.

1. The Pantheon of ancient Rome is of all these edifices the most celebrated, and that from which all the rest take their names. It was built by Agrippa, son-in-law of Augustus, in his third consulate, twenty-five years before Christ; though several antiquarians and artists have supposed that the Pantheon existed as long ago as the commonwealth, and that Agrippa only embellished it and added the portico. To this purpose they allege the authority of Dion Cassius, who, speaking of Agrippa, says, he also finished or perfected the Pantheon. It was dedicated by him to Jupiter Ultor, Jupiter the Avenger, according to Pliny's account; according to Dion Cassius, to Mars, Venus, and Julius Cæsar; but, according to the most probable opinion, to all the gods; and had the name *Pantheon*, on account of the great number of statues of the gods ranged in seven niches all round it; and because it was built of a circular form, to represent heaven, the residence of the gods; or because it was dedicated to "all the gods." It had but one door. It was 144, or, as Fabricius says, 140, feet diameter within, and just as much in height, of the Corinthian order. The roof was curiously vaulted, void spaces being left here and there for greater strength. The rafters, forty feet long, were plated with brass. There were no windows in the whole edifice; but sufficient light was let in through a round hole in the top of the roof. Before each niche were two columns of antique yellow marble fluted, and of one entire block. The whole wall of the temple, as high as the grand cornice inclusive, was cased with divers sorts of precious marble in compartments; and the frieze was entirely of porphyry. The outside of the front was anciently covered with plates of brass gilt, and the top with plates of silver, in lieu of which lead was afterwards substituted. The gates were of brass, and of extraordinary size and workmanship.

The eruption of Vesuvius, in the reign of Tiberius, and a great fire in the reign of Titus, damaged the Pantheon very considerably: but it was successively repaired by Domitian, Adrian, and Septimius Severus; and it subsisted in all its grandeur till the incursion of Alaric, in the time of Honorius: on this occasion it was stripped of several of its statues and ornaments of gold and silver. About thirty-nine years after this, Genseric, king of the Vandals, took away part of its marbles and statues: at length pope Boniface IV. obtaining this Pantheon of the emperor Phocas, converted it into a church, without any alteration in the building; and dedicated it to the Virgin, and all the martyrs. And it still subsists at Rome under the title of *Notre Dame de la Rotonda*.

The "Piazza della Rotonda," or Square of the Pantheon, is adorned with a fountain and an obelisk, and terminated by the portico of Agrippa. This noble colonnade consists of a double range of Corinthian pillars of red granite. Between the middle columns, a passage opens to the brazen portals, which, as they unfold, expose to view a circular hall of immense extent, crowned with a lofty dome, and lighted solely from above. It is paved and lined with marble. Its cornice of white marble is supported by sixteen columns, and as many pilasters of giotto antico: in the circumference there are eight niches, and between these niches are eight altars, adorned each with two pillars of less size, but the same materials. The niches were anciently occupied by statues of the great deities; the intermediate altars served as pedestals for the inferior powers. The proportions of this temple are admirable for the effect intended to be produced, its height being equal to its diameter; and its dome not an oval, but an exact hemisphere. The Pantheon is the most noble and perfect specimen of Roman art and magnificence which time has spared, or the ancients could have wished to transmit to posterity. It has served in fact as a lesson and a model to succeeding generations; and to it Constantinople is indebted for Santa Sophia, and to it Rome, or rather the universe, owes the unrivalled dome of the Vatican. Upon the whole, this is the most ancient edifice that now remains in a state of full and almost perfect preservation. It was converted into a church by pope Boniface IV. about the year 609; and since that period has attracted the attention and enjoyed the patronage of various pontiffs. Although the Pantheon probably owes its preservation to its having been converted into a church; yet, leaving to it its principal character as a temple, it seems better adapted to the purposes of a mausoleum; and it has actually been in some degree appropriated to this use; for it contains at present the tombs, or rather the busts, of several distinguished characters; among which are the celebrated antiquary Winckelman, Metastasio, Mengs, Poussin, Hannibal Caracci, and Raffaello himself. Two musicians also, Corelli and Sacchini, have been admitted to the honours of the Pantheon. The dedication of this church on the 1st of November, in the year 830, gave occasion to the institution of the festival of All Saints.

2. There was also at Rome another Pantheon, dedicated to Minerva, as the goddess of medicine. It was in the form of a decagon, and the distance from one angle to another measured 22½. Between the angles there were nine chapels of a round figure, designed for so many deities: and over the gate there was a statue of Minerva.

3. The Pantheon of Athens was in many respects little inferior to that of Rome, built by Agrippa. The Greek Christians converted it into a church, dedicated to the Virgin, under the name of Panagia. The Turks changed it into a mosque.

4. The Pantheon of Nîmes, in France, was a temple in that city, in which were twelve niches, for statues, supposed to have been destined for the twelve great gods.

5. In the Escorial (Spain) is a magnificent chapel, called Pantheon, thirty-five feet in diameter, and thirty-eight high from the pavement, which is of marble and jasper inlaid. The whole inside of the chapel is of black marble, except the luthern, and some ornaments of jasper and red marble. In this chapel are deposited the bodies of the kings and queens: there are only places made for twenty-six, eight of which are already filled.

6. As for the Pantheon built in Oxford-street, London, about fifty years ago, see the article LONDON, vol. xiii. p. 575.

PANTHER, *f.* [from the Greek παν, all, and θηρ, a wild beast.] The pard, so called because it was supposed to possess the ferocity of all beasts. See FELIS pardus.—Pan, or the universal, is painted with a goat's face, about his shoulders a panther's skin. *Peucham.*

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An it please your majesty,
To hunt the panther and the hart with me,
With horn and hound. *Shakespeare.*

The panther's speckled hide
Flow'd o'er his armour with an easy pride. *Pope.*

PANTHER CREEK, a river of Kentucky, which runs into the Green River in lat. 37. 29. N. lon. 84. 45. W.

PANTHERINE TABLES, among the Romans, tables made of citron-wood, which were held in such high esteem, as to equal the value not only of silver and gold, but likewise of pearls. They had this name from their being spotted after the manner of panthers.

PANTICAPÆUM, in ancient geography, now *Kerche*, a town of Taurica Chersonesus, built by the Milesians, and governed some time by its own laws, and afterwards subdued by the kings of Bosphorus. It was, according to Strabo, the capital of the European Bosphorus. Mithridates the Great died there.

PANTICAPES, a river of European Scythia, which falls into the Borysthenes; supposed to be the *Samara* of the moderns.

PANTICO'SA, a town of Spain, in Arragon: thirteen miles north-north-east of Jaca.

PANTICUM, or PANTICHUM, in ancient geography, a town of Asia, in Bithynia, between Chalcedon and Libyssa, according to the Itinerary of Antonine.

PANTIKA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, on the north-east coast of the sea of Marmora: twelve miles south-east of Constantinople.

PANTILE, *f.* A gutter-tile. See PENTILE.—It is impossible for people to receive any great benefit from letters, where they are obliged to go to a shard, or an oyster-shell, for information; and where knowledge is confined to a pantile. *Bryant's Anal. Anc. Myth.*

PANTIN, a town of France, in the department of Paris: three miles east-north-east of Paris.

PANTING, *f.* Palpitation.—If I am to lose by fight the soft pantings which I have always felt when I heard your voice; pull out these eyes, before they lead me to be ungrateful. *Tatler.*

PANTINGLY, *adv.* With palpitation:
She heav'd the name of father.
Pantingly forth, as if it press'd her heart. *Shakespeare.*

PANTIPIO'LIS, a town of India, on this side the Ganges, between Berderis and Adirama.

PANTTLER, *f.* [*panetier*, Fr.] The officer in a great family, who keeps the bread. *Hemmer.*—He would have made a good *panbler*, he would have chipped bread well. *Shakespeare.*

When my old wife liv'd,
She was both *panbler*, butler, cook. *Shakespeare.*

PANTO'FLE, *f.* [*pantofle*, Fr. *pantofula*, Ital.] A slipper.—What pains doth that good holy father take, to lift up his foot so oft to have his *pantofle* kissed! *Harmar's Tr. of Beza's Serm.*—Melpomene has on her feet, her high cothurn or tragic *pantofles* of red velvet and gold, beset with pearls. *Peacham.*

PANTOGRAPH, *f.* [from the Gr. παν and γραφω.] A mathematical instrument, contrived to copy all sorts of drawings and designs.

PANTOMETER, *f.* [παν and μετρον, Gr.] An instrument for measuring all sorts of angles, elevations, and distances.

PANTOMETRY, *f.* The art of measuring.

PANTOMIME, *f.* [from the Gr. παν, παντος, all, and μιμος, a mimic.] One who has the power of universal mimicry. One who can imitate all kinds of actions and characters by signs and gestures, without speaking.—The *pantomimes* made a part in the theatrical entertainments of the ancients; their chief employment was to express, in gestures and action, whatever the chorus sung, changing

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ing their countenance and behaviour as the subject of the song varied. *Chambers*.

Not that I think those *pantomines*,
Who vary action with the times,
Are less ingenious in their art
Than those who duly act one part.

Hudibras.

The word seems not to have been anglicised very early in the seventeenth century. Dr. Johnson's earliest example (above) is from *Hudibras*. Bacon and Ben Jonson use the Latin form, *pantomimi*.—"There be certain *pantomimi*, that will represent the voices of players." *Nat. Hist. Cent. 3. No. 240*.—"After the manner of the old *pantomimi*, they dance over a distracted comedy of love." *Masque of Love's Triumph*, &c. 1630.

Mr. d'Israeli distinguishes between the Mimi and the Pantomimi of the ancients. "The *Mimi* were an impudent race of buffoons, who excelled in mimicry, and, like our domestic fools, were admitted into convivial parties to entertain the guests; from them we derive the term, *mimetic art*. Their powers enabled them to perform a more extraordinary office; for they appear to have been introduced into funerals, to mimic the person, and even the language, of the deceased. Suetonius describes an archimimus, accompanying the funeral of Vespasian. This archimime performed his part admirably, not only representing the person, but imitating, according to custom, *ut est mos*, the manners and language of the living emperor. He contrived a happy stroke at the prevailing foible of Vespasian, when he inquired the cost of all this funeral pomp? 'Ten millions of sesterces!' On this he observed, that, if they would give him but a hundred thousand, they might throw his body into the Tiber.

"The *Pantomimi* were quite of a different class. They were tragic actors, and usually mute; they combined with the arts of gesture, music and dances of the most impressive character. Their silent language has often drawn tears by the pathetic emotions they excited: 'Their very nod speaks, their hands talk, and their fingers have a voice,' says one of their admirers. Seneca, the father, grave as was his profession, confessed his taste for pantomimes had become a passion; and, by the decree of the senate that the Roman knights should not attend the pantomimic players in the streets, it is evident that the performers were greatly honoured. Lucian has composed a curious treatise on pantomimes.

"These pantomimics seem to have been held in great honour. The tragic and the common masks were among the ornaments of the sepulchral monuments of an archimime and a pantomime. Montfaucon conjectures that they formed a select fraternity.

"The particoloured hero, with every part of his dress, has been drawn out of the greatest wardrobe of antiquity; he was a Roman mime. Harlequin is described with his shaven head, *rasis capitibus*; his sooty face, *fuligine faciem obduci*; his flat unthod feet, *planipedes*; and his patched coat of many colours, *mimi centunculo*. Even *Pullicinella*, whom we familiarly call Punch, may receive, like other personages of not greater importance, all his dignity from antiquity; one of his Roman ancestors having appeared to an antiquary's visionary eye in a bronze statue: more than one erudite dissertation authenticates the family-likeness; the nose long, prominent, and hooked; the staring goggle eyes; the hump at his back and at his breast; in a word, all the character which so strongly marks the Punch-race, as distinctly as whole dynasties have been featured by the Austrian lip and the Bourbon nose.

"The genealogy of the whole family is confirmed by the general term, which includes them all; for our *Zany*, in Italian *Zanni*, comes direct from *sannio*, a buffoon; and a passage in Cicero de Oratore, paints Harlequin and his brother-gesticulators after the life; the perpetual trembling motion of their limbs, their ludicrous and flexible gestures, and all the mimicry of their faces: *Quid enim*

potest tam ridiculum quam Sannio esse? Qui ore, vultu, imitandis motibus, voce, denique corpore ridetur ipso. 'For what has more of the ludicrous than Sannio? Who, with his mouth, his face, imitating every motion with his voice, and, indeed, with all his body, provokes laughter.'

"The Harlequin in the Italian theatre has passed through all the vicissitudes of fortune. At first he was a true representative of the ancient Mime; but, during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, he degenerated into a booby and a gourmand, the perpetual butt for a sharp-witted fellow, his companion, called Brighella; the knife and the whetstone. Harlequin, under the reforming hand of Goldoni, became a child of nature, the delight of his country." *Curiosities of Literature*, vol. iii.

PANTOMIME is also very properly used for the delight of our young folks; a collection of scenes exhibited in gesture and dumb-show.—He put off the representation of *pantomimes* till late hours on market-days. *Arbutnot*.

The characters of the pantomime, as well as of the old Italian comedy, are well explained by Goldoni in his "history of the four masks."

"Comedy, which has at all times been the favourite spectacle of civilized nations, had shared the fate of the arts and sciences, and been swallowed up in the ruin of empires and the decline of letters: but the germ of comedy was never quite extinct in the fertile imagination of the Italians. The first who laboured to revive it, being disappointed, during a dark age, in skilful writers, had the boldness to compose plans, to divide them into acts and scenes, and to utter as impromptus, conversations, thoughts, and pleasantries, which were previously concerted. Those who could read (and the rich were not of the number) observed, that the comedies of Plautus and Terence always contained fathers who were dupes, debauched sons, amorous girls, lying valets, and corrupt maid-servants; and, traversing the different cantons of Italy, they took their fathers at Venice and at Bologna, their valets at Bergamo; their enamoured youths and maids, and their soubrettes, in the states of Rome and Tuscany.

"We must not wait for written proofs of this reasoning, because we are speaking of an age in which writing was nearly unknown; but I prove my assertion in this manner. The Pantaloon has always been Venetian, the Doctor a Bolognese, and the Harlequin and Clown have ever been from Bergamo; from these places, the actors took those comic characters which are known to us by the name of the four Italian masks. I advance these remarks not entirely from my own conception: I am in possession of a manuscript of the fifteenth century, in good preservation, bound in parchment, which contains a hundred and twenty subjects or canvasses of Italian pieces, called *Comedies of the Art*; and of which the principal basis consists invariably of a Pantaloon, a Venetian Merchant; the Doctor, a Lawyer of Bologna; Brighella and Harlequin, valets of Bergamo; the first quick and active, the other heavy. Their antiquity and permanent existence prove their origin. With regard to their employment, the Pantaloon and the Doctor, whom the Italians call the two old men, represent the part of fathers and other venerable characters, (*les rôles à manteau*.) The first is a merchant, because Venice was in those ancient times the richest and most extensive commercial country in Italy. He has ever preserved the ancient Venetian costume. The black robe and woollen bonnet are yet worn at Venice; while the red waistcoat, breeches cut like drawers, and red stockings and slippers, represent exactly the dress of the ancient inhabitants of the Adriatic lagoons; and the beard, which was a great ornament in those distant ages, has been carried to a grotesque extreme in these latter days. The second old man, called the Doctor, has been selected from the legal profession for the purpose of contrasting the learned with the commercial man; and he is from Bologna, because an university existed in that city, which, with all the ignorance of the time, yet

yet adhered to the charges and emoluments of professors. His dress preserves the ancient costume of the bar of Bologna, which is nearly the same to this hour; and the singular mask, which covers the forehead and nose, has been imitated from a wine-mark which deformed the face of a lawyer in those days. This tradition yet exists among the amateurs of the comedy of art. The Brighella and Harlequin, called in Italy the two Zanis, have been borrowed from Bergamo. The adroitness of the first, and the extreme heaviness of the second, are proofs of this assertion; because in no other country do we find these two extremes in the class of the people. Brighella represents an intriguing, roguish, dishonest, valet. His dress is a kind of livery; and his tawny mask is a satire on the complexion of the inhabitants of those lofty mountains, scorched by the heat of the sun. The Harlequins also have their different names: but they are always natives of Bergamo, heavy and clownish; and their dress represents a poor devil who picks up pieces of different stuffs and colours to mend his clothes. The hat corresponds with their beggary; and the tail of a hare, with which it is decorated, is to this day the usual ornament of the peasants of Bergamo." *Memoirs of Goldoni, by himself; Paris, 1814.*—It will readily occur to the reader, that the two last-mentioned personages are exactly reversed in this country: the Harlequin is the active run-about; and the Brighella is the Clown, or servant.

PAN'TOMIME, *adj.* Representing only in gesture and dumb-show.—A *phantomime* dance may frequently answer the same purpose; and, by representing some adventure in love or war, may seem to give sense and meaning to music, which might not otherwise appear to have any. *Smith on the Init. Arts.*

PANTOMIMIC, or PANTOMIMICAL, *adj.* Representing only by gesture or dumb-show.

PAN'TON, in geography, a township of America, in Addison county, Vermont, on the east side of lake Champlain, about eighty-seven miles north of Bennington; containing 520 inhabitants.

PAN'TON, *f.* A shoe contrived to recover a narrow and hoof-bound heel. *Farrier's Dict.*

PAN'TRY, *f.* [*paneterie*, Fr. *panarium*, Lat. A place formerly used solely for the keeping of bread, as the etymology (*panis*) shows. *Malone.*] The room in which provisions are deposited.—The Italian artizans distribute the kitchen, *pantry*, bake-house, under ground. *Wotton on Architecture.*—What work they make in the *pantry* and the larder! *L'Esrange.*

PANU'CO, a town of South-America, in the province of Tucuman: fifteen miles west of St. Fernando.

PANUCO, a river of North-America, which runs into the gulf of Mexico twenty-one miles east-south-east of Panuco, in lat. 22.40. N. lon. 98. 36. W.

PANU'CO, or ST. STILVA'RA DEL PUER'TO, a town of Mexico, and capital of the province of Guasteca or Panuco, situated on a river of the same name, navigable for barks up to the town. It contains about 500 families, and is the see of a bishop: 190 miles north-north-east of Mexico. Lat. 23. 23. N. lon. 99. 6. W. See GUASTECA, vol. ix.

PANVILA'O, a town on the south coast of the island of Luzon. Lat. 14. 2. N. lon. 121. 36. E.

PANVIN'IO (Onofrio), a very learned and industrious historian and antiquary, was born at Verona in 1529. From his childhood he manifested an insatiable thirst for study; and, to indulge it, he entered into the order of Augustines. By the general of that order he was sent to Rome to complete his studies; and in 1553 he was appointed to instruct the novices in that city in the sciences. In the following year he was sent to Florence, to teach scholastic theology; but, that science not being to his taste, he obtained permission not only to be free from the charge, but to live at large out of the cloister. He passed

some time at Venice, where he printed one of his works; but his ordinary abode was at Rome, where he was first patronised by cardinal Marcello Cervini, whose pontificate, under the name of Marcellus II. was too short to contribute to his advancement. He thence passed into the court of cardinal Alexander Farnese, with whom he travelled into Sicily in 1568, where a violent disease carried him off at the early age of thirty-nine. A monument to his honour was erected in the church of St. Augustine at Rome.

Very few instances are to be met with in literary biography, of so many proofs of extensive erudition and indefatigable industry left by one whose career was restricted to such narrow limits. Besides his published works, which form a numerous catalogue, he left a still greater number in manuscript, either begun or completed. One of the first objects of his labours was Roman history and antiquities. The "Fasti Consulares," though first brought to light by Sigonius, were published and illustrated with notes by him, in a folio volume printed at Venice in 1557. He published treatises also "De antiquis Romanorum Nominibus; De Principibus Romanis; De Republica; De Triumphis et Ludis Circensibus; Topographia Romæ." All these are valuable performances; not merely compilations of passages from different authors, but founded in great measure upon ancient inscriptions, of which he had collected and copied near three thousand. He had an intention of publishing this collection, but was prevented by death; and, as no vestiges of it appear among his MSS. it is conjectured by the marquis Maffei that it came into the hands of Martin Smetius, who published at Antwerp a collection of inscriptions, which was the ground-work of Gruter's later work. Panvinio was likewise a profound investigator of sacred or Christian antiquities. Of his published works in this class are treatises "De Ritu Sepeliendi Mortuos apud veteres Christianos; De antiquo Ritu baptizandi Catechumenos; De Primatu Petri; Chronicon Ecclesiasticum; De Episcopatus, Titulis, et Diaconis Cardinalium; Annotationes et Supplementa ad Platinam de Vitis Pontificum; De septem præcipuis Urbis Romæ Basilicis; De Bibliotheca Vaticana." He had undertaken a general ecclesiastical history, for which he had collected matter sufficient to fill six large manuscript volumes; they are preserved in the Vatican, and it cannot be doubted that they afforded much assistance to cardinal Baronio in his great work. Panvinio also consecrated part of his labour to his own order, of which he wrote a Chronicle; nor did he neglect the history and antiquities of his native city, Verona, of which he composed eight books, printed many years after his death. *Gen. Biog.*

PANUR'GIA, *f.* [from the Gr. *παν*, all, and *εργον*, work.] Subtilty, skill. *Phillips.*

PAN'WELL, a town of Hindoostan, in Vishapour: sixty miles west-north-west of Poonah.

PANY'ASUS, in ancient geography, a river of Macedonia, the mouth of which is placed by Ptolemy between Dyrrhachium and the mouth of the river Apus.

PAN'ZA, or PENGGA, a town of Congo, in the province of Bamba.

PANZA'NO, a town of Etruria: fourteen miles south of Florence.

PAN'ZEN, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Leitmeritz: fifteen miles north-north-east of Leitmeritz. Lat. 50. 44. N. lon. 14. 25. E.

PAN'ZERA, *f.* in botany. See DIMORPHA falcata.

PA'O, a river of South-America, which rises near Valencia, in the province of Caraccas, and after a southerly course of about 100 miles, joins the Bariquemento in lat. 8. 20. N. and the streams united form the Portuguese.

PA'O, a town of Corea: thirty miles south-east of Ou-tchuen.

PA'O, a town of China, of the third rank, in Se-tchuen: fifteen miles north-north-west of Hoel.

. PAO-FONG',

PAO-FONG', a town of China, of the third rank, in the province of Ho-nan: forty-five miles east-south-east of Hiu-tcheou.

PAO-KANG', a town of China, of the third rank, in Hou-quang: forty-five miles west-south-west of Siang-yang.

PAO-KI', a town of China, of the third rank, in Chen-si: fifteen miles south-west of Fong-tsiang.

PAO-KING', a city of China, of the first rank, in Hou-quang: 832 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 27. 4. N. lon. 111. E.

PAO DE NA'O, a town on the coast of Africa, near the river Camarones, belonging to the Portuguese.

PAO-NING', a city of China, of the first rank, in Setchuen, on the Kia-ling river: 700 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 31. 3. N. lon. 105. 35. E.

PAO-NGAN', a town of China, of the third rank, in Chen-si: thirty-seven miles north-west of Yen-ngan.

PAO-NGAN', a city of China, of the second rank, in Pe-tche-li, on the river San-cam: sixty-two miles north-west of Peking. Lat. 40. 22. N. lon. 114. 41. E.

PAO-TCHING', a town of Corea: thirty miles south of Koang-tcheou.

PAO-TCHU'EN, a town of Corea: twenty-eight miles south-south-west of Hoang-tcheou.

PAO-TCHU'EN, a town of Corea: twenty-three miles east of King-ki-tao.

PAO-TE', a city of China, of the second rank, in Chan-si, on the Hoang: 275 miles west-south-west of Peking. Lat. 39. 40. N. lon. 110. 24. E.

PAO-TI', a town of China, of the third rank, in Pe-tche-li: forty-two miles east-south-east of Peking.

PAO-TIM', a town of China, of the third rank, in Pe-tche-li: forty-two miles east of Pao-tiing.

PAO-TING', a city of China, of the first rank, in Pe-tche-li. It is the residence of a viceroy, and the most considerable city in the province next to Peking. It has twenty towns under its jurisdiction; three of the second, and seventeen of the third, class. The country round it is pleasant, and inferior in fertility to no part of China: seventy-seven miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 38. 54. N. lon. 115. 14. E.

PAO-YN', a town of China, of the third rank, in Kiang-nan: fifteen miles south of Hoai-ngan.

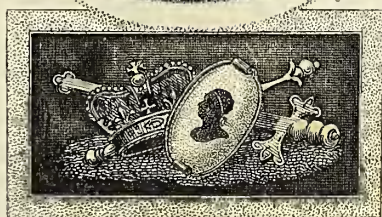
PAO'LI (Pascal), a distinguished character in the annals of patriotism, was born in Corsica in 1726. His father, Giacinto Paoli, who had taken an active part in the public affairs of that island, retired with his family to Naples after the failure of his attempts to free his countrymen from the tyranny of the Genoese. Pascal received his education at the Jesuits-college of that city, where he made a rapid progress in his studies, and displayed an understanding equally solid and capacious. In the year 1755, on the death of Gaffori, who had acted as the chief of the natives still in arms against their oppressors, the Corsicans were induced by the high reputation of Pascal Paoli to send him an invitation to come and take upon himself the vacant post. After a due consideration of the arduous task that lay before him, he resolved to comply with his country's call, and devote himself to her service; and, having taken a pathetic farewell of his venerable father, he embarked for the island, where he was formally invested with the chief command in July 1755. At this period the Genoese were in possession of a great part of the country; while the Corsicans, in a state of division and insubordination, destitute of the necessary supplies of arms and money, were able to carry on only a desultory war against their invaders. At the same time their long habits of resistance to regular government had rendered them little better than a ferocious banditti, not less turbulent and vindictive among one another than sanguinary towards the common foe. Paoli's first object was to unite and strengthen their efforts against the Genoese, whom they soon expelled from the inland country, and confined to the sea-coasts. Then, taking advantage

of this temporary tranquillity, he set about the more difficult task of introducing the restraints of law and government among his people, and persuading them to forego the rooted practice of private revenge. Aiming still further to soften and civilise their manners, he provided means for a national education, and founded an university at Corte. He also attended to the external prosperity of the island, by promoting agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, as far as his means would allow.

Having, by the union of firmness with gentleness, and by himself setting the example of the civil virtues he wished to introduce, brought his plans to a considerable degree of perfection, he again turned his thoughts to the expulsion of the Genoese. A small marine was fitted out to impede their communication with the island, and strong measures were taken to harass them in their quarters. The Genoese government, on the other hand, issued insidious manifestoes with the view of dividing their opponents, and no prospect appeared of their abandoning their claims upon the island. In this emergency Paoli and his council addressed, in 1761, a memorial to the different sovereigns of Europe, for the purpose of inducing some of them to become their protectors. But appeals to the principles of freedom were not likely to obtain favour in royal cabinets; and not only was no interference produced in their behalf, but the court of France, in 1764, entered into a treaty with the Genoese for supplying them with a force to garrison the towns yet remaining in their hands. It was indeed stipulated, that the French troops should act only defensively, but their preference effectually prevented any progress towards freeing the island; and the only military transaction that took place during the four years in which this treaty subsisted, was the conquest by the Corsicans of the isle of Capraia.

At the expiration of the term, a new treaty was formed, by which the republic of Genoa transferred its pretended sovereignty over Corsica, to the king of France, for 40,000,000 of livres; and ceded to him the towns then garrisoned by his troops. The remainder of the island was either to be conquered by the French, or obtained by negotiation. This was a thunderstroke to the Corsican patriots, but their noble leader remained firm. Although he was tempted by the offer of being confirmed in his supreme authority, only on condition of holding it under the French government, he did not hesitate to reject such a disgraceful proposal, warmly declaring, that "the rocks which surrounded him should melt away, ere he would betray a cause which he held in common with the meanest Corsican." A rigorous war thenceforth commenced, in which the French, having received a considerable reinforcement, entered upon offensive operations. Notwithstanding some temporary success, they had the mortification soon to undergo various defeats from this undisciplined rabble, as they termed the Corsicans; and in particular, a French general, De Lude, was obliged to capitulate at his strong post of Borgo, with all his infantry, artillery, and ammunition. Clement Paoli, brother to Pascal, distinguished himself in several of these actions.

The French minister, Choiseul, considering the honour of his nation as at stake in this warfare against a petty island, resolved to send such a force as would ensure success; accordingly a large reinforcement under the orders of the count de Vaux was landed at Corsica in 1769. The patriots still kept a firm countenance, and made a vigorous resistance; but were in the end defeated with great slaughter. Paoli, left with only five hundred men, was surrounded by the French, who were anxious to get possession of his person; but he cut his way through them, and took shelter in a convent on the seashore. Thence, with several of his friends, he embarked on-board an English vessel for Leghorn. After continuing some time in that port, he pursued his way to England, where he was received with all the sympathy and respect due from freemen to a patriot who had so nobly supported the cause of liberty. Dumourier, who afterwards made a



PAOLI.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1810.

figure in the revolution of his own country, served at this period against the Corsicans, with the rank of adjutant-general; and, in his own Memoirs, published a few years since, he pays very high compliments both to the people of the island and their chief; "It is astonishing," he says, "that this handful of islanders, destitute of artillery, fortifications, magazines, and money, should have kept France at bay during two campaigns, although she had no other enemy to cope with. But liberty doubles the valour and strength of man."

The case of the oppressed Corsicans had excited much interest in this country; and, although the government had not thought it prudent to interpose, in their favour, a subscription had been raised by some private persons for their aid. Paoli was introduced at court; and the duke of Grafton, then prime minister, obtained for him a pension of 1200*l.* a-year. This was assuance to one of his economical habits; and he liberally shared it with his companions in exile. From this time the ex-general lived a retired life, devoting himself chiefly to the cultivation of literature. During his retirement, which lasted more than twenty years, he was introduced to Dr. Johnson by Mr. Boswell, who had visited the general in 1765, while he was in Corsica; and who speaks of the interview with pleasure, saying, "The general spoke Italian, and Dr. Johnson English, and understood one another very well, with a little aid of interpretation from me, in which I compared myself to an isthmus, that joins two great continents."

At length the revolution, that promised to raise France to the rank of a free state, extended its influence to Corsica; and the national convention passed a decree by which that island was numbered among the departments of France, and entitled to all the privileges of the new constitution. The return of Paoli to the dignified station of its chief, was the first wish of his liberated countrymen; and Paoli could not resist their entreaties, which were enforced by the solicitations of the French assembly. He resigned his pension from the English court, took a grateful leave of the country in which he had been so hospitably entertained, and in the month of April, 1790, presented himself at the bar of the national assembly at Paris, together with the Corsican deputies. He was greeted with the enthusiasm which then attended upon every person and event connected with the cause of liberty; and, having taken the oaths as a subject of the *great nation*, repaired to Corsica to execute the high charge to which he was so honourably called.

The political horizon, however, soon became darkened. The violent and sanguinary factions which successively ruled in the centre of France, spread tumult and disorder over the whole circumference, and loosened all the bands of society. Parties arose in the different districts of Corsica; and a disposition was soon manifested of breaking off all connexion with France, and declaring for independence. After due deliberation, Paoli thought proper to concur in this design, of which the clergy, in particular, were ardent promoters. He put himself at the head of the insurgents, and drove from the field the French troops and their adherents. He was then reinvested with his former dignities of president of the consulta, and commander-in-chief of the island, and took measures to complete the counter-revolution. The national assembly, highly exasperated at this conduct, proclaimed him a rebel, and set a price on his head; but he was protected by the attachment of his countrymen. Sensible, however, that it would be impossible for a small island permanently to withstand the power of France without foreign support, he resolved upon an expedient, which, whilst it was a renunciation of independence, promised to secure all the advantages of real liberty. This was an union of Corsica with the crown of Great Britain, under a constitution similar to that of the latter country. An assembly of deputies, to consider of this project, met in June 1794, which, with great unanimity, after voting

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thanks to Paoli, made a declaration of the separation of Corsica from France, and its union with the British crown. In consequence, sir Gilbert Elliot (earl of Minto) was sent to take possession of the government, as viceroy of the king of England; and Paoli, resigning his official dignities, became a private citizen. How it happened that he was not appointed to some distinguished office under the British government, can only be conjectured; (nor is it now of much consequence to inquire, since we kept possession of the island only two years;) but the well-earned reputation of his earlier years for honour and true patriotism, affords a solid ground for supposing that he acted as consistently as the very difficult circumstances in which he was placed would permit. He soon after returned to England; and, having unfortunately lost the bulk of his property through the failure of a house of Leghorn to which it was entrusted, he passed some time in great privacy. When his necessities, however, were known, there is reason to believe that they were promptly relieved, and that his pension was restored, and continued to the last. He died near London, February 5, 1807, in the 81st year of his age.

Few foreigners, however distinguished, have been so much caressed in England as general Pascal Paoli. By living in habits of familiarity with men of letters, his name and exploits acquired fresh celebrity; and Boswell, Goldsmith, Johnson, Macaulay, and lord Littleton, although differing in almost every thing else, most cordially united in his praise. Abroad too, his reputation was greatly respected; and the eulogiums of such a man as Rousseau, then in the zenith of his reputation, was alone sufficient to ensure reputation throughout the rest of Europe. While his laurels were still green, it was usual to compare him to Timoleon and Epaminondas; and it was appositely remarked by an English minister, that the same thing might have been said of him as had been formerly uttered by the cardinal de Retz in respect to the famous Montrose, "that he was one of those men, who are no longer to be found any where but in the Lives of Plutarch."

That the Corsican chief was a great man, cannot well be denied; but it is the opinion of those, who have enjoyed an opportunity of studying his character, that he was a politician rather than a soldier; and that he shone in council more than in arms. And to this effect, Dumas, whose Memoirs we have already quoted, observes, "He displayed great genius, and a noble consistency; had he been endowed with *military talents*, had he known how to have instructed his countrymen in that species of hostility best suited to the natural bent of their genius, he would have destroyed our little army in 1768, and done us much more harm than we experienced in 1769."

Among his countrymen he was adored; and, to support his superiority, he made use of those arts which have usually passed under the name of *pious frauds*. These, perhaps, appeared indispensably necessary for the government of barbarians. Accordingly, like Numa, he pretended to a direct communication with the Deity; and also affected, on all occasions, after the manner of the heroes of old, to be surrounded by dogs of a particular breed, which were indeed necessary to preserve him from assassination.

It is not a little remarkable, that Corsica, an island which seems to have been equally despised both by the ancients and moderns, should have produced two men; one of whom engaged the attention of all Europe towards the middle of the last century; and the other was, unhappily for the repose of mankind, destined to regulate its fate at the beginning of the present. We have only to add, that Corsica remains in the possession of France by the peace of 1814. *Monthly Mag.* 1807. *Boswell's Account of Corsica and Life of Johnson.* *Athenæum*, vol. i. *Gent. Mag.* 1768.

PAO'LO, *f.* A small silver coin at Florence, Rome, and other places in Italy.

PAO'LO (Agosfino), a learned ecclesiastical composer of music, scholar of Bernardo Nanini, and successor in the pontifical chapel to Soriano. Antimo Liberati speaks of him as one of the most scientific and ingenious composers of his time, in every species of music then cultivated: and tells us, that, while he was maestro di capella of St. Peter's church at Rome, he astonished the musical world with his productions for four, six, and eight, choirs or chorusses; some of which might be sung in four or six parts only, without diminishing or enervating the harmony. Padre Martini, who bears testimony to the truth of this eulogium, has inserted an Agnus Dei, in eight parts, of this composer, which is truly a curious production: three different canons being carried on at the same time, in so clear and natural a manner, both as to melody and harmony, that this learned father, who had been long exercised in such arduous enterprises, speaks of it as one of the greatest efforts of genius and learning in this most difficult kind of composition. *Burney*.

PAO'LO (St.), a river of Sicily, which runs into the sea, on the east coast, in lat. 37. 16. N. lon. 15. 12. E.—Also, a small island, near the coast of Naples, in the gulf of Tarento. Lat. 40. 42. N. lon. 17. 6. E.—Also, a town of Naples, in the Capitanata: three miles south-east of Dragonera.

PAO'LOS, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the province of Sivas: fifteen miles west of Sivas.

PAO'OM, one of the smaller New Hebrides, in the South Pacific Ocean. What was comprehended under this name, appeared to Capt. Cook to be two islands, something like a separation being seen. Lat. 16. 30. S. lon. 168. 20. W.

PA'OS, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira: sixteen miles north-west of Viseu.

PAOU'LA, a town of Naples, in Principato Ultra: four miles north-east of Benevento.

PAOWAH', a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: five miles south of Bahar.

PAP, *f.* [*papa*, Ital. *pappe*, Dut. *papilla*, Lat.] The nipple; the dug sucked.—In weaning young creatures, the best way is never to let them suck the *paps*. *Ray on the Creation*.—That Timothy, Trim, and Jack, were the same person, was proved, particularly by a mole under the left *pap*. *Arbutnot*.

An infant, making to the *paps*, would press,
And meet, instead of milk, a falling tear. *Dryden*.

Food made for infants, with bread boiled in water.—Let the powder, after it has done boiling, be well beaten up with fair water to the consistence of thin *pap*. *Boyle*.

The noble soul by age grows lustier;
We must not starve, nor hope to pamper her
With woman's milk and *pap* unto the end. *Donne*.

The pulp of fruit. *Ainsworth*.

To PAP, *v. a.* To feed with *pap*:

O that his body were not flesh, and fading!
But I'll so *pap* him up: nothing too dear for him.

Beaumont and Fletcher.

PAP CAS'TLE, a very ancient edifice, long since demolished, was situated in the parish of Bridekirk, two miles from Cockermouth, Cumberland, on the other side of the Derwent. Its Roman antiquity is proved by several monuments; and a large green stone vessel found here, with little images upon it, is supposed to have been formerly a Danish font for dipping of infants, and which has been since used at Bridekirk, in the neighbourhood, for their sprinkling.

The name of *Pap-castle* seems to be contracted from Pipard its owner: it is said to have been demolished, and the materials employed to build Cockermouth-castle. See COCKERMOUTH, vol. iv.

In Gough's Camden, we find two letters from Mr. Routh to Mr. Gale, dated Jan. 16, 1741, and Apr. 13, 1743, describing the ruins that were discovered about

that time, and the antiquities that were dug up. Dr. Stukeley says, the Roman castrum lies on the top of the hill above the village; and he traced its whole circumference, and a bit of the Roman wall by the river-side going to Wigton, where the ditch is plainly visible, though half filled-up with the rubbish of the wall. A subterraneous vault, floored with large slabs of free-stone, was found in the pasture of the south-east angle. The name of *Boroughs* includes both closes where it stood; and they find stones and slates with iron pins in them, coins, &c. on the whole spot below it, towards the water-side. It was a beautiful and well-chosen plan, on the south-west side of a hill, a noble river running under, and pretty good country about it. He supposes its ancient name *Derwentio*, derived from the Derwent.

PAPA', *f.* [Lat. Ital. and Fr.] A fond name for father, used in many languages.—Where there are little masters and misses in a house, bribe them, that they may not tell tales to *papa* and mamma. *Swift*.—A spiritual father. See PAPE.

PAPA, a town of Hungary: twenty-five miles south of Raab, and forty-five west of Buda.

PAPA STOU'R, one of the Shetland islands of Scotland, is situated about a mile westward from the main land. This island extends about two miles in length, and one in breadth. Its soil is a rich sand, producing excellent pasturage-grass, and even good crops of oats, with beans and potatoes. Along the coast are numerous small *voes*, or harbours, which afford a safe retreat to the boats employed in the Shetland islands. Here is a remarkable cave, by which the sea flows for a considerable distance into the interior of the island, under the rocks. The beach, being admirably adapted for drying fish, is occupied by a number of houses appropriated to that purpose.

PAPA STRON'SA, one of the Orkney islands, off the coast of Scotland, is situated on the north-east quarter of the isle of Stronfa. Though little more than three miles in circumference, its surface is remarkably level, and equally beautiful as fertile. Here are the ruins of two ancient chapels, one dedicated to St. Bride, and the other to St. Nicholas. On an eminence called Earl's Knoll, are several graves, and some vestiges of buildings which formerly belonged to one of the ancient earls of Orkney.

PAPA WES'TRA, one of the Orkney islands, about one mile to the north of Westra. It is nearly four miles long, and one broad; and scarcely yields in fertility of soil to any district in Scotland. At its south-eastern extremity is a beautiful lake of fresh water, the centre of which is adorned with an islet, where are the ruins of the once-noble chapel of St. Tredwall, to whom superstition, till lately, attributed many wonderful and miraculous works. *Barry's Hist. of the Orkneys*.

PAPACH'TON, a river of America, which rises in New York, and joins the Cookquago to form the Delaware.

PA'PACY, *f.* [*papat*, *papauté*, Fr. from *papa*, Lat. the pope.] Popedom; office and dignity of bishops of Rome.—Now there is ascended to the *papacy* a personage, that, though he loves the chair of the *papacy* well, yet he loveth the carpet above the chair. *Bacon*.

PAPAGAY'O, a river of Mexico, which runs into the Pacific Ocean twenty-five miles north of Acapulco in lat. 17. 40. N. lon. 101. 46. W.

PAPAGAY'O BAY, or PARROT BAY, a bay on the west coast of Mexico. Lat. 11. 10. N. lon. 87. 36. W.

PAPAKUN'K, a town of New York, on the Papach-ton. Lat. 42. 5. N. lon. 74. 58. W.

PA'PAL, *adj.* Popish; belonging to the pope; annexed to the bishopric of Rome.—The pope released Philip from the oath, by which he was bound to maintain the privileges of the Netherlands; this *papal* indulgence hath been the cause of so many hundred thousands slain. *Raleigh*.

PA'PALIN,



Naked-stalked Poppy.

Great Oriental Poppy.

PAPALIN, *f.* A papist; one devoted to the pope. *Not now in use.*—No less divided in their profession than we and the *papalins*. *Sir T. Herbert's Trav.*—In opposition to bishops, the highest *papalins* talk most of the sovereign power of the people; because they hold the interest of the pope to be upheld by their veneration. *Puller's Mod. of the Ch. of Eng.*

PAPALITY, *f.* The papacy. *Cole.*

PAPALLACLA, a town of South America, in the province of Quito: fifty miles north-west of Archidona.

PAPALOAPA'N, a river of Mexico, now called *Alvarado*, which see.

PAPALQUITAN, a town of Mexico, in New Biscay: 130 miles north-west of Durango.

PAPAMO'W, a town of Hindoostan: eight miles north Allahabad.

PAPANAU'D, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic: twenty-five miles south-south-east of Tanjore.

PAPAS, a lake of South America: forty miles south of Popayan.

PAPAS ADAS'SI, or **PRINCE'S ISLANDS**, a cluster of small islands, in the north-east part of the island of Marmora, at the entrance of the straits of Constantinople: eight miles south of Constantinople.

PAPAS-TLI, a town of European Turkey, in Romania: thirty-two miles north of Adrianople.

PAPA'VER, *f.* [so called, according to the most learned etymologists, because it was commonly mixed with the pap, *papa*, given to children, in order to procure sleep. This plant and its name have ever been associated with the idea of sleep in most languages, in poetry and philosophy, in history and fable. Its juice is still the best opiate known, and in the most general use.] *The Poppy*; in botany, a genus of the class polyandria, order monogynia, natural order of rhœadææ, (papaveracæ, *Juss.*) Generic characters—Calyx: perianthium two-leaved, ovate, emarginate: leaflets subovate, concave, obtuse, caducous. Corolla: petals four, roundish, flat, spreading, large, narrower at the base; alternately less. Stamens: filaments numerous, capillary, much shorter than the corolla; antheræ oblong, compressed, erect, obtuse. Pistillum: germ roundish, large; style none; stigma peltate, flat, radiate. Pericarpium: capsule crowned with the large stigma, one-celled, half-many-celled, opening by many holes at the top under the crown. Seeds numerous, very small. Receptacles, longitudinal plait; the same number with the rays of the stigma, fastened to the wall of the pericarpium.—*Essential Character.* Calyx two-leaved; corolla four-petalled; capsule one-celled, opening by holes under the permanent stigma. The seed-vessel differs in shape in different species, from globose to oblong; and the rays of the stigma differ greatly in number, according as the shape of the capsule appropriated to each species is more or less oblong and narrow. The twelve species are commodiously divided into two sections, distinguished by the roughness or smoothness of the capsule.

I. With hispid Capsules.

1. *Papaver hybridum*, or bastard-poppy: capsules subglobose, torose, hispid; stem leafy, many-flowered. The leaves of the bastard-poppy are much smaller than those of the common corn-poppy, and are cut into much finer segments. The stalks are slender, little more than a foot high, and not so branching; the flowers are not so large, and of a deep purple colour, seldom lasting more than one whole day. The oblong prickly capsules are filled with small black seeds. Native of some of the southern parts of Europe, and of England, among corn; as near Norwich, and Wells in Norfolk; the parks, Oxford and Eynsham, Oxfordshire; about Durham. It flowers in June and July.

2. *Papaver argemone*, or long prickly-headed poppy: capsules club-shaped, hispid; stem leafy, many-flowered. Leaves finer cut and smaller than those of the common sort, but not so fine as those of the preceding. Stalks not

so high as either, seldom having many branches. Flowers not half so large, of a copper colour, and falling away in few hours. They appear in May, and are succeeded by long slender channelled capsules, filled with small black shrivelled seeds. The capsule has the same number of cells as the stigma has rays; it is ribbed, and the strong hairs or bristles on it are white and point upwards. Like most of the other poppies, it usually grows in corn-fields, and is not unfrequent about London. It flowers at the beginning of June, and is often overlooked from the extreme fugacity of its petals. It is a native not only of most parts of Europe, but of the Levant. This and the preceding are annual plants.

3. *Papaver alpinum*, or alpine prickly-headed poppy: capsule hispid; scape one-flowered, naked, hispid; leaves bipinnate. Stalks about a foot high, sustaining one small yellow or copper-coloured flower, succeeded by a roundish prickly head. The poppy of the Alps is a little perennial plant-hairy all over; the stems are naked and simple, with a bundle of leaves at the base; the leaves are winged; the first and the last leaflets are simple, the middle one larger, often trifid; the corolla is yellow, reddish or whitish; the capsule is oblong, with the upper part five-cornered. It grows in high rocky places, exposed to the wind, and bare of grass.

According to Haller, the leaves are commonly hirsute, but in the Swiss plant smooth; the stem a long span in height; the calyx brown, and very hirsute; the corolla small, flaccid, white with a yellow claw, the yellowness frequently diffusing itself over the whole petal. Under the flower, as in *P. argemone*, is a pencil of hairs of a dark-brown colour. The whole plant, when fresh, has a strong smell of musk. Neither Haller nor Scopoli distinguish this from the next species. Native of Switzerland, Austria, Carniola, Dauphiné, Piedmont, and Silesia.

β. Scopoli remarks, that the variety with a yellow flower is not so hairy; that the segments of the leaves are more long and slender, with the last only trifid; and the stamens from sixty to seventy: he ascribes to this the synonym from Dillenius which belongs to *nudicaule*.

γ. The variety with a white flower is, according to him, a larger and more hairy plant, with paler leaves, all the pinnae trifid and wider, with the claws of the petals greenish. Seguier's figure seems to belong to this; the yellow variety not having sessile gashed pinnae.

4. *Papaver nudicaule*, or naked-stalked prickly-headed poppy: capsules hispid; scape one-flowered, naked, hispid; leaves simple, pinnate-sinuate. Roots slender, fibrous, (annual or biennial.) Root-leaves many, hispid, the lowest broader and shorter, less deeply divided into fewer and broader segments, the leaves next above are divided into many narrower and longer segments; glaucous green, especially underneath. From among these leaves arises a single naked stalk, a long span or a foot in height, somewhat glaucous, hispid, sustaining one yellow flower of a middling size, the two inner petals a little smaller, the two outer somewhat larger; filaments very many, yellowish, with broadish compressed striated antheræ. Germ roundish, greenish, with eight rays on the top. Capsule roundish oblong; seeds black when ripe. The flower has a fine sweet smell like the jonquil, especially morning and evening. The seeds were sent from the eastern confines of the Russian empire, from the province of Argunsky in Siberia, in latitude 51°, by Heidenreich, and were sent to the Eltham-garden, with those of several other plants, by J. H. de Sprekelsen. It was therefore cultivated there in 1730. The flowers appear from June to August. See the annexed Plate, fig. 1.

II. With smooth Capsules.

5. *Papaver rhœas*, corn or red poppy: capsules urn-shaped, smooth; stem hairy, many-flowered; leaves pinnatifid, gashed. Stem from one to two feet high, upright, round, branched, purplish at bottom, with spreading hairs

hairs bulbous at the base. Leaves sessile, forming a kind of sheath at bottom, hairy on both sides; the segments or leaflets unequally toothed or serrate, each tooth rolled back at the edge, callous at top, and terminated by a small spine. Peduncles long, round, upright, one-flowered, the hairs on it spreading horizontally; the petals bright full scarlet; stigma convex, with ten or twelve rays, of a purple colour; the capsule not globular, as Linnæus terms it, but shaped like an egg with the broad end cut off, (or, as Dr. Withering has it, urn-shaped, and nearly as broad as long,) marked with as many raised lines as there are rays to the stigma; which is flat and scalloped on the edge. Seeds dark purple. The petals give out a fine colour when infused; and a syrup prepared from this infusion is kept in the shops, more for the sake of the colour than of any active principle the flowers possess. The species partakes in a small degree of the same properties with *P. somniferum*. The capsules, as in that, contain a milky juice, of a narcotic quality, but the quantity is very inconsiderable. An extract from them has been successfully employed as a sedative; and some foreign practitioners even prefer this extract to opium. Native of every part of Europe, the Levant, Japan, &c. and much the most common with us of any of the species, in corn-fields; also on dry banks and on walls; in such situations varying in its foliage, but still retaining the urn-shaped capsule, and spreading hairs. It flowers from June to August. Being so common a weed, it has many provincial names in English, besides its more classical ones of corn-poppy, and red or scarlet poppy; such as corn-rose, cop-rose or cup-rose in Yorkshire, canker or canker-rose or red-weed in the eastern counties, head-wark, &c.

β. There is a variety with an oval black shining spot at the base of each petal, from which many beautiful garden varieties originate. These have double flowers, white, red bordered with white, and variegated.

6. *Papaver dubium*, or long smooth-headed poppy: capsules oblong, smooth; stem many-flowered, with bristles pressed close; leaves doubly pinnatifid. This species resembles the preceding so much, as often to be mistaken for it. But the capsules of this are long and slender; the hairs on the peduncle are finer, and pressed upwards close to it; on the young peduncles they assume a shining silvery-white appearance, which is very beautiful; on the other parts of the plant the hairs spread out; the stalks and leaves are much paler; the flowers much smaller, and less intensely red. Dr. Withering also remarks, that a strict attention to the proportionate length and breadth of the capsule, and to the hairs of the peduncle being laid close or spreading, will always distinguish this species from *P. rhæas*. According to him, the segments of the leaves are entire, the edges and midribs hairy; rays of the stigma from six to ten. It is a native of several parts of Europe. According to Mr. Lightfoot, it is the most common species in North Britain; and in Battersea-field, says Mr. Curtis, where the soil is light, it is nearly as common as the *rhæas*; nor is it unfrequent on walls. About Cambridge, Oxford, Stockwell in Surry, Bocking in Essex, &c. This, as well as the preceding, is annual.

β. Dr. Withering mentions a variety, with the whole plant very hairy, figured in *Flora Danica*, 902. It seems, he says to be an intermediate plant between *rhæas* and *dubium*, if it be not a distinct species. The bristles on the peduncles are laid close, as in the latter; but the segments of the leaves are very much snipt at the edges. The calyx is studded with large transparent globules, and a taper bristle springs out of each. The capsule is nearly twice as long as it is broad, so that it is longer than in *P. rhæas*, but shorter than in *P. dubium*. It is found about Shanklin Chine, and in pastures in various parts of the Isle of Wight. The stem is about two feet high.

7. *Papaver somniferum*, common officinal or garden poppy: calyxes and capsules smooth; leaves embracing, galled. Of this species there are two principal varieties, the white and the black.

α. The common white poppy has the stalks large, smooth, five or six feet high, branching. Leaves large, greyish, embracing at the base, irregularly jagged on their sides. Flowers terminating; whilst inclosed in the calyx hanging down, but before the corolla expands becoming erect: the calyx is composed of two large oval greyish leaves, that separate and soon dry off: the corolla is composed of four large roundish white petals, of short duration; and succeeded by large roundish heads as big as oranges, flattened at top and bottom, and having an indented crown or stigma. *Seeds white*. There are several varieties, differing in the colour and multiplicity of their petals, which are preserved in gardens for ornament; but that with single flowers only is cultivated for use.

β. The common black poppy has stalks about three feet high, smooth, and dividing into several branches. Leaves large, smooth, deeply cut or jagged on their edges, and embracing. Petals purple with dark bottoms; succeeded by oval smooth capsules filled with *black seeds*, which are sold under the name of maw-feed. There are many varieties of this with large double flowers, variegated of several colours; red and white, purple and white, and some finely spotted like carnations: there are few plants whose flowers are so handsome; but, having an offensive scent, and being of short duration, they are not much regarded. They are both annual, and flower in June.

Linnæus remarks the smoothness of all the parts in this species; the stem, leaves, calyx, and capsule. The rays of the stigma are ten, or thereabouts, and the half internal divisions as many. The officinal poppy is a native of the southern parts of Europe; but probably came originally from Asia, where it is cultivated in great quantities.

The general history of opium and its virtues has been so judiciously detailed by Dr. Woodville, in his *Medical Botany*, that we shall here insert the most material part of that author's information.

Opium, called also *Opium Thebaicum*, from being anciently prepared chiefly at Thebes, has been a celebrated medicine from the remotest times. It differs from meconium, which was made by the ancients of the expressed juice or decoction of the poppies. It is imported into Europe in flat cakes, covered with leaves to prevent their sticking together: it has a reddish-brown colour, and a strong peculiar smell: its taste, at first, is nauseous and bitter, but soon becomes acrid, and produces a slight warmth in the mouth: a watery tincture of it forms an ink, with a chalybeate solution. According to the experiments of Alston, it appears to consist of about five parts in twelve of gummy matter, four of resinous matter, and three of earthy or other indissoluble impurities.

The use of this celebrated medicine, though not known to Hippocrates, can be clearly traced back to Diogenes, who was nearly his contemporary; and its importance has ever since been gradually advanced. Its extensive practical utility however has not long been well understood; and in this country perhaps may be dated from the time of Sydenham. Opium is the chief narcotic now employed: it acts directly upon the nervous power; diminishing the sensibility, irritability, and mobility, of the system; suspending, according to the idea of a late ingenious author, the motion of the nervous fluid to and from the brain, and thereby inducing sleep, one of its principal effects. From this sedative power of opium, by which it allays pain, inordinate action, and restlessness, it naturally follows, that it may be employed with great advantage in a variety of diseases. Indeed there is scarcely any disorder in which, under some circumstances, its use is not found proper; and, though in many cases it fails to procure sleep, yet, if taken in a full dose, it occasions a pleasant tranquillity of mind, and a drowsiness, approaching to sleep, which always refreshes the patient. But, besides the sedative power, it is also known to act more or less as a stimulant, exciting the motion of the blood;

blood; and this increased action has been ascribed ingeniously, and, as we think, rationally, to that general law of the animal economy, by which any noxious influence is resisted by a consequent re-action of the system. By a certain conjoined effort of this sedative and stimulant effect, opium has been thought to produce intoxication, a quality for which it is much used in the eastern countries.

In most of the continued fevers of this climate, though originating from contagion, or from whatever cause, there is generally at the beginning, more or less of inflammatory diathesis; and this, while it continues, would forbid the use of opium, which might prove dangerous. Its use is also forbidden in the more advanced state of this fever, whenever topical inflammation of the brain is ascertained, which sometimes exists, and produces delirium, though other symptoms of the nervous and putrid kind prevail. But when irritation of the brain is not of the inflammatory kind, and debility has made much progress, or where delirium is accompanied with spasmodic affections, opium is a sovereign remedy, and may be employed in large doses every eight hours, unless a remission of the symptoms and sleep take place. In intermittent fevers, opium, in combination with other medicines, was much used by the ancients; but, since the introduction of Peruvian bark, it is seldom trusted to for the cure of these disorders: it has, however, been strongly recommended as an effectual means of stopping the recurrence of the febrile paroxysms; and has been given before the fit, in the cold stage, in the hot stage, and during the interval, with the best effects, producing immediate relief, and in a short time curing the patient, without leaving those abdominal obstructions which have been ascribed to the bark; but in these fevers, the best practice seems to be that of uniting opium with the bark, which enables the stomach to bear the latter in larger doses, and adds considerably to its efficacy.

When opium is so managed as to produce sweat, it will tend to remove an inflammatory state of the system, and may prove generally useful: a notable instance of this we observe in the cure of acute rheumatism by means of Dover's powder. In the small-pox, opium, since the time of Sydenham, has been very generally and successfully prescribed, especially after the fifth day of the disease; but during the first stage of the eruptive fever we are told that it always does harm; an opinion (says Dr. Woodville) which our experience at the Small-Pox Hospital warrants us to contradict. In hæmorrhages, the use of opium is inferred from its known effects in restraining all excretions except that of sweat; but, unless the hæmorrhages be of the passive kind, or unattended with inflammation, it may produce considerable mischief. In dysentery, opium may be occasionally employed to moderate the violence of the symptoms. In diarrhæa, when the acrimony has been carried off by a continuance of the disease, it is a certain and efficacious remedy. In cholera it is employed with laxatives, and no doubt often prevents inflammation by removing the spasm.

Opium has lately been commended in venereal cases; and instances have been adduced in which it has succeeded where mercury had failed: but few practitioners, we apprehend, will trust to opium alone in these complaints. Opium is successfully used in tetanus, and in other spasmodic and convulsive cases.

Respecting the external use of opium, authors are not agreed: some contending, that when applied to the skin it allays pain and spasm, and procures sleep, while others affirm, that when thus applied it has no effect whatsoever. Applied to the naked nerves of animals, it produces torpor, and loss of power in all the muscles with which the nerves communicate. Opium taken in an immoderate dose, proves a narcotic poison, producing vertigo, tremors, convulsions, deliriums, stupor, stertor, and finally fatal apoplexy.

The official preparations of this drug are, Opium puri-
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ficatum, pilula ex opio, pulvis opiat, tinctura opii, and tinctura opii camphorata. It also enters into the pulvis sudorificus, balsamum anodynum, electuarium japonicum, pulvis e creta composita, &c. The requisite dose of opium varies in different persons, as well as in different states of the same person. A quarter of a grain in one adult, will produce effects which ten times the quantity will not do in another; and a dose that might prove fatal in cholera or cholera, would not be perceptible in many cases of mania or tetanus. The lowest fatal dose, to those unaccustomed to it, seems to be about four grains; but a dangerous dose is so apt to occasion vomiting, that it has seldom time to occasion death. When given in too small a dose, it often produces disturbed sleep, and other unpleasant consequences; and, on the other hand, a small dose will sometimes produce sound sleep, and alleviation of symptoms, when a larger one would not have succeeded. Its general operation is supposed to last about eight hours. It is well known, that, by continued habit, opium may be taken in large quantities; and we are told by Garcias ab Horto, an instance in which it was increased to ten drams a day. About twenty drops of the tinctura thebaica, or laudanum, are considered as nearly equivalent to a grain of opium. Those who are addicted to the use of opium in the east will sometimes take incredible quantities.

The white poppy, *a*, is commonly considered as the officinal plant; but any of the varieties may be employed indiscriminately, since no difference is discovered in their sensible qualities or effects. The heads or capsules are also powerfully narcotic or anodyne; boiled in water, they impart their narcotic juice. The liquor strongly pressed out, suffered to settle, clarified with whites of eggs, and evaporated to a due consistence, yields an extract, possessing the virtues of opium, but requiring to be given in double the dose. It is said not to occasion a nausea and giddiness, which are the usual effects of opium. It is convenient to prepare the syrup from this extract, by dissolving one dram in two pounds and a half of simple syrup. The *syrupus papaveris albi*, as directed by both colleges, is an useful anodyne, and often succeeds in procuring sleep, where opium fails; it is more especially adapted to children. White-poppy heads are also used externally in fomentations, either alone, or more frequently added to the *decoctum pro fomento*. The seeds possess not any narcotic power: they consist of a simple farinaceous matter, united with a bland oil, and in some countries are eaten as food. As a medicine, they have been given in the form of emulsion, in catarrhs, stranguries, &c.

Opium is imported into Europe from Persia, Arabia, and other warm regions of Asia. Six hundred thousand pounds of it are said to be annually exported from the Ganges. The manner in which this drug is collected in the east has been described long ago by Kæmpfer and others; but the most circumstantial detail of it is given by Mr. Kerr, in the fifth volume of Medical Observations and Inquiries. When the capsules are half grown, at sun-set, they make two longitudinal double incisions, passing from below upwards, and taking care not to penetrate the internal cavity. In Persia, according to Kæmpfer a five-pointed knife is used for this purpose. The incisions are repeated every evening, until each capsule has received six or eight wounds: they are then allowed to ripen their seeds. If the wound were to be made in the heat of the day, a cicatrix would be too soon formed. The night-dews favour the exsillation of the juice. Early in the morning, old women, boys, and girls, collect the juice, by scraping it off with a small iron scoop, and deposit the whole in an earthen pot, where it is worked by the hand in the open sunshine, until it becomes of a considerable thickness. It is then formed into cakes of a globular shape, and about four pounds in weight, and laid into little earthen basins to be farther dried. These cakes are then covered with poppy or tobacco leaves,
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and thus dried until they are fit for sale. It is then packed in chests, with fragments of the capsules from which poppy-seeds have been thrashed-out. This preparation, though simple, requires expert workmen able to detect the many adulterations which are practised on the raw juice. The adulteration of prepared opium is yet more difficult to discover. It has been supposed to be commonly vitiated with an extract from the leaves and stalk of the poppy, and with gum of the mimosa; other foreign admixtures have been conjectured, such as cowdung, gums and resins of various sorts, and parched rice.

Amid the extensive concerns of the British East-India Company, it is well known that the growth and manufacture of opium has for many years been considered as a great source of public revenue and of private wealth: whole districts have for these purposes been devoted to the culture of the poppy; the superintendence and collection of the taxes have been the employment of officers of high rank in the company's service; and the privilege of the commodity for a season one of the most lucrative gifts which the governors of the east could bestow on their nearest connexions. China was the grand mart for this article; and so strong was the attachment of the Chinese to its use, that any quantity sent to Canton was sure to be purchased at a high price. It appears, however, that this valuable traffic will now be lost to the company, the Chinese government having discovered that great evils result from the abuse of opium, the particulars of which have been detailed in instructions from the fooyuen to the hoppo at Canton, who has, in consequence, issued an edict, which, after recapitulating the fooyuen's instructions, wholly prohibits the importation of opium into the Chinese dominions; and the prohibition has been renewed during the present year, 1820.

The opium-trade, such as it is, it is well known has been monopolised by the company. It is provided in the provinces of Bahar and Benares; and sold in Calcutta by public sale. A learned and very ingenious inquirer estimated the produce of one acre at sixty pounds of opium; but we think he must have been misled by the result of trials on very fertile land in a fortunate season. Such information as we have been able to obtain, has led us to estimate little more than four *seers*, or eight pounds. Many cultivators obtain from the same land a crop of pot-herbs, or some other early produce, before the season of sowing the poppy; but it is reckoned a bad practice. In estimating the medium produce, we may advert to the accidents of season, to which this delicate plant is particularly liable from insects, wind, hail, or unseasonable rain. The produce seldom squares with the true average, but commonly runs in extremes: while one cultivator is disappointed, another reaps immense gain: one season does not pay the labour of the culture; another, peculiarly fortunate, enriches all the cultivators. *Remarks on the Husbandry of Bengal*; printed at Calcutta, 1804.

The poppy is cultivated in the Netherlands, and in the northern departments of France, on a large scale, not with a view to any soporific or narcotic qualities which the plant may contain, but on account of the sweet and pleasant oil which abounds in the seed. The poppy was first introduced into France from Germany about the year 1808, in consequence of the injuries, amounting almost to a general destruction, received by the olive-trees in the southern provinces from the severity of the preceding winter. The first planters having been amply recompensed for their expenses and labour by the price at which the poppy-oil was sold, others were induced to follow their example; inasmuch that, next to wheat, the poppy in certain extensive districts is the most general article of agricultural pursuit. The flavour of this oil is so sweet and delicate, that it is frequently substituted for that of the olive; and we have been credibly informed that the nature, qualities, taste, and flavour, of these two oils are so similar, and so much resemble each other, that this substitution is scarcely considered to be fraud in com-

merce. It is extracted by iron cylinders, which crush the seed, and which are put into action by small windmills, of which, in the immediate vicinity of Lille only, there are more than two hundred. The pulp, or residuum, is made into oil-cake for the fattening of cattle, which is for that purpose of a very superior quality; and the haulme, which is more substantial than straw, is used by the bakers for heating their ovens. The capsule is sometimes fold to the chemists; and from them a decoction is made similar to what is too frequently manufactured by the cottagers of this country under the name of *sleeping-water*.

That it is so cultivated we have the testimony of Miss Hatfield, who, in her "Terra Incognita of Lincolnshire, 1815," has this passage: "Through the whole of this excursion I was particularly attracted by the almost general cultivation of the white poppy, with which every cottage-garden is adorned. Anxious to know the motive for an appearance so remarkable, on inquiring I was not a little surprised to find that this stately flower was raised for the purpose of distillation; that the villagers had frequent recourse to its lethean juices, as an inducer to stupefaction, the worst species of intoxication. That the suffering patient, sleepless and agonized with pain, should fly to the use of opiates; that the Turk, to whom wine is religiously prohibited, should seek a temporary gratification in the delirium they produce; does not surprise us; but that the simple healthy peasantry of Lincolnshire, who suffer no prohibitions, who live in greater plenty than those of any other county in the kingdom, should seek this deleterious enjoyment, greatly surprised me."

8. *Papaver pilosum*, or hairy red poppy: capsules smooth; stem many-flowered, clothed with spreading hairs; leaves clasping the stem, cut, hairy all over. Gathered by Dr. J. Sibthorp, about the Bithynian Olympus. The root of this new and handsome species appears to be perennial. Herb about the size of the last, but of a bright-green, not glaucous, and clothed with bristly hoary hairs, which spread horizontally on the stem, where they are very abundant, as well as on the flower-stalks, where they are sparingly scattered. The leaves are simple, broad, heart-shaped, with strong ribs and veins; the radical ones narrower, oblong, and stalked. Flowers about the size of the last, drooping in the bud, then erect; petals of a pale tawny scarlet, or full orange, with white claws; anthers yellow. This is a new species, described by Dr. Smith in his *Prodr. Græc. Sibth.* vol. i. p. 360.

9. *Papaver orientale*, or great oriental poppy: capsules smooth; stem single-flowered, leafy, rough, with close-pressed bristles; leaves pinnate, serrated, bristly. Native of the Levant. Tournefort found it near Erzerum, in Armenia, flowering in June. He introduced it into the gardens of Holland and France; and it has been, for about a century, a hardy perennial in our parterres, flowering early in summer, and very conspicuous for the great size, and peculiarly-brilliant scarlet colour, of its flowers, which are too dazzling to be looked on in the sunshine: they are nearly a span wide, with dark stamens, and sometimes a black spot on each petal; germen globose, quite smooth and even, without ribs; rays of the stigma sixteen, peculiarly dilated. The root creeps moderately, by which the plant is increased, for it scarcely ever ripens seed with us. Stems about two feet high, simple, leafy, round, densely clothed with erect, rigid, pungent, close-pressed bristles. Leaves most numerous from the root, a foot long, dark-green, harsh and bristly, pinnate, with serrated decurrent segments. The juice of the plant is hot and acrid, yet Tournefort says the Turks and Armenians eat the unripe heads by way of luxury. They extract no opium from this species; but perhaps the similarity of its flavour and effects, to that great soothe of their cares, may cause it to be thus employed. The flower of this species is one of those that emit electrical sparks, or flashes of light. See the article *LIGHT*, vol. xii. p. 680.

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This magnificent plant is exhibited on the annexed Plate, at fig. 2.

10. *Papaver virgatum*, or wand-like oriental poppy: capsules smooth; stem straight, paniced, many-flowered, rough with spreading bristles; leaves pinnate, cut, bristly. Native of Armenia. The stem is straight and stiff, paniced, bearing a great number of flowers, and clothed with spreading rigid bristles. Radical leaves numerous, pinnate, cut, hispid, especially their ribs, all the points callous, and tipped with a bristle, as in those of the preceding, which they in all respects much resemble. Flower-stalks scattered, each bearing one, two, or three, flowers; petals red; germen roundish, smooth. This species differs from the preceding, in having a straight paniced many-flowered stem, the bristles covering which are horizontal, not close-pressed.

11. *Papaver fugax*, or small fugacious poppy: capsules smooth, orbicular; stem paniced, many-flowered, smooth; petals minute; leaves pinnatifid, serrated, hispid. Brought by Michaux from Persia. It flowered in May 1789, in the royal garden at Paris. Poiret described it from Lamarck's Herbarium. He says it is distinguished by the stem, forming at the summit an ample panicle of many very small flowers, which last but a few hours. Each stem is slender, straight, striated, smooth, about eighteen inches high, simple, except at the top. Leaves scattered, stalked, not unlike those of *P. orientale*, but less deeply pinnatifid, not pinnate, furnished with a few long scattered hairs, the segments or teeth, more or less distant, each terminated by a long bristle. Petals pale-red, very small in comparison with the rest of the genus, and extremely fugacious.

12. *Papava Cambricum*, or yellow Welsh poppy: capsules smooth, oblong, beaked; stem nearly smooth, bearing several flowers; leaves pinnate, cut. This species, one of the most elegant of our native plants, seems peculiar to rocky shady situations in Wales and Westmoreland; for the reference to Bauhin's *Prodromus*, on which Linnaeus grounds his assertion of its being found on the Pyrenees, appears to belong either to the alpinum or nudicaule. It is perennial, flowering in June; and may be cultivated in the moist shady parts of a garden, where, though each root does not, in general, last many years, the seeds, scattering themselves in the undisturbed soil, will from time to time produce new plants. The stem is twelve or eighteen inches high, leafy, somewhat branched, clothed with a few rather upright hairs. Leaves tender and delicate, of a pale but pleasant green, pinnate, their common-stalk winged; their leaflets ovate, acute, cut or lobed, almost entirely smooth, glaucous underneath, each above an inch long. Flowers terminating the few branches, solitary, on long stalks, about the size of *P. dubium*, but of a beautiful lemon-colour, with a scent like those of *Crasula coccinea*, or *Mesembryanthemum noctiflorum*. The herb when wounded discharges a yellowish fluid, not unlike the juice of the common celandine, to which indeed this plant is so nearly allied in botanical affinity, that such a coincidence is not surprising.

It was first described and figured by Parkinson in 1640. He says that it grows in many places of Wales, in the valleys and fields, at the foot of the hills, and by the water-sides; about a mile from Abbar, and in the midway from Denbigh to Guider, the house of sir John Guin (Wynne), as also near a wooden bridge over the Dee to Balam in North Wales, and in going up the hill that leads to Bangor; as also near Anglesea. On the back of Snowdon, going from Caernarvon to Llanberris; as you ascend the Glyder from Llanberris, &c. commonly by rivulets or on moist rocks; also beyond Pont Vawr. Found by Dillenius on Cheddar rocks in Somersetshire; and since about Kendal, Kirby-Lonsdale, and Winander Mere, in Westmoreland, and Hooker in Lancashire, by Mr. Woodward and others.

Propagation and Culture. All the sorts of poppy are propagated by seeds; but those which have perennial roots

may be also propagated by offsets. The best time for sowing the seeds is in September, when they will more certainly grow, and those sorts which are annual will make larger plants, and flower better, than when they are sown in the spring. The best way is to sow the seeds of the annual kinds in the places where they are to remain, and to thin the plants where they are too close; those of the large kinds should not be left nearer to each other than a foot and a half, and the smaller sorts may be allowed about half that space. The culture they will require after this, is only to keep them clean from weeds. Those who are curious to have fine poppies in their gardens, carefully look over their plants when they begin to flower, and cut up all those plants whose flowers are not very double and well marked, before they open their flowers, to prevent their farina mixing with their finer flowers, which would degenerate them; and it is the not being careful of this, that causes the flowers to degenerate so frequently in many places, which is often supposed to be occasioned by the ground.

5. The quantity of scarlet poppy, canker, or redweed, in some lands, is a disgrace to the farmer; and the brilliancy of the flowers proclaims his disgrace to the whole country. Being an annual weed, it is easily destroyed by good husbandry; but, like other oily seeds, it will lie long in the ground without corrupting. It is said to have vegetated after having been twenty-four years buried. Swine are frequently turned upon it in Norfolk; and they will eat out this troublesome weed, with little or no damage to the wheat. Others feed first with sheep, then with cattle till April, taking them off when it rains much, if the land is not very light. Upon dry soils, which are most subject to poppy, Mr. Ellman, of Shoreham, ploughs his tare and rape land for wheat the beginning or middle of September, in order to sow the middle of October; the harrowing kills the poppy; and, in putting in the seed, he likes to tread much with oxen or sheep. A neighbour treads his with oxen in March, which he thinks better against the poppy than doing it at sowing. This treading may destroy the present crop of poppy; but the hoard of seed remains in the ground to come up on every ploughing. The only way to destroy such weeds effectually, is to make them germinate, by bringing them near the surface, and then to cut and tear them with the plough, the skim, the scuffler, or the harrow, according to circumstances.

7. The culture of the common white poppy, as practised in the province of Bahar, is as follows. The field being well prepared by the plough and harrow, and reduced to an exact level surface, it is then divided into quadrangular areas, seven feet in length, and five in breadth, leaving two feet of interval, which is raised five or six inches, and hollowed out for conveying water to every area, for which purpose they have a well in every cultivated field. The seeds are sown in October or November. The plants are allowed to grow six or eight inches distant from each other, and are plentifully supplied with water. When the young plants are six or eight inches high, they are watered more sparingly; but a compost of ashes, human excrement, cow-dung, and a portion of nitrous earth scraped from the highways and old mud-walls, is strewed all over the beds. When the plants are near flowering, they are watered profusely to increase the juice. The capsules being half grown, and fit to collect opium from, the plants are no longer watered.

It appears that the poppy may be cultivated for the purpose of obtaining opium to advantage in Great Britain. Professor Alston, of Edinburgh, said, long since, that the milky juice, drawn by incision from poppy-heads, and thickened either in the sun or shade, even in this country, has also the characters of good opium; its colour, consistence, taste, smell, &c. are all the same; only, if carefully collected, it is more pure and free from feculencies. Similar remarks have been made by others; "to which," says Dr. Woodville, "we may add our own; for, during that

that summer, (probably 1792,) we at different times made incisions in the green capsules of the white poppy, and collected the juice, which soon acquired a due consistence, and was found, both by its sensible qualities and effects, to be very pure opium. May I be permitted to add, that near fifty years ago, I frequently amused myself with flashing the green poppy-heads, and collecting a most pure and well-digested opium from them."

But the merit of first cultivating the poppy for opium is due to Mr. John Ball, of Williton, who in the year 1798 was rewarded by the Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, with fifty guineas, for procuring opium in an unsophisticated state from British poppies, and communicating his mode of preparing it to the Society, for the use of the public.

When the leaves die away and drop off, the capsules or heads being then in a green state, is the proper time for extracting the opium, by making four or five small longitudinal incisions with a sharp-pointed knife, about an inch long, on one side only of the head, taking care not to cut to the seeds: immediately on the incision being made, a milky fluid will issue out, which, being of a glutinous nature, will adhere to the bottom of the incision; but some are so luxuriant, that it will drop from the head. The next day, if the weather should be fine, the opium will be of a greyish substance, and some almost turning black; it is then to be scraped off, with the edge of a knife, into pans or pots; and in a day or two it will be of a proper consistence to make into a mass, and to be potted. As soon as the opium is all taken away from one side, make incisions on the opposite side, and proceed in the same manner. The reason of not making the incisions all round at once is, that the opium cannot so conveniently be taken away; but every person, upon trial, will be the best judge. Children may with ease be soon taught to make the incisions, and take off the opium; so that the expense will be trifling. An instrument might be made, of a concave form, with four or five pointed lancets, about the twelfth or fourteenth part of an inch, to make the incisions at once.

Mr. Ball calculates, that supposing one poppy to grow in one square foot of earth, and to produce only one grain of opium, more than 50lb. will be collected from one statute acre: but, since one poppy produces from three or four to ten heads, in each of which from six to ten incisions may be made, each incision sometimes producing two or three grains; what must be the produce? and what the profit at the present price of opium, 22s. the pound?

"I am sensible (says Dr. Woodville) that great abatements must be made in practice from such theoretical calculations as these; and that in our moist climate many seasons will occur, and many days in almost every summer, unfavourable to the collection of the opium. It is however, with all its disadvantages, a very important object to cultivate the poppy for this purpose in Britain; considering the great price of foreign opium, the increasing call for it in medicine, the adulteration of what is imported by rice, flour, and other articles, and the employment that it will find in the collection for women and children."

Mr. Ball adds, that in 1795, from a bed of self-sown poppies 576 feet square, he collected four ounces of opium, though the plants were very thick: and from a few plants that stood detached he took from fifteen to thirty-four grains: this ground had been well manured with rotten dung. He remarks that the semi-double flowers, and those of a dark colour, produced the most opium; that the heads should be about the size of a walnut before the incisions are made; and that the foreign dried poppy-heads are full three times as big as ours. Mr. Miller remarks also that they are of a different shape; but the size is only owing to climate, and the shape indicates no more than a variety.

Mr. Ball advises the seed of *Papaver somniferum*,

official or garden poppy, to be sown at the end of February, and again the second week in March, in beds three feet and a half wide, well prepared with good-rotten dung, and often turned or ploughed, in order to mix it well, and have it fine, either in small drills, three in each bed, or broadcast; in both cases, thinning out the plants to the distance of a foot from each other, when about two inches high: keep them free from weeds, and they will grow well, produce from four to ten heads, and show large flowers of different colours. With an instrument something like a rake, but with three teeth, the drills may be made at once. Poppies do not bear transplanting: out of four thousand which Mr. Ball transplanted, not one plant came to perfection.

The point of most importance, respecting the cultivation of the poppy for opium in Great Britain, is, whether its quality be equal to that of foreign opium. This has been fully ascertained; not only by a druggist in London having agreed with Mr. Ball to give him the same price, for what he should make in the year 1795, as the foreign drug should bear at that time; but by the testimony of several eminent medical gentlemen in London who tried it, in consequence of the request of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts. Dr. Latham observes, that in its sensible qualities it does not seem inferior to any; that it possesses the excellence of being perfectly clean, which must always be an advantage when given in a crude state; and that probably the purified extract of the foreign would not be superior to the English. Dr. Pearson also reports, that he found the English opium to be equally powerful, and to produce the same effects as the best foreign preparation of this drug. Mr. Wilson not only found the English drug equal in point of strength to the best extract from foreign opium; but far superior in flavour, which in the extract is much injured by the boiling, and free from the impurities which are so abundant in crude foreign opium. *Woodville's Med. Botany*, p. 505. *Transf. of the Soc. of Arts*, vol. xiv. 1796. p. 260-70.

Notwithstanding the satisfactory nature of the above communication, the Society of Arts still continued to offer premiums for an improved and more-extensive cultivation of opium in this country. In the year 1800, Mr. Jones, of Fish-street-hill, London, received a premium of fifty guineas, the opium produced by him having been considered as equal in quality to the best foreign opium. His account, including remarks on that of Mr. Ball just quoted, is as follows.

In the summer of 1794, I cultivated a considerable number of white poppies. A few of the heads or capsules having been broken off by the wind, I observed at the extremity of the stalks a substance in every respect resembling Turkey opium. This accidental circumstance bringing to my recollection its method of production, as related in the Encyclopædia and elsewhere, I wounded a considerable number of them with my penknife, and, in the course of the day, collected a small quantity, which appeared more pure than any I had ever seen. From this period I have never entirely lost sight of the object I am now to consider; but, on account of various avocations, and particularly my rhubarb-plantation, which, at this time, required all the attention I could well spare, [this gentleman received, this very year, a premium of thirty guineas for the cultivation of rhubarb,] it was not in my power to engage in an undertaking of such magnitude; and more especially on a scale so extensive as that which I had already resolved to adopt, under a persuasion that experiments, when more confined, are for the most part fallacious. As preparatory, however, I have not failed every year to repeat the operation, at once establishing its practicability, and availing myself of many advantages which can only be derived from observation and experience. The enclosed certificates will inform the Society that at length my plan has been carried into execution,

tion, but not with the degree of success that ought and might have been expected to attend so large and extensive an experiment.

Two years have passed in producing what I flatter myself the Society will consider deserving their premium, particularly if I am able to render the operation much more simple than may at first sight be supposed.

The claimant, I observed, is required to submit to the Society his particular method of cultivating the poppies. As the mode adopted in the present instance arose rather from necessity than choice, I must go back as far as the autumn of 1797, to show how it happened.

Five acres of ground and upwards, situated in the parish of Enfield, in the county of Middlesex, I appropriated to this experiment, at the period above mentioned; which, being ploughed several times previous to the following March, were then sown broad-cast; and, the weather proving favourable, the seed soon vegetated, and appearances were very promising. From the neglected state of the land, however, to which I was unfortunately a stranger, such a profusion of weeds sprang up among them, that, after many fruitless efforts at recovery, I was under the mortifying necessity of ploughing them all up together. This circumstance not taking place till the latter end of April, the season for sowing was elapsed; and, as to cropping my field with oats or barley, a measure very strongly recommended to me, I considered it as a deviation from my original purpose, and therefore, without paying any attention to it, gave the field a summer-fallowing, conceiving the poppies might be sown with equal and perhaps greater advantage in autumn.

Finding that the *broad-cast* method of sowing precluded the possibility of hoeing where the land is much infested with weeds, I now adopted a different mode, and *drilled* in the seed with a very simple yet efficient machine, which I purchased of Mr. Macdougall of Oxford-street; but, as the weather began to be very severe so early as November, and continued so with few intermissions, the succeeding March found me very little forwarder. Yet still I persevered, and once more resolved to drill the whole five acres; they came up extremely well, and, as I expected, accompanied with innumerable weeds; but these by well-timed application were eradicated, though not without considerable difficulty.

I now thought myself secure; for nothing could assume a better appearance till the beginning of May. Alas! I could not foresee the cold and remarkably dry weather that ensued, and prevailed, I believe, for six weeks successively. Hence the growth of some became stunted, and others were entirely destroyed; but happily some warm refreshing showers fell just time enough to rescue the remainder. From these I have procured upwards of twenty-one pounds of opium, five of which, in compliance with the Society's requisition, I have sent for their inspection and examination.

This recital ought on no account to intimidate others; for it is obvious that the former inconveniencies originated in my own ignorance, whilst the latter depended upon the causes that, in all probability, may never happen again.

Mr. Ball, in a letter published in one of the volumes of the Society's Transactions, advances an opinion which I consider as very fallacious, respecting the quality of land adapted to the growth of poppies. He seems to be very little concerned about this point, and hints the probability of their being cultivated almost every-where. I well know that poppies, like many other vegetables, will grow in soils of any description; but of this I am fully assured, that, like the rest, they have their particular and favourite soil, viz. a sandy loam, and that, the better this is, the more advantages will accrue to the cultivator. There is also another error in the same communication, which, having a tendency to mislead, ought to be pointed out. He tells us, to use his own words, "that, by a calculation he has made, supposing one poppy growing in one square

foot of earth, and producing only one grain of opium, more than fifty pounds (I suppose he means, of course, apothecaries' weight) will be collected from off one statute acre of land." Now, as there are no more than 43,560 square feet in an acre, and allowing one grain for each, the produce can be no more than ninety ounces and six drachms. This calculation appears to me to be as much in the extreme one way, as that of Mr. Ball is in the other. The medium is most probably nearest the truth; but upon this point I cannot at present speak with any degree of precision, on account of the scattered situation of my crop, and the extraordinary intemperance of the last season. Judging, however, from the number of heads we perceived, and comparing them with the total quantity, they seem to have yielded three-fourths of a grain each, upon an average, large and small.

I shall now lay before the Society some general remarks on the cultivation of poppies, and then conclude with submitting a few hints and directions respecting the preparation of opium.

Having a tap-root, their size will consequently be proportionate to the depth of earth they are enabled to penetrate. Hence the necessity of land that will admit of deep ploughing. The fineness of the surface, too, is very essential. As the seed is so small, and the plants, on their first coming up, so exceedingly tender, the bush-harrow should always be used after those which are commonly employed. By this means a greater number are likely to vegetate, and their roots, being better protected, are less liable to injury.

Poppies may be cultivated both by the drill and broad-cast mode of husbandry; at the same time it must be remembered, that the land for each requires a different disposition. In the former this is not so material, the sowing-machine regulating the distances of the rows according to the will of the operator; these ought to be nine inches or a foot asunder, and in beds containing four rows, allowing a foot and a half between each. But, with respect to the latter, this point must be strictly attended to; the ridges should never exceed four feet in breadth; so that the furrows will answer the double purpose of preserving the land throughout the winter, and, in the season for collecting the opium, serve as paths for the workmen.

Besides two chances of a crop, I am decidedly in favour of autumnal sowing; and the first week in September seems to be the most favourable period for this purpose. If the weather continues open, they will make such a progress as to be capable of resisting the severity of an inclement winter, without, on the other hand, being too forward; a circumstance highly dangerous, as the first severe frost is inevitably destructive. On this account, whether by the drill or otherwise, a large proportion of seed should be sown at this season, for the plants will defend each other; and, as all the plants will not be equally forward, so, let the winter prove as it may, provided the seed has vegetated freely, there will be great probability of a good appearance in spring.

I do not without sufficient reason recommend that this operation should be performed in autumn. The poppies are not only generally larger, but, even when this is not the case, I know, from experience, that they will yield a much larger proportion of opium; for it seldom happens that a spring-poppy will *bleed*, as we term it, more than twice, while the others will bear scarifying till they are nearly ripe. This, I imagine, can only arise from the length of time the one has been in the ground in comparison with the other. In drilling, the necessity of covering the seed by harrowing is suspended by the operation of the machine; and, in the broad-cast method, a shower of rain will have all the effect without further trouble or expense.

Excepting great additional care, turnip and poppy hoeing are similar, and in every respect may be conducted in the same manner. I believe the turnips are rather benefited, they certainly are not injured, by being shaken,

and will recover from the effects of a wound; but, if the poppies are accidentally touched, they will either exhaust themselves by bleeding, or dwindle so as to be of no value. But it is high time to proceed to the last point I proposed to consider; namely, the production and preparation of opium.

In ordinary seasons, the heads or capsules of the autumnal poppies will be large enough for our purpose in the month of June; for at this time they will have attained about half their growth, or be equal in size to a small tea-cup. I have invented a variety of instruments as scarificators; but, as only two kinds were actually used, I am unwilling to trouble the Society with a description of any other.

The first of these instruments consists of two thin steel blades fixed by a wedge in a wooden handle, so as to make incisions about one-fourth of an inch from each other. The other is made entirely of steel, and resembles in form the tuning-fork of a harpichord. It consists of four bars, proceeding from a handle of a convenient length, a quarter of an inch wide, and two and a half long, each terminating with a bolster, through which a screw passes that fixes the scarificators. The centre bars should be so elastic as to yield to the curvature of the capsule, upon the outer ones being pressed by the finger and thumb; and by this means four incisions are made at once, at equal distances. This instrument is an inch and three quarters in width; but from the two outer blades, only an inch and a quarter. The bolsters are a quarter of an inch in diameter, and the scarificators a proportionate length, namely, three-eighths. The wedge in the former, and a longitudinal aperture in the scarificators, or blades, of the latter, will regulate the depth of the incisions, at the will of the operator. It is of the utmost importance that these should not be made through the inner coat of the capsules.

Seven boys were employed, from eight to twelve years of age, together with a man as a superintendent. To the youngest I gave three-pence per day; and to the rest, if tractable and well-disposed, an additional penny for every additional year. The steel instrument was used by the latter, and the others by the former. I have great reason to be satisfied with their construction; for, notwithstanding their simplicity, they proved themselves fully equal to my purpose; and so considerable a trial has not suggested any other improvement, than that in the largest the two inner bars only should be elastic; for the continual pressure of the finger and thumb on the two outer ones, which is absolutely necessary for the others to act, would be avoided, and consequently much fatigue and inconvenience prevented. It is of very little consequence whether the first incisions are made horizontally or vertically with this instrument; for, however luxuriantly the milk may flow, by making four at one time, it so divides the stream, that seldom any escapes. With the smaller ones we most commonly made them horizontally, beginning as near the top of the head as possible, and for this reason—all the juices, if the first incision was made at the bottom, would be naturally attracted by the aperture, and render every other completely fruitless, besides occasioning the loss of a considerable quantity by falling on the surrounding leaves; whereas, on the other hand, a proportion of milk will exude from each, and the opium be equally distributed over the whole surface of the head. No particular directions seem necessary for repeating this operation, any farther than that each time it should be performed in a contrary direction, and continued, till no more will exude, at intervals of four or five days, or more, according to circumstances: for, as the weather proves rainy or fair, they will be shorter or longer, the heads being sooner replenished in the one than the other.

Each of the children being provided with a tin cup, having one handle, so contrived as to fix itself to a girdle fastened round his waist, with a common gardening-knife they scraped off the opium that appeared upon the heads

in a soft ash-coloured substance. Dewy mornings are best calculated for this purpose, and it should be discontinued as soon as the sun has gained a sufficient power to dissipate it; for, if persevered in throughout the day, some of the opium will recede into the interstices, and more, in defiance of every endeavour, will remain upon the heads. The principal quantity exudes in the course of the night, and, uniting with the dew, it is taken off as readily and completely as with a sponge.

The interval from breakfast-time to sunset, if the weather assumed a settled appearance, was occupied by scarifying. And, upon the whole, considering it was the first attempt of the kind, every thing proceeded very regularly; and, had the summer been propitious, notwithstanding my former disappointments, I should have had great cause for satisfaction. The largest quantity that my man, seven children, and myself, were able to procure in one morning, from five to nine o'clock, was one pound and a half: this happened when the dew was remarkably great, and succeeded one of the warmest days in the summer.

From the experience I have had, the precariousness of our climate appears to me the only obstacle to the production of opium in this kingdom. The evil produced by a sudden alteration of weather is irreparable; for, should it happen after a fine scarifying day, we not only lose the labour of that day, but all its produce. It becomes obviously necessary, therefore, to be particularly circumspect; the poppies will receive no damage from remaining entire; while, on the other hand, impatience may be injurious, if not destructive.

The opium, when first collected, from its union with the dew is much too soft to be so formed as the Society will receive it. To reduce it to a proper consistence, taking Nature for our guide, it should be thinly spread in shallow dishes, and exposed, under glasses, to the rays of the sun. My opinion is, that Turkey opium suffers considerably from the operation of fire; certain it is, that with respect to its effluvia, it undergoes a complete alteration. I have covered it with its own leaves, thinking this a very convenient mode of package, and conceiving it to be important, in every new undertaking, by studying appearances, to yield to the general prejudices which naturally prevail in favour of the article to which we have been accustomed.

The following testimony of the quality of the opium is extracted from a letter from Dr. Woodville to Mr. Jones. "I have examined the opium collected by you from the capsules of the white poppy; and I have no doubt, from its taste, smell, colour, and purity, but that it is more powerful and efficacious than the best foreign opium imported into this country. The late Dr. Alston, when professor of botany and materia medica in the university of Edinburgh, informed the public, more than sixty years ago, (see *Med. Essays*, vol. v.) that the milky juice, drawn by him from the heads of the white poppy, soon acquired the consistence of opium, when its taste, smell, faculties, &c. were the same as those of that drug. In the year 1791 I convinced myself of the truth of his assertion, by repeating his experiments, which I noticed the following year in my *Medical Botany*. Soon after this time I appropriated a part of the garden at the Small-Pox Hospital for the growth of the *Papaver somniferum*, from the green capsules of which were collected between two and three ounces of opium, which was found to be more efficacious than that of the exotic, as appeared upon trials of it made by several of my medical friends. But the great trouble and length of time required for the collection of the juice induced me at the time to think, that the manufacture of this valuable medicine in England did not hold forth any prospect of commercial advantage. However, since I have seen the great quantity of it collected under your direction, I sincerely hope that the above opinion will prove to be unfounded; and congratulate you on your success."

Other

Other letters accompany this account, from Dr. Pearson, Mr. John Horner, and Mr. G. E. Lawrence, which prove the quality to be equal to the best foreign opium. The committee of chemistry, to whose examination the English opium, prepared by Mr. Jones, was referred by the Society, ordered samples of it to be left with several eminent chemists for their analysis and judgment; in consequence of which, the following preparations were laid before the committee by those gentlemen, viz. Extract of English opium in proof spirit. Hard extract of English opium. Watery extract of English opium of the late Dispensatory. Tincture of English opium of the present Pharmacopœia. Tincture of English opium of the late Dispensatory, English opium powdered. Similar preparations of fine foreign opium were produced in comparison; and, from the general result of these experiments, it appears, that Mr. Jones's English opium is equal in quality to fine foreign opium; and the certainty of its growth in this country, preparation, and efficacy, fairly established. *Transf. of the Soc. of Arts*, vol. xviii.

PAPAVER CORNICULATUM and CORNUTUM.

See CHELIDONIUM and CLEONE.

PAPAVER SPUMEUM. See CUCUBALUS.

SPINOSUM. See ARGEMONE.

PAPAVEROUS, *adj.* [from *papaver*, Lat. a poppy.] Resembling poppies.—Mandrakes afford a *papaverous* and unpleasant odour, whether in the leaf or apple. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

PAPAW', *f.* [*papaya*, low Lat.] A plant. See CARICA.

The fair *papaw*,

Now but a seed, preventing nature's law,

In half the circle of the hasty year,

Projects a shade, and lovely fruits does wear. *Waller.*

PAPAW-TREE of North America. See ANNONA.

PAPAW'S, a name given in the West Indies to the negroes of Whidah, or Fida, in Africa. For the particular manners of this tribe, see the article NEGRO, vol. xvi. p. 686. In addition to which, we have since been informed, that many of the Whidah negroes are found to be circumcised. Whether it be a religious ceremony common to all the tribes that go under the appellation of Papaws, has not been ascertained. It is practised universally by the Nagoes, a people that speak the Whidah language; but some negroes on this part of the coast disavow the practice.

PAPA'YA, *f.* An Indian name, retained by Tournefort, Plumier, and Jussieu, for the *Carica* of Linnæus, or papaw-tree. See CARICA.

PAPAZ'LI, a town of European Turkey, in Romania: twelve miles east-south-east of Filippopoli.

PAPE, *f.* [French.] The pope. *Coles.*—Any spiritual father; sometimes written *papa*. From the monasteries he receives a certain annual income or rent, according to the abilities and possessions thereof; and from every *papa*, or priest, a dollar yearly per head. *Ricaut's State of the Greek Church.*—The prayer of the *pape* so incensed the Scot, that he vowed revenge; and watched the *pape* with a good cudgel, next day, as he crossed the church-yard, where he beat him. *Carr's Trav. Guide*, 1695.

PAP'EBROCH (Daniel), a learned Flemish Jesuit, was a native of Antwerp, where he was born in the year 1628. When he was eighteen years of age, he com-

menced his noviciate among the Jesuits; and, after he had completed his studies, acquired no little reputation by the success with which, during fifteen years, he taught the belles-lettres, and after that time philosophy. From this employment he was taken to be associated with fathers Bollandus and Henschenius in the laborious work of compiling the "Acta Sanctorum;" and he accompanied the latter in his travels through Italy, France, and Germany, in order to collect materials for that voluminous undertaking. He published, jointly with Henschenius, the three volumes for the month of March, in 1668; three other volumes, for the month of April, in 1675; and the three first volumes for the month of May, in 1680. After this, Henschenius being disabled from proceeding with the design by a paralytic attack, the principal labour and conduct of it devolved upon Papebroch, who continued his labours on the same work till his death, in 1714, when he was in the eighty-seventh year of his age. The volumes of that work on which he was employed, amount to forty-seven in number, of a large folio size, and are considered to be the most correct and judicious in that vast compilation; as he had been careful to exclude many of the absurd legendary tales in the Martyrologies, Lives of the Saints, &c. from which they were compiled. Father Papebroch was also the author of, 2. *Conatus Chronico-historicus ad Catalogum Romanorum Pontificum*, 1685, folio. 3. *Acta Vitæ S. Ferdinandi Regis Castellæ et Legionis*, 1684, octavo. 4. A Latin version of a curious Spanish book, under the title of "Examen Divinitatis quam in Carmelo Vespasianus confulsit, five C. Suetonii Tranquilli Locus de Deo Carmelo Hispanice explicatus per Excellent. Dom. Gasparem de Mendoza," 1698, 4to. 5. A variety of treatises in controversy with the Carmelites, forming four volumes quarto, &c. *Gen. Biog.*

PAP'ELARD, *f.* A hypocrite. *Chaucer.*

PAPERLAR'DIE, or PAPELARDISE, *f.* Hypocrisy. *Cole.*

PAP'EMBERG, an island of Japan, in appearance a mountain, surrounded by the sea. Here the Dutch ships wait at anchor for a wind, when they wish to return to Batavia. The Japanese name is Takaboko, or Takajama.

PAP'ENBERG ISLANDS, five small islands in the Eastern Indian Sea. Lat. 6. 54. S. lon. 131. 58. E.

PA'PER, *f.* [*papier*, Fr. from *papyrus*, Lat.] Substance on which men write and print; made by macerating linen rags in water, and then grinding them to pulp and spreading them in thin sheets.—I have seen her unlock her closet, take forth *paper*. *Shakespeare.*—Piece of paper.—'Tis as impossible to draw regular characters on a trembling mind, as on a shaking *paper*. *Locke on Education.*—Single sheet printed, or written. It is used particularly of essays or journals, or any thing printed on a sheet.—Do the *papers* lie? *Swift.*

What see you in those *papers*, that you lose
So much complexion? look ye how they change!

Shakespeare.

It is used for deeds of security; or bills of reckoning.—He was so careless after bargains, that he never received script of *paper* of any to whom he lent, nor bond of any for performance of covenants. *Fell.*—They brought a *paper* to me to be sign'd. *Dryden.*

MANUFACTURE OF PAPER.

VARIOUS are the materials on which mankind, in different ages and countries, have contrived to write their sentiments; as on stones, bricks, the leaves of herbs and trees, and their rinds or barks; also on tables of wood, wax, and ivory; to which may be added plates of lead, linen rolls, &c. At length the Egyptian papyrus was invented; then parchment, then cotton paper; and, lastly, the common, or linen, paper.

In some places and ages they have even written on the skins of fishes; in others on the intestines of serpents; and in others on the back of tortoises. There are few sorts of plants but have at some time been used for paper for books: and hence the several terms, *biblos*, *codex*, *liber*, *folium*, *tabula*, *tiltura*, *philura*, *jcheda*, &c. which express the several parts on which they were written: and, though in Europe all these disappeared upon the introduction of the papyrus and parchment, yet in some other countries the use of divers of them obtains to this day. In Ceylon, for instance, they write on the leaves of the talipot; and the Bramin manuscripts in the Talinga language, sent to Oxford from Fort St. George, are written on leaves of the *ampaya*, or Palma Malabarica: Hermannus gives an account of a monstrous palm-tree called *coddia pana*, or Palma montana Malabarica, which, about the thirty-fifth year of its age, rises to be sixty or seventy feet high, with plicated leaves nearly round, twenty feet broad; with which they commonly cover their houses; and on which they also write, part of one leaf sufficing to make a moderate book. And Varro observes, that, from the circumstance of leaves having been first used for writing on, the same word began, and continued, to signify the leaf of a tree and the leaf of a book. See Phil. Trans. N^o 145, 246.

In the Maldivé islands, the natives are said to write on the leaves of a tree called *macaraguan*, which are a fathom and a half long, and about a foot broad. And in divers parts of the East Indies, the leaves of the Musa arbor, or plantain-tree, dried in the sun, served for the same use, till of late that the French have taught them the use of European paper. Ray also enumerates divers kinds of Indian and American trees which bear leaves proper to be used as paper; particularly one called *xagua*, which has something in it extraordinary; its leaves are so large, and of so close a texture, that they cover a man from top to toe, and shelter him from the rain, and other inclemencies of the weather, like a cloak; and from the innermost substance of these leaves, a paper is taken; being a white and fine membrane like the skin of an egg, as large as a skin of our vellum or parchment, and nothing inferior for beauty and goodness to the best of our papers. *Ray's Hist. Plantar.* tom. ii. lib. 32.

Paper is chiefly made among us of linen or hempen rags, beaten to a pulp in water, and moulded into square sheets of the thickness required. But it may also be made of nettles, hay, turnips, parsnips, colewort-leaves, asbestos, or any thing that is fibrous; nay, it may be made of white woollen rags; though this would not serve for writing, because of the hairiness. Other substances are—the pith of thistles, the bark of the fallow (*Salix caprea*), hemp, shaws of hemp, shaws of flax, hop-bines, stalks of cabbage, of mallow, of common broom, of the sun-flower (*Helianthus annuus*), of mugwort, of clematis, &c. the down of the cat's-tail, the catkins of the white poplar, the husks of maize, straw, &c. Trials of some of these, and especially of straw, have been made in England as far back as the year 1799; and in 1801, the Society of Arts gave a premium of twenty guineas to Mr. Thomas Willmott, of Shoreham, Sussex, for having made ten reams of paper from the *pau-plant* of Bengal, the *Corchorus olitorius* of

systematic writers. A specimen of the paper is placed in the volume (xix.) of their Transactions for that year: it is of a whity-brown colour, like tea-paper, and does not bear writing-ink well. Much, therefore, remains to be done; and, as the occasion is important, especially as it relates to commerce, and to the promulgation of arts and sciences, we should be happy to find, that some public-spirited individual, of enterprise and talent, would turn his attention to an extensive series of experiments, for the purpose of ascertaining the merits of these or other substitutes for linen rags, in the fabrication of paper for writing and printing. In the mean time, the Society of Arts continued, and we believe still continue, to offer premiums for the manufacture of paper from vegetable substances, particularly those which are the produce of Great Britain and Ireland. In the volume of their Transactions for the year 1812, it is observed, that, “the object of the Society being to add to the number and quantity of raw materials used in this manufacture, it is their wish to include every useful sort of paper, and to introduce such natural products as can be easily and cheaply procured in great quantities. The Society are in possession of two volumes containing a great variety of specimens of paper made from raw vegetable substances, viz. nettles, potatoe-haulm, poplar, hop-bines, &c. which volumes may be inspected by any person on application to the housekeeper.”

We shall divide the history of the manufacture of paper into seven sections; the last of which, however, is by far the most important. 1. Egyptian paper. 2. Paper made from cotton. 3. Paper from the interior bark of trees, or *liber*. 4. Chinese paper. 5. Japanese paper. 6. Paper made from asbestos. 7. Paper made from linen rags.

I. OF THE EGYPTIAN PAPER.

This is the famous paper used by the ancients, which was made of a kind of reed called *papyrus*, growing in Egypt on the banks of the Nile. According to Isidorus, this paper was first used at Memphis; and Lucan seems to be of the same opinion;

Nondum flamineas Memphis connexere biblos
Noverat. *Pharjal.* lib. iii.

Whatever truth may be in this, it is certain, that, of all the kinds of paper used by the ancients, the papyrus was the most convenient, both from its flexibility and from the ease of fabrication. It was a present from nature, and required neither care nor culture.

It is not certain at what particular period the ancients began to make paper of papyrus; but there are several authorities which prove the use of it in Egypt long before the time of Alexander the Great.

Pliny, lib. xiii. cap. 11. gives a full description of the method of making this paper in Egypt; which see abridged under CYPERUS papyrus, vol. v. p. 524.

There were paper-manufactories in divers cities of Egypt; but the greatest and most celebrated was that at Alexandria, where, according to Varro's account, paper was first made. It is certain, at least, it was from hence that Greece and Italy was furnished, on account of the convenient situation of that port; and it is more than probable it was this that gave the Romans occasion to conclude the art had been invented there. It was not till late, when Egypt was reduced into a Roman province, that they had much intercourse with, or even knowledge of, the inland cities of Egypt, where paper was also made. The trade and consumption of this commodity were in reality incredible. Vopiscus relates, that the tyrant Firmius, who rebelled in Egypt, publicly declared he would maintain an army only with paper and glue, “papyro & glutine.”

& glutine." This, Casaubon understands as spoken of the produce and revenue of paper; though Salmasius takes it to be meant of the papyrus itself, which could supply most of the necessaries of life.

We find divers species of Egyptian paper mentioned in ancient writers: some denominated from the places where they were manufactured; as, 1. The *Amphitheatrica*, supposed to have been made in some building belonging to an amphitheatre at Alexandria; though Guilandinus, with more probability, reads it *Arthritica*, from *Arthribus*, a city in the middle of the Delta, which was the place of its manufacture. What countenances this correction, is, that we find mention of this paper before there was so much as an amphitheatre at Rome, much less at Alexandria. 2. *Saitica*, made in the city Sais. 3. *Taniotica*, or, according to others, *Taitica*, whose place authors are not agreed on. There were also other sorts denominated from the makers; as, 4. The *Fanniana*, from the grammarian Fannius Palæmon, who kept a paper-work. This kind was small, but finer than the amphitheatrical paper; being first wrought at Alexandria, and afterwards finished at Rome. 5. *Claudia*, first made by order of the emperor Claudius. This was reputed the best of all, in that, besides the two pellicles, in common with the rest, it had a third. Others were denominated from the uses they were intended for; as, 6. *Hieratica*, the first or oldest sort, which was appropriated to religious uses; this was afterwards denominated *Augusta* and *Liviana*, in compliment to the emperor of that name, and his wife; who, according to some, improved and made it whiter than before. 7. *Emporetica*, or *Emporica*, a small and coarse sort, serving for shopkeepers' uses, to tie up goods, &c.

The qualities for which the ancient papers were prized, were their thinness, closeness, whiteness, and smoothness; though their breadth also considerably enhanced their value. That sort called *Charta Claudia* was thirteen inches wide; the *Hieratica*, eleven; the *Fanniana*, ten; and the *Amphitheatrica*, nine; as to the *Saitica*, it exceeded not the diameter of the mallet it was beaten with. Among these, the *Amphitheatrica* was highly esteemed for its strength, whiteness, and polish. The ink, however, sunk less in paper highly polished; and therefore the characters were more liable to be effaced. When it was not carefully soaked in the first preparation, the paper brought a less price; because letters were with difficulty formed upon it, and it sent forth a disagreeable smell. To remedy this defect, the paper went through a new course of sizing and hammering; and the size used on that occasion was made of light bread steeped in boiling water, and passed through a filtering-cloth. By this means the paper became in the highest degree united, and smoother than the finest linen. It was this paper which gave so long a duration to the works of the Gracchi, Tiberius, and Caius, in their own hand-writing. "I have seen them (says Pliny) in the library of Pomponius Secundus, a poet and citizen of the first rank, near 200 years after they were written." We may add, that manuscripts of this paper still remain, which have undoubtedly been written 1000 or 1200 years ago. Notwithstanding the care which was taken to give strength and consistency to the paper of Egypt, the leaves, although collected into a book, were too weak to support themselves; and for this reason it was a common practice, after every five leaves, to insert a leaf of parchment. There still remains in the abbey of St. Germain-des-Près a fragment of the Epistles of St. Augustine written in this manner. The manuscript is at least 1100 years old, and in a high state of preservation.

This paper was an important branch of commerce to the Egyptians, which continued to increase towards the end of the Roman republic, and became still more extensive in the reign of Augustus. The demand from foreign nations was often so great, as to occasion a scarcity at Rome; and we read in the reign of Tiberius of a tumult among the people in consequence of this scarcity. In a

letter of the emperor Adrian, the preparing of the papyrus is mentioned as one of the principal occupations at Alexandria. "In this rich and opulent city (says he) nobody is seen idle: some are employed in the manufactory of cloth, some in that of writing-paper," &c.

St. Jerome informs us, that it was as much in use in the fifth century when he flourished. The duty on the importation of this commodity had grown excessive towards the end of this or the beginning of the sixth century; and, being abolished by Theodoric king of Italy, Cassiodorus, in the 38th letter of his 11th book, congratulates the whole world on the discharge of an impost on a merchandise so essentially necessary to mankind.

Montfaucon and Mabillon mention several fragments written on this paper in the sixth century. One of them was a charter of the emperor Justinian, entitled, *Charta plenarie securitatis*. Father Montfaucon saw in 1698, in the library of Julio Justiniana, three or four fragments of paper of Egypt of the same antiquity. And Mabillon speaks of some books of the Jewish Antiquities by Josephus, translated into Latin, which seemed to have been written in the same century, and which were preserved in the library of St. Ambrose of Milan. The same father mentions to have seen in the library of St. Martin of Tours the remains of an old Greek manuscript of the paper of Egypt, and which appeared to him to be of the seventh century. He also believes, that the copy of St. Mark's Gospel preserved in the register-office of Venice is written on the same paper, that it is the most ancient of any of the evangelical manuscripts, and may be supposed to be written at the latest in the fourth century. According to the same antiquarian, the paper of Egypt was used in France, and Italy, and other European countries, both for books of learning and public records; and there still remains, adds he, a great number of these in the archives of the church at St. Dennis, at Corbie, in the abbey de Grasse, and in other convents.

It is probable, that the invention of paper made of cotton, of which we are next to treat, insensibly destroyed the reputation and manufacture of the paper of Egypt; but it is still a question at what particular period the fabrication of the latter totally ceased. Eustachius, the learned commentator on Homer, assures us, that in his time, in 1170, it was no longer in use; but father Mabillon maintains, that many of the popish bulls were written on the papyrus in the 11th century.

Count Maffei, in his *Istor. Diplomat. lib. ii. Biblioth. Ital. tom. ii.* is decidedly of opinion, that the paper of Egypt was not in use in the fifth century. He considers all records written on this paper dated posterior to this period as not authentic; and the popish bulls mentioned by Mabillon appear to this learned person, as well as the copy of St. Mark's Gospel, to be written on paper manufactured from cotton. To reconcile in some measure these contradictory accounts, it may be observed, that on some particular occasions, and by some particular persons, the paper of Egypt might have been employed for several hundred years after it ceased to be of general use. Whoever wishes for a fuller account of the paper of Egypt, may consult among the ancients Pliny, lib. xiii. and Theophrastus, lib. iv. chap. ix. and, among the moderns, Guilandinus, Scaliger, Salmasius, Kerchmayer, Nigrifoli; Hardouin, in his edition of Pliny; Mabillon, *De Re Diplomat.* Montfaucon in his *Paleography*, and in his *Collections*; the illustrious Maffei in his *Istor. Diplomat.* the Count de Caylus in the *Memoirs of the Academy of Inscriptions*; and Mr. Bruce in his *Travels to discover the Source of the Nile*.

II. OF PAPER MADE FROM COTTON.

It is generally supposed that the invention of the paper, called *Charta bombycina*, supplanted the Egyptian paper in Greece. This paper is incomparably more lasting, and better calculated for all the purposes of writing. It is not precisely known at what period this art, which

supposes a great variety of previous experiments, was first reduced to practice. The application of cotton to the purposes of paper-making requires as much labour and ingenuity as the use of linen rags; and for this reason, if we could determine the precise time when paper was made from cotton, we should also fix the invention of the art of paper-making as it is now practised in Europe. Father Montfaucon proves, by incontestable authorities, that paper from cotton was in use in 1100. This paper in the Greek language is called *χαρτι βυβλινος*, or *βυβλινος*; for although *βυβλινος* is the Greek word for silk, yet in those times it was applied, as well as *βαμβαξ*, to cotton; and hence the Italians to this day call cotton *bambaccio*.

The most ancient manuscript of this paper which father Montfaucon saw with the date, was that in the French king's library, written A.D. 1050; but as the manuscripts without date are infinitely more numerous than those which are dated, and as some conjecture can be formed concerning them from the manner of writing, this father believes some of them to have been written in the tenth century. The researches of the same learned antiquarian amount almost to a proof that this paper was discovered towards the end of the ninth century or beginning of the tenth; for before the twelfth century it was commonly used in the eastern empire, and even in Sicily. Roger king of Sicily says, in a diploma written in 1145, that he had renewed on parchment a charter which had been written on paper of cotton in the year 1100, and another which was dated in the year 1112. About the same time the empress Irene, in the statutes for some religious houses at Constantinople, says that she had left three copies of the same statutes, two in parchment and one in paper from cotton. From that period this paper was still more in use through all the Eastern empire; and innumerable Greek manuscripts are found written on it in all the great libraries.

This discovery happened at a time when there seems to have been a great scarcity of parchment; for it was about this period that the Greeks erased the writings of Polybius, Diodorus of Sicily, and many valuable ancient authors, for the sake of the parchment.

It was the invention of this paper of cotton which destroyed the manufacture of the paper of Egypt; for, if we may believe Eustathius, who wrote towards the end of the 12th century, the latter paper had gone into disuse but a little before his time. We may easily believe, however, that this new invention, although of great advantage to mankind, was introduced by degrees.

The manufacture of this kind of paper has flourished in the Levant for many ages, and is carried on with great success even to this day. It is not necessary to say any thing farther, than that the paper produced from cotton is extremely white, very strong, and of a fine grain.

III. OF PAPER FROM THE BARK OF TREES.

Before the use of parchment and paper passed to the Romans, they contrived to use the thin peel which was found on certain trees between the wood of these trees and their bark. This second skin they called *liber*, from whence we have derived the names of *library* and *librarian* in the European languages, and the French their *livre* for book. Anciently, instead of folding this bark, this parchment and paper, as we fold ours, they rolled it according as they wrote on it; and the Latin name which they gave these rolls has passed into our languages, as well as the others: we say a *volume* or volumes, although our books are composed of pages cut, and bound together.

The trees most commonly selected for this purpose were the maple, the plane-tree, the elm, the beech, the mulberry, and very frequently the linden-tree. The ancients wrote on this inner coat after they had separated it from the bark, beat, and dried it.

There are many palm-trees in India and America to which botanists have given the name *papyraceous*, because

the natives have written with bodkins either on the leaves or the bark. Such is the American palm, called *tal* by the Indians; and of the same kind is the *guajaraba* of New Spain. Every palm, the bark of which is smooth, and the leaves large and thick, may be used for this purpose.

Mabillon and Montfaucon speak frequently of manuscripts and diplomas written on paper made from bark; and positively distinguish it from the Egyptian paper, because it was thicker and more brittle than the papyrus, as well as more apt to cleave or shiver, by which the writing was sometimes lost; as is the case in a bark manuscript in the abbey of St. Germain's, where the bottom of the paper remains, but the outer surface, on which the letters had been drawn, is in many places peeled off. See Montfaucon, *Palæogr. Gr. lib. i. cap. 2.* and Mabill. *de Re Diplom. lib. i. cap. 8.*

But Maffei, it must not be forgotten, combats the whole system of bark manuscripts and charters as a popular error; and maintains, that the ancients never wrote diplomas on bark; that the distinction between the paper made of *papyrus* and of *cortex* is without foundation; that the only use of the *tilia*, or linden, was for making thin boards or tablets for *diptycha*, or pocket-books, wherein they wrote on both sides, as is done among us: an advantage which they could not have in the Egyptian paper, by reason of its thinness.

A French writer on the rules of criticism wanders still farther out of the way, when he speaks of a sort of paper, in Egypt, made of the *pith* of the cyprus: he describes the manner of preparation, which was by reducing this pith to a pulp, and then spreading it out in leaves. (See Hon. St. Marie Reflex. sur les Regl. de la Crit. tom. ii. diff. 77.) This we suspect for a chimera hatched only in the critic's brain. Not but there occur divers anomalous sorts of paper, which antiquaries are not a little puzzled what species to refer them to; such is that of two bulls in the archives of the church of Gironne, issued by the antipopes Romanus and Formosus, between the years 891 and 895. They are two ells long and one broad; and consist of two leaves or pellicles glued together transversely, and are still legible in most places. The conjectures of the French literati, in regard to these, are numerous; the abbot Hiraute de Belmont has a discourse expressly on the occasion. Some will have them made of the leaves of the *alga*, or sea-wreck; others of the leaves of a rush, called *la boga*, growing in the marshes of Rouffillon; others of papyrus; others of cotton, and others of bark. So little certainty does there really appear to be in these things, on which the critics nevertheless often lay a great stress. See Mem. de Trev. Sept. 1711.

IV. OF THE CHINESE PAPER.

The art of making paper from vegetables reduced to stuff was known in China long before it was practised in Europe: and the Chinese have carried it to a degree of perfection hitherto unknown to the European artists. The fine paper in China is softer and smoother than that of Europe; and these qualities are admirably adapted to the pencil, which the Chinese use in writing. Several kinds of their paper discover the greatest art and ingenuity, and might be applied with much advantage to many purposes. They are capable of receiving, for example, the impression of types; and both maps and prints have been executed with success on the Chinese paper.

The different sorts of paper vary in China according to the materials of which they are composed, and to the different manner of manufacturing those materials. Every province has its peculiar paper. That of Se-chuen is made of linen rags as in Europe; that of Fo-kien, of young bamboo; that of the northern provinces, of the interior bark of the mulberry; that of the province of Kiang-nan, of the skin which is found in the webs of the silk-worm; finally, in the province of Hu-quang, the tree chu, or kochu, furnishes the materials with which they make paper.

The

The method of fabricating paper with the bark of different trees is nearly the same with that which is followed in the bamboo. To give an idea, therefore, of the manner of manufacturing the interior barks of the mulberry, the elm, and the cotton-tree, it will be sufficient to confine our observations to the bamboo.

The bamboo (*Arundo bambos*) is a kind of cane or hollow reed, divided by knots; but larger, more elastic, and durable than any other reed. The whole substance of the bamboo, composed of filaments, and a great abundance of fibrous materials, is employed in this operation. The shoots of one or two years, nearly the thickness of a man's leg, are preferred. They strip the leaves from the stem, cut them into pieces of four or five feet long, make them into parcels, and put them into water to macerate. As soon as they are softened, which generally happens in five days, they wash them in pure water; put them into a dry ditch; cover them with lime for some days, which they water for the purpose of slacking; they wash them carefully a second time; cut every one of the pieces into filaments, which they expose to the rays of the sun to dry and to bleach them. After this they are boiled in large kettles; and then reduced to stuff in mortars of wood, by means of a hammer with a long handle, which the workman moves with his foot.

The stuff being thus prepared, they take some shoots of a plant named *ko teng*, which, steeped in water four or five days, is reduced to an unctuous or glutinous substance; and, when they proceed to make the paper, this is mixed with the stuff in certain exact quantities, for on this mixture depends the goodness of the paper.

When the extract from the *ko-teng* is mixed with stuff of the bamboo, the whole mixture is beat together in mortars till it becomes a thick and viscous liquor. This is poured into large tubs or reservoirs, so exactly framed as that no part of the liquor can escape. The workmen after this plunge their forms into the liquor; take out what is sufficient for a sheet of paper; which immediately, from the glutinous substance, becomes firm and shining; and is detached from the form by turning down the sheet on the heap of paper already made, without the interposition of pieces of woollen cloth, as in Europe.

But the Chinese often make their sheets of paper above twelve feet in length; and the celebrated Dr. Franklin has, in the American Philosophical Transactions, given the following account of the method used by them for making these extremely large sheets of paper; suppose of four and half ells long, and half an ell wide. They have two large vats, each five ells long, and two ells wide, made of brick and lined with plaster, that holds water; in these the stuff is mixed ready to work. Between these vats is built a kiln, or stove, with two inclining sides, each side something larger than the sheet of paper; they are covered with fine stucco, that takes a polish, and are so contrived as to be well heated by a small fire circulating in the walls. The mould is made with thin but deep sides, that it may be both light and stiff. It is suspended at each end with cords, that pass over pulleys fastened to the ceiling, their ends connected with a counterpoise nearly equal to the weight of the mould. Two workmen, one at each end of the mould, lift it out of the water by the help of the counterpoise, turn it up, and apply it, with the stuff for the sheet, to the smooth surface of the stove, against which they press it, to force out a great part of the water through the wires. The heat of the wall soon evaporates the rest, and a boy takes off the dried sheet by rolling it up. The side next the stove receives the even polish of the studs, and is thereby better fitted to receive the impression of fine colours. If a degree of sizing is required, a decoction of rice is mixed with the stuff in the vat. Thus, the great sheet is obtained smooth and sized, and a number of the European operations, of uniting the edges of several small sheets together, are saved. If the stove has two polished sides, and there are two vats, the same operation is, at the same time, performed by two

other men at the other vat, and one fire serves both. And thus the paper is dried almost as fast as it is made.

To harden the sheets, and make them bear ink, they dip them into a solution of alum. This operation is called *staining*, from the Chinese word *fan*, which signifies alum. The manner is this: Six ounces of isinglass, cut very small, are put in divers porringers of water, which they afterwards boil up, stirring it all the time to prevent lumps: when the whole is reduced to a liquid substance, they throw into it three quarters of a pound of calcined alum, which they melt and incorporate with it. This mixture is next poured into a wide basin, across which is laid a small round stick; then they shut the edge of each sheet in another cleft from end to end, and in this manner dip the sheet, gently drawing it out as soon as it is wetted, by sliding it over the round stick. When the whole sheet has been passed nimbly through this liquor, which makes it whiter, and more compact, the long stick that holds the sheet by the edge is stuck into a hole in the wall, and the sheet is left to dry.

Silvering of paper, as it is called, is another secret among the Chinese, practised at a very small charge, and without using any silver. In order to this, they take two scruples of glue, made of neats-leather, one scruple of alum, and half a pint of clean water: these they simmer over a slow fire, till the water is consumed, that is, till no more steam arises; then on a smooth table they spread some sheets of paper, and on this, with a pencil, they apply two or three layers of the glue; then they take a powder made of talc boiled, and mixed with one third the quantity of alum; the two are ground together, sifted, and the powder boiled again in water, then dried in the sun, and lastly pounded again. This powder they sift through a fine sieve, spreading it uniformly on the sheets prepared as above; after which they hang them in the shade to dry; and, this effected, they lay them again on the table, and rub them gently with clean cotton to take off the superfluous talc, which serves a second time for the same purpose. With this powder, diluted in water, mixed with glue and alum, they draw any figures at fancy on the paper. See Du Halde's Description. Chin. tom. i.

The paper made from the bamboo is sufficiently white, soft, closely united, without the least inequality on the surface to interrupt the motion of the pencil, or to occasion the rising of the materials which compose it. However, every kind of paper made from the bamboo or the bark of trees, is readier to crack than that made in Europe; besides, it is more susceptible of moisture, and sooner destroyed by dust and worms. To obviate this last inconvenience, they are obliged frequently to beat their books in China, and to expose them to the sun. It may be observed, however, that the Chinese paper, employed for various purposes in Europe, has been preserved for a long time without receiving damage either from moisture or insects.

In very ancient times, the Chinese wrote with a bodkin of iron on tablets of bamboo; afterwards on satin with a pencil; and about 160 years before Christ they discovered the art of making paper.

V. OF THE JAPANESE PAPER.

According to Kempfer, the bark of the *Morus papyrifera*, or paper-mulberry-tree, is that which is chiefly employed for making paper in Japan. Every year, after the fall of the leaves, which happens in the tenth month, corresponding to our December, the young shoots of this tree, which are very succulent, are cut off into sticks about three feet long, or something less, and put together in bundles, to be afterwards boiled with water and ashes. If they should grow dry before they can be boiled, they must be first soaked in common water for about twenty-four hours, and then boiled. These bundles, or faggots, are tied close together, and put upright into a large kettle, which must be very well covered; and then they are boiled till the

the bark shrinks so far as to let about half an inch of the wood appear naked at the top. When the sticks have all been sufficiently boiled, they are taken out of the water, and exposed to the air till they grow cold, then they are slit open lengthways, for the bark to be taken off; which being done, the wood is thrown away as useless; but the bark is dried and carefully preserved, as being the substance out of which they are in time to take their paper, by letting it undergo a farther preparation, consisting in cleaning it anew, and afterwards picking out the better from the worse. In order to this, it is soaked in water three or four hours, and, being grown soft, the blackish skin which covers it is scraped off, together with the green surface of what remains, which is done with a knife which they call *kaadsi kufaggi*, that is a kaadsi razor; at the same time also the stronger bark, which is a full year's growth, is separated from the thinner, which covered the younger branches, the former yielding the best and whitest paper, the latter only a dark and indifferent sort. If there be any bark of more than a year's growth mixed with the rest, it is likewise picked out, and laid aside as yielding a still coarser and worse sort of paper; all gross knotty particles, and whatever else looks in the least faulty and discoloured, is picked out at the same time, to be kept with the last coarse matter.

After the bark has been sufficiently cleaned, and prepared and sorted according to its different degrees of goodness, it must be boiled in clear ley. From the time it begins to boil, they keep perpetually stirring it with a strong reed, pouring from time to time so much fresh ley in as is necessary to condense the evaporation, and to supply what has been already lost by it; this boiling must be continued till the matter is grown so tender, that, being but slightly touched with the finger, it will dissolve and separate into flocks and fibres. Their ley is made of any sort of ashes, in the following manner: Two pieces of wood are laid across over a tub and covered with straw, on which they lay wet ashes, and then pour boiling hot water upon it, which, as it runs through the straw into the tub underneath, is imbued with the saline particles of the ashes, and makes what they call ley.

After boiling the bark as above described, follows the washing of it, which is of no small consequence in paper-making, and must be managed with great judgment and attention. If it has not been washed long enough, the paper will be strong indeed, and of a good body, but coarse and of little value; and if, on the contrary, the washing has been too long continued, it will afford a whiter paper, but such as will not bear ink. They wash it in a river, putting the bark into a sort of sieve, which will let the water run through, and stirring it continually with the hands and arms, till it comes to be diluted into a delicate soft pulp, or mucilage. For the finer sort of paper the washing must be repeated; but the bark must be put into a piece of linen, instead of a sieve, because, the longer the washing is continued, the more the bark is divided; and would come at last to be so thin and minute, that it would run out at the holes of the sieve and be lost. The bark, having been sufficiently washed, is put upon a thick smooth wooden table, in order to its being beaten with mallets of hard wood, which is commonly done by two or three people, until it is wrought fine enough, and becomes withal so thin as to resemble a pulp of soaked paper.

The bark, being thus prepared, is put into a narrow tub, with a glutinous extract from rice and the root *oreni*, which is very viscous. These three substances, mixed together, are stirred with a reed till they form a liquor of an equal and uniform consistency. This composition is poured into tubs similar to those used for filling the forms in our paper-mills.

As soon as the sheets are made and detached from the form, they are laid in a heap on a table covered with a double mat. A small slip of cane is placed betwixt every sheet. This piece of cane, jutting out, serves to distin-

guish the sheets, and afterwards to raise them. Every one of the heaps is covered with a plate or thin board of the exact size of the paper. In proportion as the paper dries, or is able to bear it without danger of being compressed into one mass, they lay on additional weights. This pressure, intended to carry off any unnecessary moisture, is continued for twenty-four hours, when the sheets are suspended, by means of the little pieces of reed, to long plants, in the open air, till they are completely dried.

The Japanese paper is of such prodigious strength, that the materials of which it is composed might be manufactured into ropes. There is sold at Serige, the capital city of the province of Japan of that name, a kind of it fit for bed-hangings and wearing-apparel; and so much resembling stuffs of wool and silk, that it is often taken for them.

VI. OF INCOMBUSTIBLE PAPER, FROM ASBESTUS.

Asbestos is a genus of talcose earth; (see the article MINERALOGY, vol. xv. p. 445.) and we have already, under the word ASBESTUS, vol. ii. described the process of making cloth from this mineral, or stone. It is still more extraordinary that paper can be formed of such a stubborn material; and paper, moreover, which cannot be burnt.

Dr. Bruckman, professor at Brunswick, has published a natural history of the asbestine or incombustible paper: and four copies of his book are printed on this paper: they are deposited in the library of Wolfenbittel. See Bibl. Germ. tom. xiv.

The manner of making this extraordinary paper is described by Mr. Edward Lloyd, from an essay made by himself. He pounded a quantity of the asbestos in a stone mortar, till it became a downy substance; then sifted it in a fine sieve, and by this means purged it indifferently well from its terrene parts; because the earth or stones he could not pick out of it before, or at the pounding, being reduced to a powder, came through the sieve, the fibre remaining. This done, he brought it to the paper-mill; and, putting it in water, in a vessel just big enough to make a sheet with such a quantity, he stirred it pretty much, and desired the workmen to proceed with it in the usual method, with their writing-paper mould; only to stir it about always before they put their mould in, it being a far more ponderous substance than what they used; and that consequently, if not immediately taken up after it was agitated, it would subside. The paper made of it proved but coarse, and was very apt to tear; but, this being the first trial, there is reason to believe it might be much improved; nor did the workmen doubt, but, in case it were pounded in one of their mortars for twenty hours space, it would make good writing-paper; and Mr. Lloyd (Phil. Trans. 1684) promised to make farther experiments; but we do not know that he did. The Encyclopædia Britannica says, that the writing disappears when cast into the fire; but does not inform us whether it re-appears again when the paper is withdrawn, and gets cold. Upon the whole, it is certainly an object more of curiosity than use. The asbestos, with which Mr. Lloyd made his experiments, was collected in the parish of Llanfair, in the northern part of the isle of Anglesey.

VII. OF PAPER MADE FROM LINEN RAGS.

Paper is now manufactured through all Europe of linen rags collected in the cities and in the country. This kind of paper was utterly unknown to the ancients. The *libri lintei* mentioned by Livy, lib. iv. Pliny, c. xi. and by other Roman writers, are demonstrated by Guilandinus, in his commentary on Pliny, &c. to have been written on pieces of linen cloth, or canvas prepared in the manner of painters.

But it is not sufficient to be certain that paper from linen is a modern invention; it is necessary to know by what nation, and at what period, it was discovered. Polydore

dore Virgil, *De Inventoribus Rerum*, c. viii. confesses his ignorance of these facts. Scaliger, without any kind of proof, gives the glory to the Germans; and Maffei to the Italians. Other writers ascribe this honour to some Greek refugees at Basil, to whom the manner of making paper from cotton in their own country had suggested the idea. Du Halde is persuaded that Europe derived this invention from the Chinese, who, in several provinces, make paper of rags, nearly in the same manner that we do. But this invention was practised by the Europeans before they had any communication with China, and before the taking of Constantinople, at which time the Greek refugees were supposed to have retired to Basil. The precise time of this discovery in Europe is not exactly known. Father Mabillon believes that it was in the twelfth century; and cites a passage of Pierre de Clugny, born A. D. 1100, to prove it. The books which we read every day, says that abbé in his treatise against the Jews, are written on sheep and calves skins; or on oriental plants; or, finally, *Ex raris veterum pannorum*. If these last words signify paper, such as we use, there were books of it in the twelfth century. But this citation is the more to be suspected, as Montfaucon himself, after the minutest search in France and Italy, could find no book on this paper antecedent to the death of St. Louis, A. D. 1270.

The epocha of this invention was not determined till 1762, M. Miérman having proposed a reward to the person who could procure the most ancient manuscript written on this kind of paper. The collection of all the memoirs sent to him along with the manuscripts was published at the Hague in 1767; and it appeared that this paper had not been used in Europe before the year 1300.

John Tate, who is presumed to have flourished about 1496, is said to have first made paper in England, or was at the expense of introducing the manufacture: for evidence is produced, that the English edition of Bartholomæus, printed by Wynkin de Worde, was the first book, for any thing we yet know to the contrary, that was printed upon paper made in this nation. *Fosbrooke's Records of Gloucestershire*.

The English manufacture was a long while in no great reputation; but it is every day improving; inasmuch that we now import little of the ordinary sorts, which were formerly all brought from abroad. Yet paper-mills are of some standing among us. We find one erected at Dartford as early as the year 1588, which was thought to have been the first, (but see above,) and which is celebrated by a noted poet of that age, Tho. Churchyard, in a work in verse, intitled "A Description and Discourse of Paper, and the Benefits it brings; with the setting forth of a Paper-mill, built near Dartford, by a High-German, called Mr. Spilman, Jeweller to the Queen." Lond. 1588, 4to.

Anderson (*Hist. Com.* vol. ii.) says, that till about the year 1690, there was scarcely any kind of paper made in England but the coarse brown sort: but, the war with France occasioning high duties on foreign paper, the French protestant refugees settled in England chiefly, and also our own paper-makers, now began to make white writing and printing paper, which, he adds, in length of time, has been brought to so great perfection, both for beauty and substance, that in our own time we import only certain kinds of Genoa and Dutch paper, which bears but a very small proportion to all the paper used in the British dominions. This has produced, it is said, a saving to Britain of 100,000*l.* which was paid annually to France for paper only. Another writer says, that the English manufactures now provide above seven-eighths of the whole quantity of paper consumed in Great Britain.

"In tracing effects to their true causes," says Mr. Landseer, (*Lect. on Engraving*, p. 198.) "it ought not to be forgotten, that the great benefits we have derived, and continue to derive, from engraving and printing, ought in fairness, to be partly ascribed to the discovery
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of the means of converting rags into paper: this probably helped to suggest the idea of printing." Aware of the objection that would be made of the distance of time between the invention of the one and of the other, he qualifies it by saying, "and perhaps two centuries and a half had scarcely more than brought this invention to the degree of perfection necessary for the reception of impressions from types and engravings." He proceeds thus: "Had the modern art of making paper been known to the ancients, we had probably never heard the names of Faust and Finiguerra; for with the same kind of stamps which the Roman tradesmen used for their pottery and packages, books might also have been printed; and the same engraving which adorned the shields and pateras of the more remote ages, with the addition of paper, might have spread the rays of Greek and Etrurian intelligence over the world of antiquity. Of the truth of this assertion I have the satisfaction to lay before you the most decided proofs, by exhibiting engraved Latin inscriptions, both in cameo and in intaglio, from the collection of Mr. Douce, with impressions taken from them at Mr. Savage's letter-press but yesterday; and also a print, taken, with permission, from a Greek, Phrygian, or Etruscan, patera, in the Hamiltonian collection: the latter is a mere outline, in a bad style, of two figures in the Phrygian dress; and, though it possesses no merit in itself, it serves to show how little was wanting to the ancients of the modern art of printing from the incisions of the graver, and may be thought a curiosity, as being in all probability the oldest engraving in the world from which an impression has been taken on paper. The British Museum contains, moreover, two other ancient engravings, performed exactly in the same manner as we now engrave on copper for printing: of which one, the remains of a Greek parazonium, has been copied and accurately described by Mr. Strutt: the other is also classical both in composition and subject, and is cut on a patera of bronze: Venus attended by Cupid, is represented as preferring a complaint or imploring a favour of Jupiter; and Mercury, ordered on an errand, is in the act of departure, stepping through the zodiac."

That the art of printing and engraving should not be impeded in its progress when once discovered, it was necessary that we should have at hand a cheap material by the means of which books and prints might be multiplied. A more plentiful and economical substance could not be conceived than the tattered remnants of our clothes, linen worn out, and otherwise incapable of being applied to the least use, and of which the quantity every day increases: nor could a more ready operation be imagined, than a few hours' tritulation in a mill. It has been observed by a French writer, that the dispatch of the processes of paper-making is so great, that five workmen in a mill may furnish sufficient paper for the continual labour of 3000 transcribers. Whilst the Egyptian papyrus was the only kind of paper, it would have been impossible to have procured it in sufficient quantities to have made large editions of books. The cotton paper, though in a progressive state of improvement, was but a rude and perishable article, unfit for any of the nice purposes to which paper is now applied.

The perfection of the art of paper-making depended upon finding a material which could be procured in sufficient quantities, and which would be easy of preparation. Such is the paper now in use, of which we shall endeavour to describe the manufacture.

Of the ART of MAKING PAPER, as now practised in EUROPE, and chiefly in ENGLAND.

In detailing the modern process of making paper, we shall be chiefly indebted to the communications of a retired paper-maker, who permits us also to make use of his name; J. Bigg, esq. late of Iping Mills, near Midhurst in Sussex.

The principle upon which the formation of paper depends,

pend, consists in separating the fibres of the rags, by grinding, into exceedingly fine and short filaments, which, being mixed with water till they make a fine pulp, may be taken up in a very thin and even layer upon a mould of wire cloth. Now, by the draining away of the water through the wire, the filaments are left interwoven or felted so completely among each other, that they will not separate without breaking, and when dry will make a sheet of paper; the strength and quality of which depend very much upon the materials it is made from, and the equality of length and size to which the filaments are reduced by the grinding; which equality alone can cause them to float equally in the water of the pulp, and thus distribute themselves fairly and equally over the wire mould when taken up by it.

The operation of paper-making admits of three divisions; viz. I. The preparation of the rags. II. The forming of the sheets in the mill. III. The finishing of the paper.

I. PREPARATION of the RAGS.—The sorting of the rags is of no small importance in the art of making paper; for unless the rags, which are ground at the same time in the engine, are all of the same quality, both as to substance and condition, the finest and best parts will be ground away in the mill, and carried off by the water before the coarser are sufficiently reduced to make a fine pulp. For this reason, in the sorting of the rags which are intended to make fine paper, the hems and seams should be kept apart, and the coarseness of the cloth should be considered. That cloth which is made of tow should be separated from that which is made from the longer fibres; cloth of hemp from cloth of flax; and lastly, the degree of wearing in the cloth should be attended to. For, if rags almost new are mixed with those which are much worn, the one will not be completely reduced to a pulp, whilst the other will be so attenuated as to be carried off by the water, and pass through the hair-strainers of the engine; hence there must be a considerable waste in the operation, a real loss to the manufacturer, and even to the beauty of the paper; for the particles first carried off by the current of the water, are perhaps those which give it that smooth velvet softness which is so great a recommendation. When the sorting is imperfectly performed, the pulp or stuff is found to have cloudy parts floating in it, owing to some masses being less reduced than others. This produces those cloudy papers wherein are seen by intervals parts more or less clear, and more or less weak, occasioned by flakes assembled on the wire of the mould, which are not sufficiently tempered and diluted to incorporate with more fluid parts.

But as it is necessary, in many cases, to mix the different qualities of rags together, to produce various kinds of paper, this should be done by reducing the different sorts of rags separately in the mill, as also the hems and threads of the stitching, because the fowing-thread, being never so much worn as that of the cloth, and not so easy to be reduced, forms filaments in the paper. When the rags unequally disposed for trituration, have been ground apart, the different pulps may be mixed together without inconvenience, and will be found homogeneous or alike, each having been ground during the time that was necessary for the state of the rag. Without this precaution, the finest particles will be always lost, and of course the beautiful quality of the paper will be altered by the coarsest. Therefore this care in sorting the rags produces a great beauty of the paper, without hurting its goodness. It will, besides, be attended with the advantage of mixing a pulp, which will form the strength of the paper, with another which will give it softness and lustre; and thus two qualities may be united which otherwise existed separately.

The rags are then put into a machine called a *duster*, made in the form of a cylinder, four feet in diameter and five feet in length. It is all through covered with a wire net, and put in motion on pivots at its ends by a connection with some part of the machinery. The whole is

inclosed in a tight close box. A convenient quantity of rags, after being cut into pieces about four inches square, is inclosed in the cylinder of the duster, and its motion separates the dust from them, and it passes through the wires into the box.

The sorting is performed by women and children, who are seated on benches, in a large room full of old linen, before a chest, which is divided into four boxes, to receive as many different sorts of rags. Each woman has a piece of pasteboard, hung from her girdle, and extended on her knees, upon which, with a long sharp knife, she unrrips seams and stitches, and scrapes off all filth. Whatever can be used, after being well examined, is distributed into one of the four boxes, according to the degree of fineness, and the women throw the rest at their feet. The four boxes are for the different sorts of rags: the superfine; the fine; the middling; and the coarse; without including the very coarse parts, which are totally rejected, at least for the making of white paper, but may serve for white-brown paper; but even for this purpose they should be mixed up with a large parcel of coarse linen. Old paper may also serve for the same use, but the waste is considerable; it is therefore reserved for pasteboard, in the manufacture of which, the stuff being worked less time in the engine, and with less force, though with the same water, it will lose much less than if worked sufficiently to make paper.

Paper intended for bills of exchange, or other commercial and legal instruments, ought to be tough, in order that it may not be easily torn, when made as thin as it is necessary to be, for the ease of conveyance by post. For this, paper rags of the best quality must be entirely, or in large proportion, employed; and the price which the consumers are disposed to pay for the article, is sufficient to allow the best materials, and still indemnify the manufacturer for his care and industry. Rags imported from the continent are bad to make into writing-papers, it being very difficult to size them sufficiently hard. The rags which are free from sheave, or the woody parts of the flax, and soft, are best.

Common papers require to be more or less tough, according to their thickness, and the use to which they are applied; but a clear white colour is sought in paper of every description, whether for writing or printing. The manufacturers of paper were formerly obliged to attend to the colour of the rags in the sorting, as well as to their qualities; but of this care they are now in a great measure relieved by the introduction of *bleaching*, which enables them to produce the finest paper, in point of colour, from any kind of rags. They have only therefore to find such materials as will make paper of a strong texture, and a fine even surface, knowing they can produce colour at pleasure. To bleach the rags by the oxymuriatic acid gas, they are first washed in hot water, by a fulling-mill, such as is used for scouring cloth: this removes the dirt, and they are put into a receiver or chamber, made of wood, in a cubical form, and the joints airtight. It is provided with several stone retorts, which being filled with a mixture of manganese, with two-thirds its quantity of sea-salt, and a quantity of sulphuric acid equal to the salt, will, when moderately heated by a small sand-bath furnace, throw into the receiver a gas which quickly discharges any colour the rags may contain. This process, which is very similar to that used for bleaching cotton thread, was invented by Mr. Campbell, who had a patent for it in 1792. In his specification, he directs that the rags should, before they are put into the receiver to be bleached, contain about their own weight of fair water, the super-abundant water being pressed out. The rags should first be opened by a machine, called by the cotton-manufacturers a *devil*, or some machine of that nature; and they are to be distributed in the receivers, in layers spread on frames, so that they will not come in contact with each other; or they may be placed in the body of the receiver, and have stirrers or agitators provided,

to expose every part of them to the action of the bleaching gas.

After the process, which must be concluded as soon as ever the rags are sufficiently bleached, lest the gas should act upon and injure their quality, they are to be washed in water, and will be ready for the mill. Some manufacturers think that this mode of bleaching the rags makes them rotten, and injures the quality of the paper; which it certainly does if carried too far, though there is no doubt of the advantages of the process if well conducted.

The bleaching-process has given rise to great complaints from the printers, as many printing-papers are now made from cotton-rags. The oxygenated muriatic acid, being applied for the purpose of obtaining dispatch and delicacy of colour, produces a paper of a good appearance from an inferior staple. Nothing can be more perplexing to a printer, nor more detrimental to his labours, than this kind of bleached paper; for, although it may be thick, and seem strong in the ream, no sooner does the water penetrate through it, than it loses its adhesive quality, and becomes so loose and soft as scarcely to bear handling, and in working under the press sinks down into the cavities of the letters, leaving a part of its substance behind, after every impression, until it so clogs the type that the work is rendered scarcely legible. Nor is it less exceptionable in point of durability, as it must moulder away in a little time, with the common use that popular books generally undergo. Notwithstanding this, it must be allowed, that if, by bleaching, the paper-makers can produce a bad article from such materials as were otherwise of no use, they are also able to improve their manufacture when they use the same materials as formerly. It is found most advantageous to bleach the rags in the state of half-stuff, that is, when they have been once worked by the mill, as, the fibres being by that means separated, the gas has greater access to the interior parts, and they are bleached quicker, so as to have less danger of injury to particular parts, by too long an action of the gas. Another method of bleaching, is by muriatic of lime put into the washing-engine, which for printing-papers is that now most commonly used. But Mr. Bigg's process is intended to apply to the paper not only after it is made, but even after it is printed; and it has the effect also of restoring damaged or mildewed *printed* paper, not only without injuring the type, but even greatly to improve the brilliancy of it. This has been given under the article BLEACHING, vol. iii. p. 102.

The rags are now ready to be thrown into the washing-engine of the paper-mill; which brings us to the second and most important operative section.

II. FORMATION of the SHEET in the MILL.—The engines now used in paper-mills are constructed on such a powerful principle, that they are capable of reducing the strongest and toughest rags to pulp in a moderate time; whereas the old machines were not able to work the rags without *fermenting*, or *rotting*, them, as a previous process. The following extracts from a French work on the art of making paper, will show the manner in which it was conducted sixty years ago.

"The rags, being sorted, are put into a large stone vat, sixteen feet long, ten broad, and three deep; water is poured upon them at the top during ten days, and eight or ten times every day, without stirring them. They are afterwards left to rest the same number of days, and sometimes more or less, without pouring water upon them. Then, being turned over, the centre is brought to the surface, to facilitate the fermentation; and, after being turned again, they are still left fifteen or twenty days in fermentation, so that the rotting may last five or six weeks; the term is not fixed, but when the heat becomes so great, that the hand, thrust in, cannot endure it above some seconds, it is judged that it is time to stop it. In mills which have but few rags to work upon, they are left to rot longer, because the heaps, being smaller, heat less, and

with more difficulty; so that nothing can be justly determined of the time proper for the rotting part. It depends also on the quality of the rags; the finest linen does not rot so soon as the coarse; and linen that has been worn with more difficulty than new, because the internal humidity, that disposes the fibres to fermentation, is more considerable in new or coarse than in fine or worn linen. Such as are more or less strong, more or less worn, resist the action of rotting in different degrees, some being spoiled when others have not gone through the first fermentation; so that the rags, which have been sorted with great care, ought to be left to rot together, to avoid the risk of altering the whole parcel, by the mixture of a portion of rags quite different from the rest. When champignons grow on the heaps of rags, it is reckoned to be a sign of their being well rotted.

"Besides this, there is another method for disposing of the rags in the place for rotting and fermenting them. Having been wetted with water, a heap is made of them in a corner of the vaulted room, which is destined for that purpose. They are watered from time to time, and, when sufficiently heated, are transported into another angle of the same room, so that what was at the top of the first heap is now laid under the second; and care is taken to throw water upon them from time to time. When this heap takes heat again, it is transported to the third corner, where, having fermented again, it is carried into the fourth angle; observing always to lay those rags under the heap that were at the top of the foregoing, and to water them often; for a reddish water will come from them, which it is very necessary to clear the rags of. When the heap in the first corner is brought away, another is formed in the same corner, which passes in its turn to the several corners of the room.

"Some, to accelerate the operation of rotting and fermenting, throw lime upon the rags. Perhaps a very small quantity of lime may be used; but, if too much is laid on, the corroded rags will be too soon reduced into a pulp, and will pass through the strainer with the water, which ought to carry off only their filth, and will occasion a considerable waste. The use of lime, for the purpose of rotting rags, is absolutely prohibited in France."

The action of rotting was, at that period, thought necessary for abridging the labour of making paper, and facilitating the operation of the mill; but several advantages are procured by dispensing with it, now we are able to destroy the texture of the cloth, and reduce it to pulp, without previously corrupting its substance by rotting it; the paper is much stouter, is less liable to break, and is also whiter; for the fermentation gave a yellowish hue to the surface of the rags, which the mill could not take out without difficulty, and never could entirely, if the rags were too rotten.

We now come to describe the structure of *paper-mills*. In England they work with cylinders, or engines, an invention which was brought from Holland many years ago, and found to be so great an improvement, that it has been universally adopted. The old mills, which are still in use in some parts of the continent, actuate a number of stampers, or pestles, which pound the rags in wooden mortars till they are reduced to a pulp. These mortars are cut out in a block of heart of oak, well seasoned, the cavity being of an oval figure, about eighteen inches broad, thirty inches long, and eighteen or twenty in depth; the bottom concave, and lined with an iron plate an inch thick, eight inches broad, and thirty long, shaped inwards like a mould for a salmon, with the head and tail rounded. In the middle of the mortar is a cavity beneath the plate, and four or five grooves are cut, forming channels which lead to a hole cut from the bottom of the cavity quite through the block: it is covered by a piece of hair-sieve fastened on the inside. This plate is grooved to make teeth, on which the teeth of the hammers act, to cut the rags in pieces. The use of the hair-sieve is to prevent any thing from going out but foul water. Two hammers, or pestles,

pestles, work side by side in each mortar, and are lifted alternately by the mill; they are sometimes made in the same manner as the stampers of an oil-mill, to lift perpendicularly. In other mills they are large hammers moving on a centre like a fulling-mill, and lifted by cogs upon the mill-shaft in the same manner. The mortars are kept constantly supplied with fair water, by little troughs, leading from a cistern, which is kept full by small buckets affixed to the floats of the water-wheel; these, when they have raised the water to the top, pour it out into the cistern in the same manner as the Persian wheel, which see under MECHANICS, vol. xiv. p. 761, 2.

This rude and imperfect machine operated very slowly, and suffered a great part of the rags to escape being reduced, whilst other parts were beaten too much. It is not now to be met with in England, the engines having taken their place, to the great improvement of the paper-trade; these are turned by water-mills, as they require a very great power to actuate them, though their performance is far greater, with the same power, than the mortars.

The construction of an improved English paper-mill, similar to that used by Mr. Bigg, is represented on the annexed Plate. Fig. 1. is the general view, or elevation. The wheels in immediate view are of iron; but the water-wheel, which gives the motion, cannot be seen, as it is situated beneath the floor; it is enclosed between the walls of the house PP, and another wall Q, which is built up across the house, to support the floors N and O, on which the engines stand: the wall has arches in it to admit the water of the stream to the wheel, a proper gate being fixed to regulate its quantity: the axis of the water-wheel, which is of cast iron, comes through the wall Q, and has a large cog-wheel B upon it, which is the full size of the water wheel, and by the paper-makers is termed the *master-wheel*; the extreme end of the shaft is sustained in a bearing, which lies on a beam GG, supported on a wall of masonry. The pinion C, called the *wallower*, is turned by the master-wheel B, and on its axis is fixed the large spur-wheel D, called the *fly-wheel*, giving motion to the two pinions, E, F, of the engines K and L; the shaft of the wheel D and pinion C are supported at one end in a frame H H I, and the other, in a bearing fixed in the wall Q. The engines K and L are placed on the floors N and O upon different levels, the bottom of L being higher than the top of K, so that the contents of L may be let down through a plug-hole in the bottom. The upper engine L is called the *washer*, where the rags are first worked coarsely, with a stream of water running through them to wash and open their fibres; after which washing they are let down into the *beating-engine* K, to be ground, and reduced to a finished pulp, proper for moulding into sheets of paper.

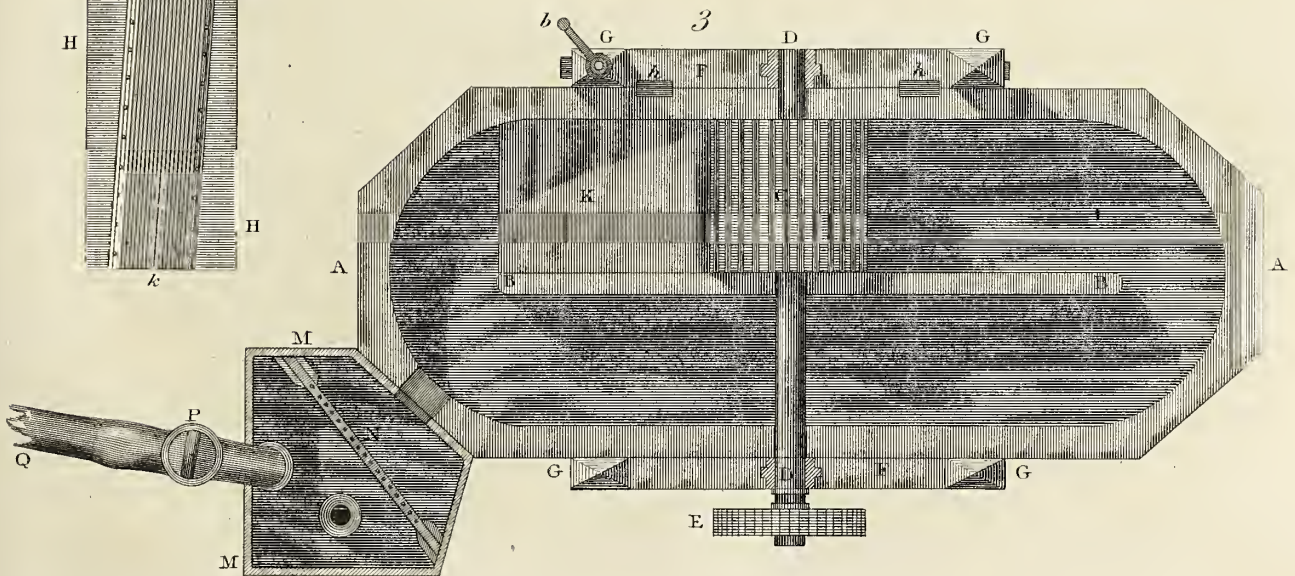
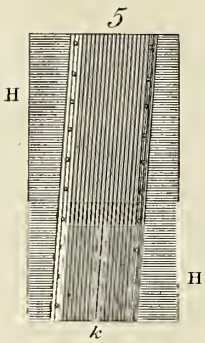
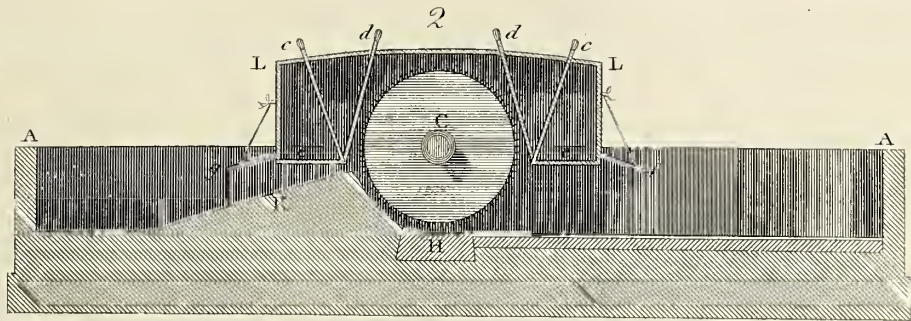
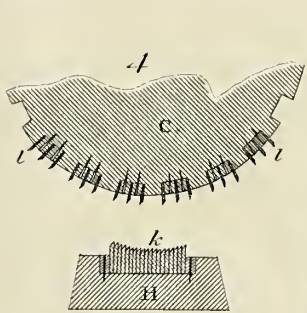
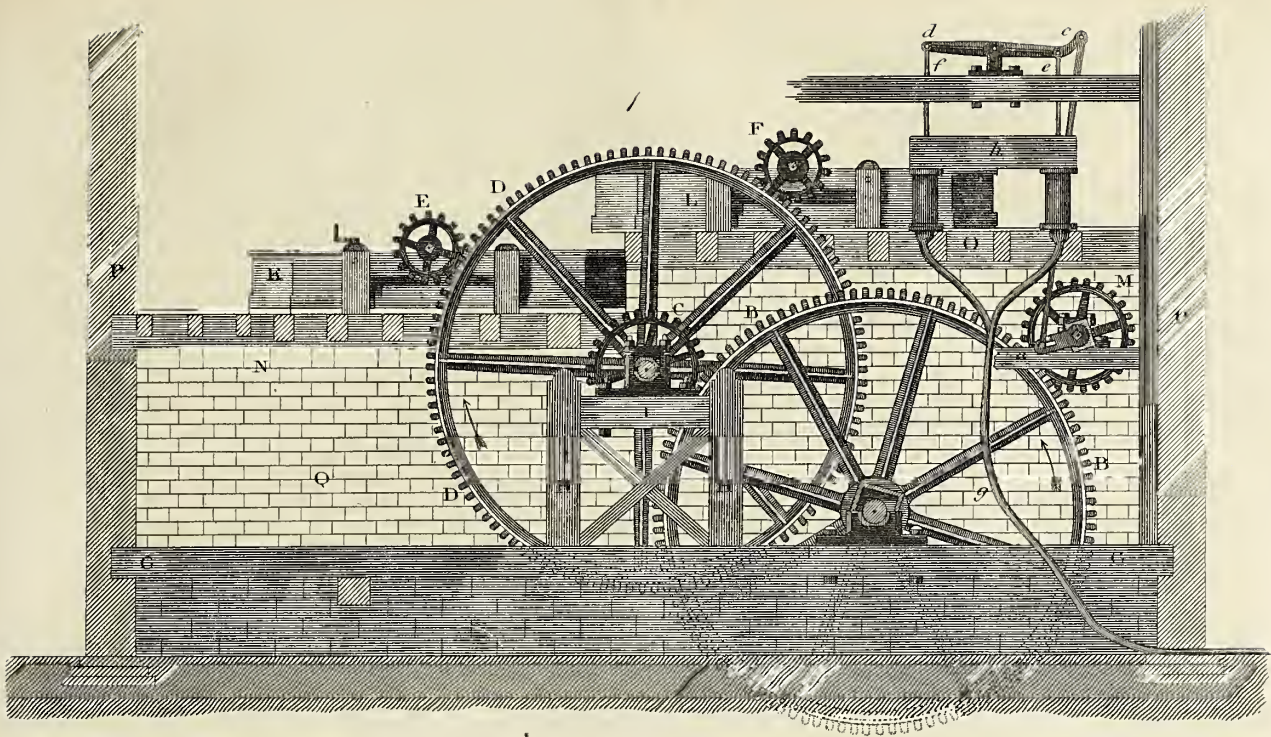
By the arrangement of the wheels of the mill, the cylinders of the two engines are contrived to make about from 120 to 150 revolutions per minute, when the water-wheel moves with its proper velocity; though the beating-engine revolves much quicker than the washer, its pinion, E, having only 24 teeth, while the washer, F, has 28. The great wheel, B, has 196 teeth, and the pinion, C, 38 teeth; therefore it makes about $5\frac{1}{2}$ turns, for one of the water-wheel. The wheel D has likewise 196 teeth, and turns the washer, F, of 28 teeth about 36 times, for once of the water-wheel, and the beater, E, about 42 times. M is a cog-wheel, put in motion by the teeth of the great wheel B: on the extremity of its spindle is a crank *a*, which, by a connecting rod, gives a reciprocating motion to a lever *e d*, for the purpose of working two pumps, *e, f*, which raise water into a cistern *h*, drawing it from the water of the mill-dam by a suction-pipe *g*. These pumps raise up a constant stream of fair water, which is necessary to be kept running through the rags in the washing-engine, to carry away the dirt separated from them by the operation.

The structure of an engine is more minutely explained

by figs 2, 3, 4, 5. fig. 2 being a section through the length of the engine, and fig. 3 a horizontal plan. The large vat or cistern, A A, is of an oblong figure on the outside, the angles being cut off; but the inside, which is lined with lead, has straight sides and circular ends. It is divided by a partition B B, also covered with lead. The cylinder C is fixed fast upon the spindle D, which extends across the engine, and is put in motion, as before described, by the pinion E, placed on the extremity of it. The cylinder is made of wood, and furnished with a number of teeth, or cutters, fixed fast on its circumference, parallel to the axis, and projecting about an inch, as is shown on a larger scale at fig. 4. Immediately beneath the cylinder, a block of wood, H, is placed, and provided with similar cutters to those of the cylinder, which, when they revolve, pass very near the teeth of the block, but do not touch; the distance between them being capable of regulation, by elevating or depressing the bearings on which the necks, D, D, of the spindle are supported. These bearings are made on two levers, F, F, which have tenons at their ends, fitted into upright mortises, made in short beams, G, G, bolted to the sides of the engine. The levers, F, F, are movable at one end of each, the other ends being fitted to rise and fall on bolts, in the beams G, as centres. The front one of these levers, or that nearest to the cylinder C, is capable of being elevated or depressed, by turning the handle of the screw *b*, which acts in a nut fixed to the tenon of F, and comes up through the top of the beam G, upon which the head of the screw takes its bearing. Two brasses are let into the middle of the levers, F, F, and form the bearings for the spindle of the engine to turn upon. The screw *b* is used to raise or lower the cylinder, and cause it to cut finer or coarser, by enlarging or diminishing the space between the cutters in the block and those of the cylinder.

Near K, figs. 2 and 3, is a circular breasting made of boards, and covered with sheet-lead; it is curved to fit the cylinder very truly, and leaves but very little space between the teeth and breasting. An inclined plane, K, fig. 2, leads regularly from the bottom of the engine-vat to the top of this breasting; and at the bottom of it the block, H, is fixed. The engine is supplied with water by a pipe, Q, fig. 3, bringing it from the pump: this pipe delivers it into a small cistern, M, adjoining, and communicating with the engine. The pipe has a cock, P, to stop the entrance of the water when required, or to regulate the quantity of its discharge. This cistern has a grating fixed across it, covered with a hair-strainer, to catch any extraneous matter which may come in with the water; or a flannel bag is sometimes tied over the orifice of the cock P, through which all the water must be filtered. When the engine is filled with water, and a quantity of rags put in, they are, by the revolution of the cylinder, drawn between its cutters and the teeth of the block H. This cuts them in pieces; then, by the rapid motion of the cylinder, the rags and water are thrown over the top of the breasting, upon the inclined plane: in a short time, this raises more rags and water into that part of the engine-vat; and the tendency to restore the equilibrium puts the whole contents of the vat in slow motion, down the inclined plane K, and round the partition B B, by which they come to the cylinder again in about the space of twenty minutes; so that the rags are repeatedly cut and chopped in every direction, till they are reduced to a pulp.

This circulation is of advantage, in turning the rags over in the engine, and causes them to present themselves to the cutters in a different direction every time; for, as the cylinder cuts or clips in straight lines, in the same manner as a pair of shears, it is requisite to cut the rags across in different directions, to reduce them to a pulp. The manner of the cutting is this: the teeth of the block are placed rather inclined to the axis of the cylinder, as shown by fig. 5. but the teeth of the cylinder are parallel to its axis; therefore, the cutting edges, when they meet, are at a small angle, and come in contact first at one end, and



Improved Paper Mill.

and then successively the contacts proceed along to the other end, so that any rags interspersed between them are cut in the same manner as they would be between the blades of a pair of shears. Sometimes the plates or cutters, *k*, in the block, are bent to an angle in the middle, instead of being straight, and inclined to the cylinder: in this case, they are called elbow-plates, and of course the two ends are both inclined to the axis of the cylinder in opposite directions. In either case, the edges of the plate of the block cannot be straight lines, but must be curved, to adapt themselves to the curve which a line traced on the cylinder will of course have. The plates or cutters of the block are united, by screwing them all together, and fitting them into a cavity cut out in the wooden block *H*; their edges are bevelled away on one side only, as shown at *k* in the section fig. 5. The block is fixed in its place by being made dovetailed, and truly fitted into the bottom of the cistern, so that the water will not leak by it. The end of it comes through the wood-work of the chest, and projects a small distance on the outside of it, being kept up to its place by a wedge; so that, by withdrawing this wedge, the block becomes loose, and can be removed, to sharpen the cutters, as occasion requires. This is done on a grindstone, the plates being first separated from each other.

The cutters of the cylinder are fixed into grooves, cut in the wood of the cylinder, at equal distances from each other round its circumference, in a direction parallel to its axis: the number of these grooves is twenty; and, for the washer, each groove has two cutters or bars put into it; then a fillet of wood is driven fast in between them, to hold them firm; and the fillets are kept fast by spikes driven into the solid wood of the cylinder. The beater is made in the same manner, except that each groove contains three bars, and two fillets, as shown in fig. 4.

In the operation of the cylinder, it is necessary that it should be inclosed in a case, or its great velocity would throw all the water and rags out of the engine. This case is a wooden box *L L*, fig. 2. inclosed on all sides except the bottom: one side of it rests upon the edge of the vat, and the other upon the edge of the partition *B B*. The lines *c c* represent the edges of wooden frames, which are covered with hair or wire cloth; and immediately behind these, the box is made with a bottom, and a ledge towards the cylinder, which makes a complete trough. The dark spaces, *e, e*, in fig. 2, show the situation of two openings or spouts, through the side of the case, which lead to flat lead-pipes, *h, h*, fig. 3, which are placed by the side of the vat; the beam, *F*, being cut away for them. There are waste-pipes, to convey away the foul water from the engine; for the cylinder, as it turns, throws a great quantity of water and rags up against the sieves: the water goes through them, and runs down into the trough at *e e*, and from thence into the ends of the leaden pipes, *h, h*, fig. 3, by which it is conveyed away: *d, d*, fig. 2, are grooves for two boards, which, when put down in their places, cover the hair-sieves, and stop the water from going through them, if it is required to retain the water in the engine. This is always the case in the beating-engines, and therefore they are seldom provided with these waste-pipes, or at most on one side only; the other side of the cover being curved, to conform to the cylinder. Except this, the only difference between the washing-engine and the beater is that the teeth of the latter are finer, having 60 instead of 40 bars on its circumference; and it revolves quicker than the washer, so that it will cut and divide those particles which pass through the teeth of the washer.

In small mills, where the supply of water is limited, they frequently have but one engine, and use it both for washing and beating, by setting the screw so as to let the cylinder down and make its teeth cut finer; but the system of all considerable works is to have two engines, or four if the supply of water is sufficiently great. We have seen a very capital paper-mill containing five engines, where three of them are beaters and two washers; because the beating takes so much more time, that, when

the numbers are equal, the washers will often do too much for them, and they will have to stand still. A mill to drive four engines is generally made double, that is, it has two water-wheels, and all the machinery shown in the plan; and, if either of these give motion to three engines, they are arranged rather differently: thus the two beaters are placed on the same level with each other, and this removes them to a greater distance asunder than shown in fig. 1. so that the ends of the two engines, when placed on the same floor or platform, will just touch each other. The washer is then placed on the opposite side of the wheel *D*, its pinion being upon the summit of the wheel, which raises it to the proper level: the vat of the washer has a valve in each end, to let out its contents into either of the beaters at pleasure.

The quantity of water which a paper-mill can command to turn its engines, generally limits the extent of its trade; and hence the manufacturers should attend to every improvement of the machinery which can increase their effect. Where the supply of water is constant, they work the engines day and night, though the making the paper, as it requires many workmen, is of course carried on in the day-time only. This system necessarily requires a large vat to be provided, which is called the *stuff-chest*, and is a general receptacle for the pulp, where it is kept till wanted to be made into paper; at the same time this mixes the pulp of different days' work together, and produces an uniformity in the quality and colour of the paper, which is a great recommendation for printing large editions of books.

A very large and capital paper-mill, at Maidstone in Kent, is worked by steam-engines, and is found to answer very well. The machinery and building of a paper-mill should be well made, and firmly put together, otherwise its great velocity, and power, produces a tremor, which in time shakes every thing to pieces. The noise and vibration of a washing-engine is most tremendous; for, when it revolves 120 times per minute, and has 40 teeth, each of which passes by 12 or 14 teeth in the block at every revolution, it will make near 60,000 cuts per minute, and each of them sufficiently loud to produce the most horrible growling sound which can be conceived. The beater, revolving quicker, having 60 teeth, and 20 or 24 cutters in the block, will make 180,000 cuts per minute, which is so rapid, as to produce a coarse musical note or humming, which may be heard at a great distance from the mill. This great number of cuts will account for an engine being able, in the course of four or five hours' working, to reduce a quantity of rags to those exceedingly minute filaments of which paper is composed.

The first and most material point to be attended to in the manufacture of paper, is the preparation of the stuff in the engines; and, unless that is properly done, it will be impossible to make good paper.

When the rags are put into the *washing-engine*, the roll should be let down so as to gently rub on the plate; and, as the rags begin to open, keep letting down the roll so as to bear on the plate just enough gradually to open the rags into a *lint-state*, by which the foulness will pass off as they keep opening into lint; and they will be perfectly washed, clean, and fit for the beating-engine, in four hours or four hours and an half. By thus gradually opening the rags into a lint-state, a very little waste of stuff will take place from the finest parts of the rags to what occurs in the common method that is used, of suddenly laying down the roll, and tearing the rags into what is termed *half-stuff*, by which method a very great waste of stuff takes place, from the finest parts of the rags passing away with the foul water forced through the washing-wire; and it is also injurious to the preparation of the stuff in the next process in the beating-engine. It is particularly to be attended to, that the bars in the roll, and also of the plate in the washing-engine, should not be sharp, *not* in a cutting-state, but in such a state as to gradually rub the rags into a lint-state as the washing-process goes on. By

this means the stuff will be completely washed, the texture of the rag uninjured, and very little waste of stuff will take place.

For the *beating-engine*, Mr. Bigg recommends what is called a *jaw-plate* for all kinds of paper, excepting very thin papers, for which a plate like the washing-engine plate is best. The bars of the roll and plate to be dull, if for very thin papers, by which means the stuff will work wet on the mould, and form a very strong paper. The process of beating will take about four hours for thick papers; and, for thin and very thin papers, the plate and bars of the roll being properly dull, will take from nine to twelve hours. The thinner the paper, the more time will be required in the process of beating, on which every thing depends to produce a strong firm paper; for, in case it is hurried, by having your plate and the bars of the roll too sharp, it is impossible to manufacture a strong, clear, and even, paper, as the stuff will not hold water sufficient to give a good strong texture to the paper in moulding it.

When you think the stuff sufficiently beaten, try it, by taking a basin of clear water, into which put as much pulp as will lie upon your four fingers, and triturate it with your hand two or three minutes: it will then, if properly beat, float in clear and beautiful clouds, like what is called a mackerel-sky in the atmosphere; and, if handled as it turns in the beating-engine, it will be very soft and smooth to the feel, and numerous small air-bubbles will then arise as it turns in the engine: these will quickly break and disappear, and keep in quick succession arising and breaking. If, on trying the stuff in the basin as above, the stuff appears very clear and free from knots, threads, and lumps, it is certain of being properly beat. The pulp, properly beat for very thin papers, should be long, and clear from knots and threads, and float clear in the basin without sinking quickly.

The fairest water is the best for paper-making, on account of the clean and white quality so desirable in the manufacture. The water that dissolves soap best is also the fittest for taking the grease out of rags. Paper-makers say that the water which is most beaten, and that which comes from afar, makes a better curdled paper, flouter, and of stronger consistence, as to matter: if this be the case, it is probably because this water has had more time for depositing the slime, and other heterogeneous parts, and that, being more exposed to the air by motion, it is thereby in a better condition for dissolving grease and soap. Water subject to be muddied by rain, and that which runs through marshy grounds, ought to be avoided. Neither ought a paper-mill to be placed below other manufactories or machinery, which, by using the same water, might communicate to it a bad quality. The water of ponds, and rain water, are very good for dissolving soap, and may therefore be used for paper, if otherwise in a pure state. Water impregnated with lime, by having run off from chalky soils, is generally very pure and clear to the eye, and is therefore much used for paper-making; but it is apt to deposit a slight incrustation upon the brass wire of the moulds, which they remove by occasionally washing them with vinegar.

For printing-papers, the sizing is done in the beating-engine, towards the end of its operation, as we shall describe: the size is necessary to prevent the ink from sinking into the paper like blotting-paper; but, printing-ink not being so fluid as writing-ink, the paper can be sufficiently sized in substance, without subjecting the sheets to a separate operation after they are made. The size for the engine is composed of alum pounded very fine, and mixed up with a quantity of oil: about a pint and a half of this mixture, thrown into the engine at intervals, during the last half-hour of the beating, is sufficient. In order to give that bloom, or blue cast, to the paper, which some kinds have, a quantity of powder-blue is frequently put into the engine at the same time. The pulp is now run off into the *stuff-chest*, where the different kinds are

mixed; and it is taken out as it is wanted, in the vats where the dippers, &c. work to form the sheets.

The *moulding* of the paper should be carried on in a lofty room, well ventilated, and with a smooth and even ceiling, that the steam arising from the several vats of pulp may not be condensed upon it, and fall in drops; for a single drop, falling upon a sheet of paper whilst it is moulding, will beat a hole through it, or at least spoil it. The people in this apartment work at the vats, with moulds, deckles, felts, vat-presses, and wet-presses.

The *vat* used to contain the pulp is a tub, generally about five feet in diameter, and two and a half in depth. It is provided, on the upper part, with planks enclosed inwards, and even railed in with wood, to prevent any of the stuff from running over in the operation: a plank, pierced with holes at one of the extremities, is placed across the vat, and, resting on the planks which surround the vat, forms a support to rest the mould upon when a sheet of paper has been made, and it remains here a short time to drain off the superfluous water. The stuff in the vat is kept at a proper temperature, by means of a grate introduced at a hole in the side, and surrounded on the inside of the vat with a case of copper. For fuel to this grate charcoal or wood is used, and frequently, to prevent smoke, the wall of the building comes in contact with one part of the vat, so that the fire has no communication with the room where they make the paper.

The *mould* is a square frame, or shallow box, made of well-seasoned mahogany, and covered at the top with wire-cloth; its dimensions are an inch or an inch and a half larger than the sheet of paper intended to be made upon it. The wire-cloth of the mould is varied in proportion to the fineness of the paper and the nature of the stuff. It consists of a number of parallel wires stretched across the frame, very near together, and tied fast through holes in the sides; also a few other stronger wires, extending across in a direction at right angles to the former, and a considerable distance asunder, the small wires being bound down to them by fine wire at the intersections. This may be readily understood, from the examination of a sheet of some kind of paper on which the marks of the wires remain, because the paper is thinner in those places where the wire touched it. By a modern improvement, these marks, called *water-marks*, are avoided, and the paper has a smooth even surface. For this, the wire is wove in a loom, exactly like cloth, and stretched over the frame of the mould. The wire-cloth is in this case made larger than the intended sheet of paper, and turned down over the sides of the frame, being sewed fast to it by fine wire, so that the cloth is strained tight over the frame. The *wove-paper*, as it is called, when made on these moulds, is a very superior article to the old paper, particularly for books; but a prejudice still prevails in favour of the old paper with lines, which obliges manufacturers still to make it, though by no means so fine or good as the wove.

The *deckle* is a square frame of mahogany, bound with brass at the angles; it is made very thin, and its outside corresponds with the sides of the mould, while the inside is the size of the sheet. This frame is necessary to retain the stuff of which the paper is made on the cloth; and it must be exactly flat, that it may fit upon the wire-cloth of the mould, otherwise the edges of the paper will be ragged and badly finished. The deckle, when placed upon the wire of the mould, forms a shallow sieve or mould, in which a quantity of the pulp is taken up; and, by the draining-through of the water, the pulp is left in a sheet upon the wire. There is no fastening for the deckle, as it is movable, and only held upon the mould by the workman grasping the mould and deckle together in both hands at the opposite sides. This admits of the deckle being removed, that the sheet of paper may be taken up from the wire, by applying the mould upon a piece of felt.

The *felts* are pieces of woollen cloth, spread over every sheet of paper, and upon which the sheets are laid, to detach them

them from the wire of the mould; they also prevent them from adhering together, and, imbibing part of the water with which the paper is charged, transmit the whole of it when placed under the action of the vat-press.

The moulding of the paper is performed by three workmen, the *dipper*, the *coucher*, and the *lifter*. The first of these, having filled the vat with pulp, must be attentive to mix it up well; for this purpose, he employs two implements, one of which is a simple pole, and the other a pole armed with a piece of board, rounded and full of holes. This operation is repeated as often as the stuff falls to the bottom. In the principal mills they use for this purpose what is called a *hog*, which is a machine within the vat, that, by means of a small wheel on the outside, is made to turn constantly round, and keep the stuff in perpetual motion. The dipper stands in a niche, or hollow part, of that kind of ledge or table which goes round the circumference of the vat; he holds the mould in both hands, by the two extremities, with the deckle applied exactly over it, as if only one piece; then, inclining it a little towards him, he dips it into the vat, and brings it up again into a horizontal position. The superfluous part of the pulp flows over on all sides, and the quantity thought sufficient is shaken gently from the right to the left, and up and down horizontally, until it is equally extended over the whole surface of the mould. These two motions are also accompanied by a slight shake, that serves to fix and stop the sheet. As the water drains through the wire, the fibrous parts of the stuff arrange themselves regularly on the wire-cloth of the mould, not only in proportion as the water escapes, but also as the workman favours this effect by gently shaking the mould. This done, the mould is immediately laid on the edge of the vat, the deckle taken off, and the mould made to slide along the board which is laid across the vat, to the part where the sheet is to be laid or taken off. This board, which is but two inches in breadth where the sheet is laid, is nothing more than a deal board, which runs along the length of the vat, and is pierced with several holes at the extremity, for letting the mould drain into the vat. The dipper, taking the deckle off the first mould, places it immediately on a second, which is given him for dipping in its turn; and the second workman, called the *coucher*, taking the mould off the board that runs across the vat with the left hand, raises it gently, and lays it in an inclined position against one or two small pins, which are driven into the board on the edge of the vat. In this condition the mould remains two or three seconds of time for draining into the vat, whilst the coucher extends a felt, on which he applies the mould to take off the sheet; which being done, he returns the mould to the dipper. They proceed in this manner, laying alternately a sheet and a felt, till they have made six quires of paper, which is called a *post*; and this they do with such swiftness, that in many sorts of paper two men make upwards of twenty posts in a day.

When the last sheet of the post is covered with the last felt, all the workmen about the vat unite together, and submit the heap to the action of the *vat-press*. They begin at first to press it with a middling lever, and afterwards with a lever about fifteen feet in length.

The dipper should be attentive, in distributing the matter on the mould, to reinforce the corner the coucher is to take hold of, in raising and extending the sheets; for, without this precaution, he would break a great many. Also, if he takes up too much matter with his mould, if he does not equally extend it, or if he strikes his mould against the drainer; in all these cases the matter is accumulated in certain parts of the mould, producing something like ridges in the paper; or, if he lets the matter rest on the mould, and does not distribute it immediately, there will be parts of unequal thickness. When the vat is too hot, the stretching-out of the sheet will be ill performed, because the water evaporates too soon from the mould. Add to this, that in letting the matter run towards one of the edges, by not giving his arm a regular

motion, he may form a feather-edged paper; which may likewise happen if he does not extend his stuff sufficiently, or if the vat be too hot, or the fecula of the pulp too crude, so as not to run well; if his arms are too stiff, and if he gives a bad shake; or if the mould be ill made.

In consequence of the construction of the mould, it is easy to perceive that the sheets of paper will take, and preserve, the impression of all the wires which compose it, and of the empty spaces between them. This is seen in examining a sheet of paper before the light, a greater opacity being found on both sides of each brass wire than towards the midst of the space. This thickness is occasioned by the pulp, which the motion of the mould could not distribute, being stopped by the small wires, and still more by the large cross-wires. This defect is completely remedied by the improvement of weaving the wire of the mould like cloth. The traces of the old wires are most evidently perceived on the side of the sheet which was attached to the mould, and on the other side they form an assemblage of rounded risings. In the paper which is most highly finished, the regularity of these impressions is still visible; therefore it is evident, that all the operations to which it is submitted, have chiefly in view to soften these impressions without destroying them; it is necessary, therefore, to attend to the combination of labour which operates on these impressions. The coucher, in turning the mould on the felt, flattens a little the rounded eminences, which are in relief on one of the surfaces, and occasions, at the same time, the hollow places made by the wire-cloth to be partly filled up; meanwhile the effort which is made in detaching the paper, produces an indefinite number of small hairs on every protuberant part of the sheet. Under the action of the press, first with felts, and then without them, the perfecting of the grain of paper still goes on. The vestiges of the protuberances made by the wires of the mould are altogether flattened, and in consequence the hollows opposite them disappear also, but the traces formed by the intersections of the wire, in consequence of their thickness, appear on both sides, and are rounded by the press.

The grain of the paper is often disfigured by the *felts* when they are too much used, or when the wool does not cover the thread. In this case, when the paper is submitted to the press, it takes the additional traces of the warp and woof, and composes a surface extremely irregular. The two sides of the felt are differently raised, and that on which the hair is longest is applied to the sheets which are laid down; and any alteration of this disposition would produce a change in the texture of the paper. The stuff of which the felts are made should be sufficiently strong, in order that it may be stretched exactly on the sheets, without falling into folds, and at the same time sufficiently pliant to yield in any direction, without injury to the wet paper. As the felts have to resist the reiterated efforts of the press, it appears necessary that the warp be made strong, of combed wool, and well twisted. On the other hand, as they have to imbibe a certain quantity of water, and to retain it, it is necessary that the woof be of carded wool, and drawn out into a slack thread.

The paper remains in the *vat-press* during the time that the next post of paper is preparing; and, when it is removed to make room for that, the business of the third workman, called the *lifter*, begins: he is to take the sheets off the felt, (for they are caused to adhere to them by the action of the press,) and then make the sheets up into a second pile; but, if the coucher works too fast, and the lifter finds himself hard pressed, he cannot stretch out his sheets exactly upon one another, so as to make a neat and compact pile, which is very necessary to make paper of a regular and equal thickness, when put under a second or *wet-press*, which is done as soon as several of the piles are completed, and can be collected together. This second pressure, being made with all the sheets in contact with each other, expresses a great quantity of water from the paper,

and gives the sheet a very considerable strength; it also tends to take out those freckles on the surface of the sheets, which were occasioned by the impresson of the felt, though it is necessary to have felts in the first pressure, because the paper is then so soft and pulpy, that it would be pressed into a solid mass if the sheets touched each other. The paper remains in the second press as long as it can, until another pile is made ready by the lifter. When the paper has undergone these operations, it is not only softened in the surface, but better felted, and rendered more pliant in the interior parts of the stuff. In short, a great part of the water which it had imbibed in the operation of the vat is dissipated.

When the paper is removed from the second press, it is taken to the drying-locks, which are very extensive apartments, usually the upper parts of all the buildings of the mill: the sides are formed by luffer-boards, which are a kind of lattice or boarding that can be opened or shut, to admit more or less air, at pleasure. The sheets are taken up upon a piece of wood like a T, and hung upon hair lines, stretched across large horizontal wooden frames, called *tribles*; and these, as they are filled, are lifted up between upright posts to the top of the room, and retained by pegs put in the posts; then another frame, being filled, is put up in its turn, and so on till the loft is filled from top to bottom.

The principal care in drying the paper, consists in gradually admitting the external air, and in preventing the cords from imbibing moisture; for this purpose the lattices or luffer-boards should be constructed with great exactness, and the cords may be prevented from imbibing the water by covering them with wax. In using such cords, the moisture does not continue in the line of contact between the paper and the cord, which prevents the sheet from stretching in that particular place by its weight, and from the folds which the moisture in the subsequent operations might occasion. The cords are of considerable thickness, by which means they diminish the point of contact, and give a better and more equal circulation to the air. By these precautions, the Dutch paper is dried equally, and is extremely supple before the sizing. The time necessary for drying the paper depends so much upon the state of the atmosphere, and the thickness of the sheets, that it cannot be stated with any degree of accuracy. When dried, it is taken down, and sleeked, dressed, and shaken, to make the dust fall out, and to separate the pages from one another. It is then laid in heaps in the warehouse, and from thence brought out in order to be sized.

The *size* for paper is made of the shreds and parings got from tanners, curriers, and parchment-makers. All the putrified parts, and the lime, are carefully separated from them, and they are inclosed in a kind of basket, and let down by a rope and pulley into the cauldron. This is a late invention, and serves two valuable purposes: it makes it easy to draw out the pieces of leather when the size is extracted from them by boiling; and easy to return them into the boiler, if the operation is not complete. When the glutinous substance is sufficiently extracted, it is allowed to settle for some time; and it is twice filtered before it is put into the vessel in which they dip the paper. Immediately before the operation, a certain quantity of alum is added to the size. The workman takes a handful of the sheets, smoothed and rendered as supple as possible, in his left hand, dips them into the vessel, and holds them separate with his right hand, that they may equally imbibe the size. After holding them above the vessel for a space of time, he seizes on the other side with his right hand, and again dips them into the vessel. When he has finished ten or a dozen of these handfuls, they are submitted to the action of the press. The superfluous size is carried back to the vessel by means of a small pipe. The vessel in which the paper is sized is made of copper, and furnished with a grate, to give the size, when necessary, a due temperature; and a piece of thin board or

felt is placed between every handful of sheets, as they are laid on the table of the press.

It is necessary to make the size of considerable strength for drawing and all kinds of writing papers, and, while the operation is performing to have the size kept in as warm a state as the sizer can well bear his hands in it. And before to give it a proper time, to let it be well soaked before it is put into the press, or it will be *size-stained*; which will be the case also if, after being sized, pressed, and pasted, you hang it up to dry before it is cooled. It should stand in a heap, after it is parted sheet by sheet, and pressed, until the next morning, before it is hung up to dry. Hang from two to five sheets in each spur, according to the substance of the paper. If you size when there is a very drying wind in the summer, or a frosty and sharp air in the winter, it will injure and often destroy the size.

The state which paper is in when it should be sized is called the *water-leaf*; each spur having three or four sheets adhering together; and by no means in single sheets, or a loose state (as directed in all the publications we have seen), as it would make almost all the paper broken.

After the paper is sized and taken out of the sizing-press, let it be well covered up in the heap with cloths to keep it warm until it is parted sheet by sheet by women; after which it should be pressed again just hard enough for the size barely to stand on the edges of the paper like drops of dew when pressed; and it is then pressed enough in that state, and may be left to stand in the press an hour or two, when it will be in a fit state to hang up to dry, as above. But it should be observed, as to paper hung up after it is sized, that, if cold sharp air or very drying wind occurs in the spring or summer, cloths should be hung inside the shutters of the drying-house to be drawn close when the paper is first hung up, and for ten or twelve hours after.

III. FINISHING OF PAPER.—After the paper has been sufficiently dried for the last time, it is carried to the building where it is examined, finished, and pressed: this is called the *Sol*. Women are here employed to remove all damaged and imperfect sheets: it is then put into the *dry-press*, and squeezed with a most immense force, to render the paper flat, and give it a good surface. The lever of this press is fifteen or eighteen feet long, and ten or twenty people are employed at the last to work it; though they sometimes use *Sampson*, that is, a windlass like a crane, with which they purchase the lever of the screw; but this excessive labour is altogether avoided, and a much greater pressure given, by using Mr. Bramah's ingenious hydrostatic press, instead of the screw-presses, which consume a great portion of the power in friction. For a description of this, see the article *MECHANICS*, vol. xiv. p. 761.

The dry-press, of whatever form, is generally made large enough to hold two packs of ordinary paper at once, placed side by side. When the compression is judged sufficient, the heaps of paper are carried back to the table, and *parted*, that is, the whole turned, sheet by sheet, in such a manner that the surface of every sheet is exposed to a new one; and in this situation they are again brought to the press. It is in extending these two operations sometimes to four or five times, or as often as the nature of the paper requires, that the perfection of the paper consists. If the stuff is fine, or the paper slender, the parting is less frequently repeated. In this operation it is necessary to alter the situation of the heaps with regard to one another every time they are put under the press; and also, as the heaps are highest towards the middle, to place small pieces of felt at the extremities, in order to bring every part of them under an equal pressure. A single man, with four or five presses, may part all the paper produced by two vats, provided the previous pressing is well performed. The work of the parting generally lasts about two days, on a given quantity of paper.

The paper is now *sorted* into different lots, according

to its quality and faults, after which it is made up into quires. The person who does this must possess great skill, and be capable of attention, because he acts as a check on those who separate the paper into different lots. He takes the sheets with the right hand, folds them, examines them, lays them over his left arm till he has the number requisite for a quire, then brings the sides parallel to one another, and places them in heaps under the table. An expert workman, if proper care has been taken in assorting the lots, will finish in this manner 6000 quires in a day. The paper is afterwards collected into reams of 20 quires each, and for the last time put under the press, where it is continued for ten or twelve hours, or as long as the demand of the paper-mill permits.

More recent Improvements.—The operation of moulding the sheets of paper has, for some years past, been performed by a patent-machine which produces it an *endless and continued sheet*, instead of moulding them separately one by one; and this it does with such accuracy and dispatch, that many paper-makers have procured machines, notwithstanding the great expense of erection, and the premium which they are obliged to pay the patentees for working them. The first idea of this curious machine was brought from France by Monsr. Didot; but it was perfected here by our countryman Mr. Donkin; and we think it one of the most important inventions, as applied to the manufactory of paper, which has been produced since the fourteenth century, when the method of making paper from linen rags was first discovered. Messrs. Henry and Sealy Fourdrinier, and John Gamble, were the proprietors of this invention, for which they obtained several patents during its progressive stages of improvement; but an act of parliament was passed in 1807, to extend the usual term of all these patents to fifteen years from that period; and they then enrolled a specification in the records of Chancery, detailing the machine in its most improved state. But they have since parted with their property in the invention; and the machine originally built by Messrs. Fourdrinier and Co. now belongs to Mr. Nicholls, in whom the patent has been vested. It is situated at Two Waters, a village in Hertfordshire, two miles south-south-west from Hemel Hempstead, at the union of the river Gade with Bulborne-brook, and adjoining the Grand Junction Canal. By this machine, and appendant apparatus, every part of the process is conducted without the intervention of manual labour; and it cannot fail of exciting surprise in the spectator, on beholding the rag first washed; then beaten or reduced to pulp; and, lastly, conducted through pipes to the reservoir of the machine, which constantly feeds itself, and, in a very few seconds, produces a paper so perfect in all its parts, that it is wound off upon a reel, exactly like a web of cloth. The paper thus manufactured is superior in quality, firmer in texture, and more parallel, than any ever made by hand: the machine is capable of working up half a ton of rags in one-day, and of making the whole, if required, into a single sheet of paper! Indeed a single sheet of paper has been made of seven hundred and fifty yards in length, without one pin-hole or break, and of a texture resembling in fineness the spider's web. But we shall give a more detailed and satisfactory description of the process from the patent itself.

The pulp, having been brought, in the usual manner, to due consistence, by the admixture of water, kept in motion in the vat by means of what are denominated *hogs*, is let out through several circular apertures in front of the vat, which can be narrowed or widened at pleasure, by means of a sliding plate. These apertures admit the pulp into a trough, which has a low side, or lip, and over the edge of this it flows, in a continued cascade, or even sheet: this trough of the vat is placed at one end of the machine, so that the stream of pulp falls upon a wire-cloth, or web, of many yards in length, the ends of which being united together, it is extended horizontally, in the manner of a jack-towel, over two rollers, one of them

placed close under the lip or mouth of the vat, so that the stream of pulp descends as little as possible. The wire is also supported by several other parallel rollers, that it may not hang down or bag, but be kept as level as possible, and by a very ingenious contrivance is kept extended in breadth to a proper tension; it therefore represents a table of several yards in length, which, by the revolution of the rollers, is kept in continual motion from the vat towards the end of the machine. The pulp is kept within bounds upon this table, according to the width intended to be given to the paper, by two pieces or rulers of wood, exactly parallel with each other, and also with the line of motion of the wire. Between the wire itself and these rulers are placed two endless straps of leather, as wide as the rulers, and revolving with the same velocity as the wire, but over different rollers. Similar rulers, and endless straps, are also placed in contact with the lower surface of the wire, so that the wire is confined between them on each side, and the liquid pulp thus prevented from running off on the sides, and they act as decks to the mould. As they move together, they occasion no friction to destroy the wire. Near that part of the wire upon which the pulp falls from the lip in the vat, there is placed a flap of oiled silk, or other material, to prevent the pulp from running back towards the vat over the roller of the wire.

As the wire revolves upon its rollers, and carries the pulp along upon its surface from the vat to the other extremity, it is conducted between two rollers, fitted up in the manner of a rolling-mill, which cause a pressure upon the pulp and paper to force out the water, and are therefore called the *wet-press*. In order to guard the pulp, which before passing between the rollers is in a soft state, from being dislodged, or otherwise injured, by the upper roller coming immediately in contact with it, a revolving endless web of felt is applied. This is made of the same width as the endless wire, but not so long, and it is extended, like that, upon rollers situated above the wires; it is likewise brought between the rollers of the wet-press, so that its under surface falls upon the surface of the pulp, or paper, and defends it from the action of the upper cylinder: the wire and the felt are thus brought into contact with the paper between them, and the required pressure is given by means of screws, which increase or diminish the distance of the large compressing rollers; and these, being covered with flannel cloth, or felt, are prevented from injuring the wire-webbing, as well as producing a better effect upon the paper than naked cylinders would do.

To prevent the water thus pressed out of the pulp from running back upon the paper, the wire is not only made to descend before it passes the wet-press, but there is also placed a small roller resting upon the wire, as near the press as possible; and some part of the water is previously got rid of, by both the wire and felt, with the pulp between them, passing through a small pair of rollers, to the axis of the upper of which rollers are hung weights, in order to give a slight pressure. The water that drains from the pulp is collected into a trough, and returned to the vat by means of a scoop-wheel instead of a pump, which might form the paper-stuff into lumps or rolls, by the mutual friction or rubbing of any parts of the apparatus against each other; and the reason for returning the water into the vat, is to prevent the loss of a considerable portion of the paper, stuff, blue, size, &c. which would otherwise be sustained by its running to waste.

It is evident then, that, if motion is given in the proper direction to the wet-press cylinders, having both the web and wire thus compressed between them, they will be drawn along by them, and caused to revolve upon their respective rollers; and that, as long as these webs continue so to revolve, and the pulp continues supplied and running upon the surface of the under web, so long will the machine continue making a sheet of paper of continually increasing length. But as the paper, even after

having passed between the rollers of the wet-press, is not of that consistency and strength as would allow of its being removed from the machine and cut in sheets, the new-made paper is caused to detach itself from the wire, at the moment it comes to the extreme roller, over which the wire revolves, and is immediately received upon a second web of felt, which is, like the former, stretched by two principal rollers and other subordinate ones. By the revolution of this web, which must have the same velocity as the former, the paper is brought between two rollers of brass or other hard metal, which are turned perfectly smooth, and placed some distance from the wet-press cylinders, but exactly parallel to them; and, after passing through them, the paper is received and wound upon a reel, or roller, which is from time to time removed, and others applied in their room as they are filled with paper.

This is the general action of the machine; but there are a number of very ingenious movements, which we have not mentioned. The *shaking-movement* of the mould, which is so necessary to make the pulp coagulate into paper, is, in this machine, given to the wire thus: the frame of the roller on which the wire is extended at the end near the vat, is so placed on the top of upright legs, which are movable on centres, as to admit the roller and wire with the deckle-traps to move sideways a small quantity, and to return, in the manner of vibration, by the action of a crank. The number of these vibrations, or shakes, necessary in a given time, and the space passed through by the wire in each, will vary according to the quality and preparation of the pulp. The number, however, seems, by observation, to be limited to one or two hundred per minute; and the space, between a quarter of an inch and an inch. To enable the paper-maker readily to give a proper velocity to the crank according to his judgment, the same is turned by a small independent water-wheel, the velocity of which, and consequent number of vibrations, are regulated, at pleasure, by the quantity of water admitted upon the wheel. The sliding-plate in the vat, which admits the pulp to flow out as first mentioned, is regulated by a screw, by which the circular aperture may be opened or shut in any intermediate degree, so that the quantity of pulp required to run from the vat to the wire, may by this be regulated, and so adjusted to the velocity of the wire, as to produce a sheet of paper of any required thickness. The whole machine is turned by a water-wheel, which is preferable to any other power, as by it is obtained the most regular and uniform motion, and such as is best adapted for this purpose, though other first-movers might be used.

As the paper is drawn off the endless wire by the motion of the revolving web of felt, it is necessary to have the riggers, or band-wheels, which communicate the motion from the rollers of the dry-press to those of the wet-press, made upon an adjustable principle, or capable of having their diameters increased or diminished, as occasion requires, whilst the machine is at work. By this adjustment, an exact correspondence is obtained between the velocity of the revolving wire and that of the revolving felting; for, should one exceed the other in the smallest possible degree, the paper would either be torn asunder, or carried round upon the under side of the web, and be spoiled. It is effected by a very ingenious application of an expanding rigger.

The machine will make paper of any required *width* also, by diminishing the distance between the deckles upon the wire; and for this purpose, the rollers over which the deckle-traps are constructed are adjustable upon their spindles. The long sheet of paper, thus obtained, is unrolled from the reel upon a cutting-table, having grooves, with steel edges, placed at a proper distance; and thus the sheets, of the usual sizes, are cut off, by means of steel cutting-wheels running into the grooves of the table, and pressed down by a loaded carriage. The reel of paper is placed parallel to these grooves, which are

so much longer than the utmost width of the sheet, as is sufficient to let the carriage be retained on either side while a sheet is taken off the table, and fresh paper drawn on; in doing which, care is taken to keep the edges of the sheet at right angles to the grooves, for which purpose, direction-lines are drawn upon the table. We have been informed by those who have seen these machines at work, that this method of cutting has been abandoned; and they are now worked with reels made adjustable to the required width of the sheet, and, when a sufficient quantity is wound on it, is cut off by a knife, which, by cutting through the folds, divides the paper into separate sheets, which are ready for the operation of the second press. The machines are constructed with a cloth, so wide, that the continual sheet is cut up into two, and sometimes three, in width, by which means it produces an immense number of sheets in a short time; but the greatest advantage is in making very large sheets, which it will do to almost any extent in length, and as much as two yards in width.

But even this curious machine has been greatly improved upon by Messrs. Dickinson and Co. whose mills are situated a little lower down, between the villages of Two Waters and King's Langley. They have an air-pump, which acts on the machine in such a manner as to supersede the *shake* there described as so necessary; and, instead of the wire several yards in length whereon the pulp is described as running, it runs into a cylinder, and from thence on to the felt; which reduces the size of the machine so much that it occupies but little more room than a mangle, while the others take up a space of ten or twelve yards in length. Many other improvements are made in these machines, (which we cannot fully explain, as no description of them is published, and we have only the imperfect observation of a person who had the pleasure of seeing them;) one of which is, the original machines require the eye of some person constantly on the paper in its progress, lest it should break or become thin and uneven; but these have a small bell so fixed, that the least imperfection causes it to ring; therefore the man whose duty it is to attend the machine can be employed in cutting the paper from the roller at the same time. Mr. G. Dickinson, we believe, obtained a patent for a picking-machine, which was fixed so as to pick the paper while in its progress to the roller at the end of the machine; but, since that, Mr. Dickinson has invented a new method of cleansing the pulp itself, by bringing it through a body of water; which method produces a paper much cleaner and better than can otherwise be produced, and effects a very material saving of labour and materials.

The paper is now ready for the market. Not quite so; for, previous to its quitting the mill, or warehouse, the proprietors must pay the

DUTIES ON PAPER.—The principal act by which the excise-duties on paper are now collected, is the 43 Geo. III. c. 69. By the 43 Geo. III. c. 81. more duties were added to those imposed by the former act; and by other subsequent statutes other duties increase the whole amount; and the particulars may be found in the schedules annexed to the several acts. We shall here subjoin some more permanent regulations.

Paper which hath paid the duty may be exported, and also books; and drawbacks are to be allowed subject to the regulations prescribed in several acts; as 26 Geo. III. c. 78. 34 Geo. III. c. 20. 43 Geo. III. c. 69. sched. G. The officer attending the packing of paper for exportation, shall take off the stamps from each ream or bundle; and any person obstructing him in this service shall incur a forfeiture of 50l. (26 Geo. III. c. 77.) By 49 Geo. III. c. 98. certain importation-duties of customs are also payable upon papers; but old rags, old ropes or junks, or old fishing-nets, may be imported duty free, (11 Geo. I. c. 7.) By 32 Geo. III. c. 54. officers of the customs shall cause any printed, painted, or stained, paper, that is imported, to be marked; and counterfeiting or forging the mark

mark or number, subjects to a forfeiture of 100l. and counterfeiting or forging any stamp or seal for making the impression, incurs a forfeiture of 500l. and any person who shall sell paper with such counterfeit stamp, knowing the same, shall forfeit 50l. By 34 Geo. III. c. 20. the importation of books for sale, first printed in this kingdom, and reprinted in any other, incurs forfeiture of the same, and also 10l. and double the value of such book; provided this shall not extend to any book that has not been printed or reprinted in this kingdom within twenty years before the same shall be imported, &c.

Every maker of paper or pasteboard, and every paper-stainer, shall take out a license from the office of excise, annually, for which he shall pay 2l. on pain of forfeiting 20l. (24 Geo. III. c. 41. 43 Geo. III. c. 69. sched. A.) All brown paper, made of old ropes or cordage only, without separating or extracting the pitch or tar from them, and without any mixture of other materials, shall be deemed paper of the *second class* or denomination, and be chargeable with the duty accordingly; and all other paper whatever (glazed paper for clothiers and hot-pressers excepted) shall be deemed to be of the *first class* or denomination. (42 Geo. III. c. 94.) No paper shall be painted or stained for hanging, except that for which the duty on paper of the first class hath been charged, duly stamped, &c. (41 Geo. III. c. 8.) Nor is the maker to diminish any paper before it be charged, under the penalty of 50l. and also such paper. Pasteboard is to be made of paper charged, and unused for any other purpose, on pain of 100l. together with forfeiture of the same, and utensils, &c. employed in making it. (42 Geo. III. c. 94.) By the same act, the maker of pasteboard shall produce to the officers all such paper as he intends to use for pasteboard, duly wrapped and stamped, after twenty-four hours' previous notice, on pain of 100l. nor shall any maker of pasteboard be a paper-maker, nor manufacture within a quarter of a mile of a paper-manufactory, on pain of 100l. Places of making or keeping paper, pasteboard, mill-board, scale-board, or glazed paper, all utensils and materials employed, shall be entered, on pain of forfeiture, and also of 50l. (34 Geo. III. c. 20.) All paper shall be made up into quires, each quire consisting of 24 sheets, and such quires shall be made up into reams of 20 quires each; and all pasteboard, &c. shall be made up in parcels, each parcel containing even dozens of sheets, of one and the same denomination, and of equal dimensions, and not less than 24, nor more than 72, such sheets in every parcel; tied up, &c. in wrappers, and marked with the class of paper to which it belongs, the number of the reams made by the maker during the current quarter, &c. &c. on penalty of 200l. and forfeiture. (42 Geo. III. c. 94.) Every maker may make his paper into quires without folding, provided that such quires, when made up into reams, be separated by a slip of coloured paper placed between each quire, and visible on the outside of the ream, and that the outside quires of each ream consist of not less than 20, nor more than 24, sheets, at the option of the maker. Every maker, whose mill or work-house is situated in any city or market-town, who shall have any paper, pasteboard, &c. to be weighed, and charged with the duty, shall give 24 hours (elsewhere 48 hours) previous notice, in writing, to the officer of excise, who shall attend; and such maker, or his servant, shall produce to the officer all such paper, pasteboard, &c. duly tied up, that the duty may be charged previous to removal; stamps shall be provided by the commissioners of excise; and, if any person shall counterfeit such stamps, and sell with such counterfeits, knowingly, he shall be adjudged guilty of felony, and subjected to transportation, as a felon, for seven years. 47 Geo. III. sess. 2. c. 30.

Paper-makers are enjoined to give notice to the proper officers of their names, places of abode, store-houses, &c. and to make regular daily entries of the number of sheets made by them, which entries are to be sworn to every six weeks, on penalty of 50l. and the duty shall be

paid in six weeks after entry, on pain of double duty. 34 Geo. III. c. 20.

Paper-makers are forbid to remove or to conceal their paper, &c. till the officer has taken account thereof, on penalty of 50l. and forfeiture of the paper, &c. (24 Geo. III. c. 18. 34 Geo. III. c. 20. 42 Geo. III. c. 94.) nor shall the paper, &c. be removed in less than 24 hours after charged, under the same penalty. Any paper may be removed from one mill to another, upon giving 48 hours notice, in writing, to the officer. Paper that has been stamped and charged, is to be kept separate from other paper, and also paper of one class from that of another, on pain of 50l.

Persons molesting officers in the execution of this act (34 Geo. III. c. 20.) incur a penalty of 100l. and the penalties and forfeitures shall be appropriated, one moiety to the king, and the other moiety to the informer.

There is a drawback of the duties on paper exported; and also for books printed at Oxford or Cambridge, in the Latin, Greek, Oriental, or Northern, languages; and also for Bibles, Testaments, Psalm-books, or Books of Common Prayer, printed either in those universities, or by the king's printer, under certain conditions. 43 Geo. III. c. 69. sched. C.

Pasteboard, made of paper that hath paid the duty, shall not be charged with farther duty. (34 Geo. III. c. 20. 42 Geo. III. c. 94.) Allowance shall be made on paper damaged, for which the duty hath been paid; upon seven days' notice: and allowance shall be made to clothiers and hot-pressers; on certain conditions. 42 Geo. III. c. 94. 43 Geo. III. c. 69.

Stained paper (besides the duty paid for the paper before staining) is subject, by the former acts, to a duty of 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. a yard square. 43 Geo. III. c. 69.

Of the different Kinds of Paper; and the Methods of preparing it for various Purposes.

Papers are of various kinds. With regard to colour, they may be divided into white, blue, brown, &c. With regard to quality, into superfine, fine, second, bastard, &c. With regard to use, into writing, printing, pressing, cap, cartridge, copy, chancery, post, &c. With regard to dimensions, into pot, foolscap, crown, demy, medium, royal, super-royal, imperial, elephant, atlas, &c.

Pot is the name of the smallest kind of paper: it was so called from having had originally the device of a flower-pot for the water-mark. At present the water-mark in most kinds of paper is the maker's name with the date of the year.—*Post*, large or small, is chiefly used or intended for writing letters to go by the post.—*Demy* is that most commonly used for printing books, though the other larger sorts are occasionally employed for splendid works. The present Encyclopædia is printed upon *medium* paper.

BLOTTING-PAPER is paper not sized, and in which therefore ink readily sinks or spreads. It is used in books of account, &c. in lieu of sand, to prevent blotting and disfiguring the opposite page. The same kind is likewise used by apothecaries in filtering juices, and other matters.

DRAWING-PAPER. The paper used for drawing, or for coloured maps, is in some mills made from one kind of white stuff, either fine or middling; in others from a mixture of three or four kinds of stuff of different colours. The Dutch were, not long ago, almost wholly in possession of this manufacture. The same qualities are necessary in this paper as in that for writing: the grain, however, must be a little more raised, although softened by the exchange; for, without this grain, the pencil would leave with difficulty the traces of the objects. Great care is also necessary in the sizing of this paper, that the drawing be neatly performed, and also that the sinking of the ink or colours into the irregularities of the stuff be prevented.

Painters prepare their paper for drawing, and give it a dark ground, which spares them much labour of the pencil.

cil afterwards in those places where shade is necessary. For this purpose they take white paper, and pass over it a sponge which has imbibed water impregnated with soot, leaving the light places to be formed afterwards. This is called *bistered paper*. They use also a kind of paper for drawing, which is called *trinted paper*. A light colour is passed over the whole ground, which deprives the paper of its original brightness, and makes the light places of the print appear more in relief, and more luminous.

Tracing-paper.—The method most common and most convenient for copying a print is to use oiled paper. The manner of preparing this paper is to take that which is thin and smooth, known commonly by the name of *serpent-paper*, and moisten it with a composition, two parts of the oil of walnuts and one part of the oil of turpentine mixed well together. A sheet of pasteboard and a sheet of paper are laid on a smooth table; above them are placed two sheets of paper to be prepared; and a layer of the oil applied to the uppermost is sufficient to penetrate both. This may be done to any number of sheets, and a strong sheet of pasteboard is placed over the whole. The heap is afterwards submitted to the press, under which it remains for two or three days, till the oil is completely dry. Paper prepared in this manner serves to copy very readily and exactly all kinds of figures and plans; because, being altogether transparent, all the parts of the drawing, whether of light or shade, are easily distinguished through it.

In the year 1812, the Society of Arts voted a premium to Mr. Cathery, of Mead-row, Lambeth, for the invention of a tracing-paper for engravers and painters, of which the following is the method of preparation: Take one quart of the best rectified spirits of turpentine, and put to it a quarter of an ounce of sugar of lead finely powdered; shake it up, and let it stand a day and night; then pour it off, and add to it one pound of the best Canada balsam; set it in a gentle sand-heat, and keep stirring it till it is quite mixed, when it will be fit for use. Then lay your paper on a smooth board, and, with a large brush, brush your paper over very even with the mixture, and then hang it upon lines to dry; and it will be fit for use in about four days.

This paper, says Mr. Cathery, "will be of great use to engravers, as it will not turn yellow, as the tracing-paper now in general use is apt to do; which takes off the transparency and prevents the artist from seeing the drawing or painting that is under it so plain as he could wish, particularly if the drawing or painting is very delicate, or of a yellowish colour. It is very transparent; and, as the pencil will mark better on this than it will on the yellow paper, it will be the better for those that trace on the ground that is laid on the copper by means of a point and a coloured paper under it, as they will see the tracing plainer; and, if laid on the copper-plate that has a ground on it, and passed through a printing-press, the marks of the pencil will adhere quite perfect to the ground; and, as the tracing-paper is dry, it will not stick to the ground, and tear it up, as the other paper will sometimes, on account of its being fresh made; for, if kept long, it will turn yellow and thick. The longer my paper is made the better it is, and keeps clear and white. I can make and sell it at the same price as the paper which is now made. You may trace or write with a pen and ink on it, if the ink has a little ox-gall put into it." The same gentleman received a premium of twenty guineas the year preceding, for his method of fixing black and white chalk drawings.

MARbled PAPER is a sort of paper variously stained, or painted as it were with divers colours; made by applying a sheet on the surface of a liquor wherein colours diluted with oil or ox-gall are suspended.

The manner of making it is thus: A trough is provided of the shape and dimensions of a sheet of the paper to be marbled, and about four fingers deep; this is made

of lead or wood well joined, and pitched or primed to contain the liquor. For the liquor, a quarter of a pound of gum tragacanth is macerated four or five days in fair water; this they stir from time to time, and add to it daily fresh water, till it be of a consistency somewhat thinner than oil; then they strain it into the trough.

The colours to be applied are—For blue, indigo ground up with white lead, or Prussian blue and verditer may be used. For green, indigo and orpiment, the one ground and the other tempered, mixed and boiled together with common water; or verdigris, a mixture of Dutch pink and Prussian blue, or verditer, in different proportions. For yellow, orpiment bruised and tempered; or Dutch pink and yellow ochre. For red, the finest lake, ground with raspings of Brasil wood, which has been prepared by boiling half a day; or carmine, rose-pink, vermilion, and red-lead; the two latter of which should be mixed with rose-pink or lake, to bring them to a softer cast. For orange, orange-lake, or a mixture of vermilion, or red-lead, with Dutch pink. For purple, rose-pink and Prussian blue. Into all these colours, properly ground with spirit of wine, they put a little ox or fish gall, which is two or three days old; and, if the colours dilate not of themselves sufficiently, they add more gall; on the contrary, if they spread too much, the gall is over-dosed, and must be corrected by adding more of the colour without gall.

For the operation of *marbling*, when the gum is well settled in the trough, they extend a sheet of paper and plunge it very shallow into the liquor, suddenly lifting it out again, in order to stir up and raise the subsiding gum towards the surface, and for the more universal impregnating of the liquor. This done, and all the colours ranged in gallipots on the table, where also the trough is placed, they begin by dipping a brush of hog's hair into any colour, commonly the blue first, and sprinkle it on the surface of the liquor: if the colour has been rightly prepared, it will dilate itself duly therein. This done, the red is applied in the like manner, but with another pencil: after this the yellow: lastly the green. For white, it is made by only sprinkling fair water mixed with ox-gall over the liquor. When all the colours are thus floating on the liquor, to give them that agreeable cambletting which we admire in marble paper, they use a pointed stick; which, being applied by drawing it from one side of the trough to the other, with address, stirs up the liquor and fluctuating colours; then with a comb, made of wood, about five inches long, with brass teeth, about two inches in length, and a quarter of an inch distant from each other, taken by the head with both hands, they comb the surface of the liquor in the trough, from one extreme to another, permitting only the teeth to enter: this, being performed with a gentle and uniform motion, makes those clouds and undulations on which the beauty of the paper depends.

If it be farther desired to have the colours lie in any other fantastical posture, representing serpents, or the like, it is effected with the pointed stick above mentioned, by drawing it over what has been already combed; but this must be done with a dextrous hand, and with a shallow dip into the liquor, circling, as if you would draw some flourish, or figured letter.

Lastly, the colours being in this posture, the operator displays and applies on them a sheet of white moistened paper; to do which, artist-like, requires a sleight only to be obtained by practice; because the surfaces of the liquor and the paper are to meet equally in all parts; which done, before the colours have time to soak through, which, unless the paper be very thick, will be in the space of two or three pulses, he lifts up the paper nimbly, and with an even hand; and then, after spreading it awhile on a board, hangs it on a line to dry; which, when sufficiently done, they first rub it with a little soap, and then polish it with a marble stone, ivory knob, or glass polishers, or with a burnisher of jasper or agate.

Some

Some attempts have been made to enrich the marbling, by mixing gold and silver with the colours; which succeeded well in many attempts in the French king's library, though the expense has hindered the practice from obtaining.

PAPIER MACHÉ.—Mr. Boyle first observed, that paper, besides its common uses, may be made into frames for pictures, fine embossed work, and other parts of furniture; or into snuff-boxes, toys, &c. For this purpose, a convenient quantity of cuttings of white or brown paper may be steeped for two or three days in water, till it becomes very soft; then, reducing it by the mortar and hot water into a thin pulp, it is laid on a sieve to draw off its superfluous moisture; then, putting it into warm water wherein a considerable quantity of fresh glue or common size has been dissolved, it may afterwards be put into oiled moulds to acquire the designed figure; and, when taken out, may be strengthened, as occasion requires, with plaster, or moistened chalk; and, when dry, painted or overlaid with a mixture of size and lamp-black, and afterwards varnished.

These hints have since been improved into a regular manufacture, both in France and England, under the name of *papier maché*. The black varnish for these toys, according to Dr. Lewis, is prepared as follows: Some colophony, or turpentine boiled down till it becomes black and friable, is melted in a glazed earthen vessel, and thrice as much amber in fine powder sprinkled in by degrees, with the addition of a little spirit or oil of turpentine now and then: when the amber is melted, sprinkle in the same quantity of farcocolla, continuing to stir them, and to add more spirit of turpentine, till the whole becomes fluid; then strain out the clear through a coarse hair bag, pressing it gently between hot boards. This varnish, mixed with ivory black in fine powder, is applied, in a hot room, on the dried paper paste; which is then set in a gently-heated oven, next day in a hotter oven, and the third day in a very hot one, and let stand each time till the oven grows cold. The paste thus varnished is hard, durable, glossy; and bears liquors hot or cold.

PAPER HANGINGS.—There are various kinds of paper-hangings, of which some are made in the representation of stucco-work, for covering ceilings, or the sides of halls, stair-cases, passages, &c. and others in imitation of velvet, damask, brocades, chintzes, or such silks and stuffs as are employed for hanging rooms. The principal difference in the manufacture lies in the grounds; some of which are laid in varnish, and others in the common vehicles for water-colours. The kind of paper employed for this use is a sort of cartoon, manufactured for the purpose, which must be stamped before it is painted.

1. For common designs done with water only, the following are most proper: For red, lake, vermilion, rose-pink, and red-ochre: for blue, Prussian blue, verditer, and indigo: for yellow, the yellow-berry wash, Dutch pink, and yellow-ochre: for green, verdigris, or a mixture of the blue colours with the yellow colours, particularly with the yellow-berry wash: for orange, vermilion, or red lead, with Dutch pink: for purple, a wash made of logwood, or a mixture of the lake, or rose-pink, with deep-coloured Prussian blue, or with indigo: for black, ivory-black, and, in some nicer cases, lamp-black: for white, whiting; and for the heightenings, white-lead. Where great brightness is required, the lake should be used for the crimson red, and Prussian blue for the blue; but for many purposes, rose-pink used alone for the crimson red, and indigo mixed with whiting for the blue, will answer the purpose with much less expense. The lake, rose-pink, Prussian blue, and Dutch pink, intended for this use, should be procured in a moist state.

2. The colours used in varnish may be the same as those used in water; but for this purpose, those just mentioned should be obtained dry. As for the vehicles of the colours; when water is used, it must be inspissated with size and gum arabic, or Senegal. When burnish is used,

it must be formed of oil of turpentine, and the resins and gums which will dissolve in that menstruum.

With respect to the *grounds* for paper-hangings, those that are laid in water, are made by mixing whiting with the size above mentioned, and laying it on the paper, with a proper brush, in the most even manner. Nothing more is necessary, when the ground is to be left white; and the paper, being hung on a proper frame till it is dry, is fit to be painted. When coloured grounds are wanted, the same method must be pursued; and the ground of whiting first laid: except that, in paler colours, a second coating may sometimes be spared, by mixing some strong colour with the whiting. But, where a greater force of colour is wanted, the pigment or colouring substance must be tempered with the proper vehicle, and then spread over the white coat. The varnish-grounds are made much in the same manner, by mixing the proper colour with the varnish, and spreading it on the paper.

There are three methods by which paper-hangings are painted: the first by printing on the colours; the second by using the stencil; and the third by laying them on with a pencil, as in other kinds of painting.

1. When the colours are laid on by *printing*, the impression is made by wooden prints; which are cut in such manner, that the figure to be expressed is made to project from the surface, by cutting away all the other part. This, being charged with the colours tempered with their proper vehicle, by letting the print gently down on a block, on which the colour is previously spread, conveys it from thence to the ground of the paper, on which it is made to fall more forcibly by means of its weight, and the effort of the arm of the person who uses the print. The manner of doing this, when more particularly explained, is thus. The paper, being properly prepared by a ground of whiting, colour, or varnish, is laid on a block, on which a piece of leather is strained. The colour, mixed with its proper vehicle, is spread on another piece of leather, or oil-cloth, laid on a flat block, somewhat larger than the print; which is done by a boy or man who attends for that purpose; and, having the colour by him in a pot, spreads it with a brush on the block betwixt every stroke and impression the printer makes. The print is previously cut in such manner, correspondently to the design of the painting, that there shall be a projection on the surface answering to every part, where that colour intended to be conveyed by this print is necessary. The printer then takes the print either in his right hand, or, when too heavy to be so managed, in both, and drops it gently on the block, just charged with colour; from whence he again immediately raises it in the most perpendicular direction, and lets it fall, in the strongest though most even manner he can, on the paper; increasing the force by all the additional velocity he can give the print. When this is done, the sheet printed is immediately taken off the block, and hung up to dry; and, another being put in its place, the same operation is repeated, till the whole quantity of paper is printed. It is easy to conclude, that there must be as many separate prints as there are colours to be printed; and they are to be used successively in the same manner as the first. But, where there are more than one, great care must be taken, after the first, to let the print fall exactly in the same part of the paper as that which went before: otherwise the figure of the design would be brought into irregularity and confusion, for want of *register*, as letter-press printers call it. In common paper of low price, it is usual, therefore, to print only the outlines, and lay on the rest of the colours by stencilling; which both saves the expense of cutting more prints, and can be practised by common workmen, not requiring the great care and dexterity necessary to the using of prints.

2. The manner of *stencilling* the colours is this: The figure, which all the parts of any particular colour make in the design to be painted, is to be cut out, in a piece of

thin leather, or oil-cloth. These pieces of leather, or oil-cloth, are called stencils; and, being laid flat on the sheets of paper to be printed, spread on the table or floor, are to be rubbed over with the colour, properly tempered, by means of a large brush. The colour passing over the whole, is consequently spread on those parts of the paper where the cloth or leather is cut away, and give the same effect as if laid on by a print. This is nevertheless only practicable, without great care, in parts where there are only detached masses, or spots of colours; for, where there are small continued lines, or parts that run one into another, it is difficult to preserve the connection or continuity of the parts of the cloth, or to keep the smaller corners close down to the paper; and therefore, in such cases, prints are preferable. Stencilling is indeed a cheaper method of ridding coarse work than printing; but, without such extraordinary attention and trouble as render it equally difficult with printing, it is far less beautiful and exact in the effect. For the outline of the spots of colour want that sharpness and regularity that are given by prints; besides the frequent extralinations, or deviations from the just figure, which happen by the original misplacing of the stencils, or the shifting the place of them during the operation.

3. *Pencilling* is only used in the case of nicer work, such as the better imitations of the India paper. It is performed in the same manner as other paintings in water or varnish. It is sometimes used only to fill the outlines already formed by printing; where the price of the colour, or the exactness of the manner in which it is required to be laid on, render the stencilling or printing it less proper: at other times it is used for forming or delineating some parts of the design, where a spirit of freedom and variety, not to be had in printed outlines, are desired to be had in the work.

Flock Paper is a kind of paper-hanging, lately invented, which is embossed by means of chopped cloth. The paper designed for receiving the flock is generally first prepared with a varnish-ground of a proper colour; and it is not uncommon to print some mosaic, or other small running figure, in colours, on the ground, before the flock is laid on: this may be done with any pigment of the colour desired, tempered in varnish, and laid on by a print cut for the purpose.

The manner of laying on the flock is either by means of a print or by a stencil. But, as the stencil can execute nothing but detached parts, and consequently is unfit for all designs where running work, scrolls, or other more complicated ornaments, are introduced; it is extremely confined with respect to the nature of the designs for which it can be employed; and the print is therefore most generally preferred.

The method of laying on the flock by means of a print is this: A wooden print being cut in such manner, that the part of the design, which is intended for the flock, may project beyond the rest of the surface, the varnish is put on a block covered with leather, or oil-cloth, and the print is then used to lay the varnish on all the parts where the flock is to be fixed. The sheet, thus prepared by the varnished impression is now to be removed to another block or table; and to be strewed over with flock; which is afterwards to be gently compressed by a board, or some other flat body, to make the varnish take the better hold of it. Then the sheet is to be hung on a frame till the varnish is perfectly dry; at which time the superfluous part of the flock is to be brushed off by a soft camel's-hair brush, and the proper flock will be found to adhere in a very strong manner. When the stencil is used, the same method is to be pursued; the varnish for holding the flock being laid on by that instead of a print; the flock afterwards strewed upon it, as in the other case.

The usual method of preparing the flock is, by cutting woollen rags, or pieces of cloth, with the hand, by means of a large bill or chopping-knife. But it is much

more easily and better done by a machine; which may be worked by a horse-mill, at the same time such mill is employed for cutting diamonds, or any other similar purpose. In such case, the construction of that part of the machine, which is made for the cutting the flock, is this: A box is made for containing the rags or cloth to be cut, which is open at the top, and of such size as may best suit the quantity of rags that the force employed can cut. A blade is also to be made, the length of which is to be equal to the breadth of the box; and it should be strong, and must be charged with as great a weight as the force employed can be made to raise with a quick motion. The box, being filled with the rags or cloth to be cut, is placed under the blade, and made to move by hitches after the stroke of the blade is given, just so far as where it is proper the blade should again cut the cloth or rags; while at the same time, the blade is lifted up, and let fall on the cloth, which it cuts through, till by successive strokes, and the progressive motion of the box under it, the whole quantity of cloth or rags in the box has been cut. The box must then be turned, so that one of the sides may become the front; and the operation must be repeated; by which means the cloth or rags, having been cut both ways, will be reduced to the state in which the matter is called flock; and fit to be employed for the purpose of paper-hangings.

There is a kind of counterfeit flock-paper, which, when well managed, has very much the same effect to the eye as the real, though done with less expense. The manner of making this sort is, by laying a ground of varnish on the paper; and, having afterwards printed the design of the flock in varnish, in the same manner as for true, instead of the flock, some pigment or dry colour, of the same hue with the flock required by the design, but somewhat of a darker shade, being well powdered, is strewed upon the printed varnish, and produces nearly the same appearance.

PAPER-ROOFS.—In some parts of Devonshire, though slate is by no means difficult to be procured, a substitute for that sort of covering is getting very much into use, which is prepared in the following manner: Three parts of whiting, five of sand, one of pounded charcoal, and one of bone-ashes, to a barrel of common tar, to which are added four pounds of black resin; the two last materials are to be melted together, and, when boiling, the other ingredients are to be added in small quantities, keeping them constantly stirred and in motion over the fire, until the whole mass becomes of a consistence fit for use. Then the roof, being previously covered over with sheathing-paper securely nailed down, is to be carefully and evenly spread with the liquid hot from the copper, to the thickness of about three quarters of an inch; which will cost, at the cauldron, about thirty-five shillings for each square of ten feet. The same measure of the common slate-roof will cost about thirty-two shillings. The roofs for this sort of composition are pitched very flat, and, from the lightness of the scantling which is necessary in their construction, come considerably cheaper than those required for carrying slate or tiles.

Mr. Loudon, whose great improvements in farm-buildings have made his name celebrated, has published a more detailed account of this kind of roof, particularly as used by himself at Tew-lodge in Oxfordshire. These roofs, as noticed above, are very flat, being raised no higher than what is sufficient for throwing off the water; Mr. L. allows two inches and a half of rise for every foot of base. The thickness of the timber for the couples depends on the sort employed, and the width of the house. Where deal is used, one inch and a half will be sufficient for the depth and width of a rafter of twenty feet. Of other sorts of wood the proportion must be different. The rafters, if of deal, may be made two inches square; if of other wood, proportionally stronger. They are placed about eighteen inches apart, and are nailed to the couples.

The

The thin boards for receiving the paper, if of deal, one-quarter or five-eighths of an inch is sufficient thickness; Scotch fir may be half an inch. These boards are made tolerably straight at the edges, and nailed on, not as boards for slates, in a horizontal direction, but in a direction from the eaves to the ridge of the roof, across the rafters. The advantage of this mode is, that, in case of warping, they are not liable to retain the water. They should project an inch over the lower or cornice rafter. Where there is no occasion to walk above, nor any chance of a mischievous person thrusting a pointed instrument through from below, as in the case of barns, churches, granaries, &c. common plaster-laths may be substituted, nailed on exactly as the boards, and forms the cheapest variety of paper-roof.

As to the sort of paper, any strong coarse paper will do. That used by button-makers is, perhaps, the best; unless a sort made on purpose by Mr. Swann, of Ensham, Oxfordshire.

For the preparation of the paper, a boiler, or cauldron, three feet wide and two deep, is required, and must be built over a furnace in the usual manner. This is to be filled, within six inches of the top, with tar and pitch, in the proportion of three parts of tar to one of pitch. The fire being applied, when it begins to boil the paper is immersed in it, one sheet at a time; and, as it is taken out, laid on a stack or pile, with a proper inclination to drain dry. A little grease of any sort is put between each sheet to prevent their adhering together. The mixture is kept hot during the operation, which must be repeated in a day or two, when the paper is dry. The whole process requires to be conducted under cover.

In nailing on the paper, begin at the eaves, and allow three inches for being turned down and nailed underneath the ends of the boards, which boards project an inch over the first rafter. If the paper is common coarse wrapping-paper, it is laid on much the same as slate, so that when finished it will remain double thickness all over the roof. If button-board paper, or that manufactured by Mr. Swann, which comes cheaper than button-paper, one sheet in thickness will frequently suffice; only each sheet, as laid down, must be made to overlap the one previously laid three inches on the two sides next it. Every sheet requires four nails; the proper nails are brads, one inch in length, with heads half an inch in diameter.

The composition to be laid on the paper consists of two parts of tar to one of pitch, thickened to the consistence of paste with equal parts of powdered charcoal and whiting or lime. It is previously well boiled, and kept constantly stirred; while still boiling, it is carried out in iron potsfulls, and instantly spread or painted over the roof with a hempen mop. This must be done with expedition, as it speedily cools, and gets hard. When properly laid on and dry, the joints of the paper are totally concealed and covered one eighth of an inch in thickness by this composition, which appears of a smooth and glossy black, inclining to blue. Strewing sand, forge-dust, or smithy-ashes, over the pitch as soon as laid on, by a large dredge-box, forms a thicker coating, and renders it less liable to melt with the sun and run off, or to blaze if the building should catch fire.

The advantages of this species of roof, says Mr. Loudon, are, its economy, durability, and elegance.

"The economy results, not merely from the lightness of the requisite timbers of the roof, but from the comparatively slender walls which will suffice for supporting it. At Tew, I found it cost from four pence to ten pence per square foot, all expenses included. A square foot of a roof, so flat as this, is reckoned to cover as much level surface as one foot and five sixteenths of a foot of roof raised to the ordinary pitch; so that, besides being cheaper per foot than the common roofs, five feet in sixteen is saved altogether. I found that a stone slated roof (at Grovash, the sort common in Oxfordshire) required fourteen feet of surface-covering, when a papered roof, with a rise of two inches to the foot, would only take ten feet

and a quarter; a difference of thirty per cent. in quantity. One rafter necessary for each stone flat roof would make three for a paper one. What the saving may be on walls of buildings so roofed, must depend on whether stones, brick, stud-work, or weather-boarding, is employed. Least saving can be made when the walls are built of stone, and the height only one story; as from the coarseness of the materials the walls must unavoidably be made of considerable thickness.

"Their durability may be inferred from the nature of the surface exposed to the air. We have no common substance indeed more durable than pitch, excepting lead. Proof, however, can be had from different buildings erected and roofed in this way many years ago; such as the church at Dumfermline, the prepared roof of which has stood forty years without requiring any repairs; the roofs of several warehouses at Greenock, Deal, Dover, Canterbury, &c. which have stood from ten to twenty years. Farm-houses in Scotland are frequently roofed in this way. The extensive mills, offices, and dwelling-house, at Ensham, have been covered with it, by Mr. Harris of Oxford; and Mr. Swann, of Ensham, informs me, that a roof of paper put up at his mill at Wolvercot, near Oxford, has been now done thirteen years, and never required the least repairs; whilst a blue slated roof adjoining has been a continual plague, from the slates being in that exposed situation; and indeed so great has been the damage sustained in consequence, that he has an intention of taking off the slates and covering it with paper. This will prove what will at first appear rather paradoxical, viz. that a light paper roof is less liable to be blown away than a heavy slate one.

"The flatness of those roofs being greater than that of slate, their resemblance to that material in colour, and their projection at the eaves, communicate ideas of lightness and Doric simplicity, unfelt in viewing any other species of roofs. In this respect, and in every other, my opinion is so decidedly in their favour for farm-buildings, churches, warehouses, and such edifices as do not require constant fires in them, that I should not use tile, even if it were to prove considerably cheaper. For slight movable edifices, such as Dutch-barns, sheep-houses, field-racks, &c. no roofs can be more appropriate.

"The only objections I have ever heard made to these roofs are, the danger of their being blown off by high winds, and their liability to accidents by fire. In regard to the last objection they seem to me not so liable to be set fire to as thatch. Pitch (especially if coated over with sand or smithy ashes) will not be lighted by a spark, nor even the application of a slender flame, as will that material; though, on the other hand, when lighted, it will unquestionably burn with greater velocity than any species of thatching. The other objection may readily be prevented by the builder. Before the roofs at Tew Lodge were finished, and through the carelessness of an unworthy man, who undertook part of them by the job, I had an accident by high wind, but none has happened since they were completed. I have been thus particular in describing the manner of constructing these roofs, to prevent their being confounded with some other modes of applying paper and composition which have proved unsuccessful, and nearly as expensive as the best slate-roofs."

The following are the chief of the sources from which the above article has been derived.—Montfaucon's *Paleogr. Græc.* Mabillon de *Re Diplomat.* Hardouin ad *Plin. lib. xiii.* Phil. *Transf.* in various places. Knox's *History of Ceylon.* Le Clerc's *Bibl. univ. tom. xxiii.* Houghton Collections. Du Halde's *China.* Kerchmayer's *Diff. philolog. de Papyro veterum.* Guilandinus de *Papyr. membr.* Reim. *Idea syst. Antiq. Lit.* Maffei *Istor diplomat.* Journal des *Sçavans*, vol. xxxii. Voff, de *Art. Grammat.* Polydore Virgil de *Invent. Rer. Fabric. Bibl. Antiq. Transf. of the Soc. of Arts*, vol. xxx. Farmer's *Mag.* for 1808. Landseer's *Lectures on the Art of Engraving* at the Royal Institution, Lond. 1807. Fosbrooke's

Fosbrooke's Abstracts of Records and Manuscripts respecting the county of Gloucester, 4to. 1811. Handmaid of the Arts, vol. ii. Loudon's Account of Paper Mills, 1811. Private Communications from Mr. Bigg, late of Iping Mills, 1820.

PAPER, *adj.* Any thing slight or thin.—There is but a thin *paper* wall between great discoveries and a perfect ignorance of them. *Burnet*.

To **PAPER**, *v. a.* To register :

He makes up the file
Of all the gentry ; and his own letter
Must fetch in him he *papers*. *Shakespeare's Hen. VIII.*

To pack in paper.—To furnish a room with paper hangings.

PAPER-BOOKS, in law, are the issues in law, &c. upon special pleadings, made up by the clerk of the papers, who is an officer for that purpose. Upon an issue in law, it is termed the *Demurrer-book*. The clerks of the papers of the court of King's Bench, in all copies of pleas and paper-books made up by them, shall subscribe to such paper-books the names of the counsel who have signed such pleas, as well on behalf of the plaintiff as defendant ; and in all paper-books delivered to the judges of the court, the names of the council who signed these pleas are to be subscribed to the books by the clerks or attorneys who deliver the same. 2 *Lill. Abr.* 268.

PAPER-CREDIT, *f.* Property circulated by means of any written paper-obligation :

Blest *paper-credit* ! last and best supply,
That lends corruption lighter wings to fly ;
Gold, imp'd by thee, can compass hardest things,
Can pocket states, can fetch or carry kings. *Pope*.

PAPER-FACED, *adj.* Having a face as white as paper.—Better thou hadst struck thy mother, thou *paper-faced* villain. *Shakespeare*.

PAPER-KITE, *f.* A paper machine to resemble a kite in the air.—He [Arbutnot] was so neglectful of his writings, that his children tore his manuscripts, and made *paper-kites* of them. *Warton's Essay on Pope*.

Though now he crawl along the ground so low,
Nor weeting how the muse should soar on high,
Wistheth, poor starv'ling elf ! his *paper-kite* may fly.
Shenstone.

PAPER-MAKER, *f.* One who makes paper.

PAPER-MILL, *f.* A mill in which rags are ground for paper. See **PAPER**.—Thou hast caused printing to be used ; and, contrary to the king and his dignity, thou hast built a *paper-mill*. *Shakespeare*.

PAPER-MONEY, *f.* Bills of exchange, bank and promissory notes.—Whether the abuse of banks and *paper-money* is a just objection against the use thereof? *Bp. Berkeley's Quærist*.

The substitution of paper in the room of gold and silver money replaces a very expensive instrument of commerce with one much less costly, and sometimes equally convenient. Circulation comes to be carried on by a new wheel, which it costs less both to erect and maintain than the old one. When the people of any particular country have such confidence in the fortune, probity, and prudence, of a particular banker, as to believe that he is always ready to pay upon demand such of his promissory notes as are likely at any time to be presented to him, those notes come to have the same currency as gold and silver money, from the confidence that such money can at any time be had for them.

If we examine what the most celebrated and judicious authors have written respecting paper-money, we shall find that scarcely any of them have adverted with sufficient precision, and in a sufficiently decided and distinct manner, to the points of difference which exist between paper-money issued by government, and which it is rendered obligatory upon the people to receive, and that species of paper-money which consists in the notes of

the bank, or of bankers, payable to the bearer on demand, and which pass current for the sums specified in them. Of the former kind were the assignats and mandats issued by the government of France during the first years of the revolution ; the paper-money issued in America, before and during the war with this country ; that which was issued by the Dutch during their long and arduous struggle for independence ; and, generally speaking, the paper-money which most of the governments on the continent of Europe have found themselves compelled to issue during the French revolutionary wars. It will be sufficiently evident, from the slightest consideration of these two species of paper-money, that they differ completely and essentially in their nature, and that we shall be led far astray from the truth in our discussions on paper-currency, if we infer, from what has taken place respecting the one species, what will probably or must necessarily take place respecting the other species.

I. Of COMPULSORY PAPER-MONEY.

The paper-money issued in general by the governments on the continent of Europe, contains no promise to pay either on demand or at the termination of a limited and specific period ; it is, in reality, nothing more than paper stamped with the amount of the sum for which it is to pass current, and with such marks or signatures as may serve to distinguish what is genuine from what is forged. Here, then, we at once perceive an essential difference between government-paper and bank-paper : the former is in fact, strictly speaking, *paper-money* ; or, in other words, paper issued as money instead of the precious metals ; the latter is not, strictly speaking, paper-money, though thus denominated in general and popular language, but a written obligation to pay a certain sum of money on demand. Another striking and essential difference between these two species of currency arises from the distinction just pointed out : it is plain, that, if the written obligation to pay on demand is given by persons who are of undisputed and established credit, few will be disposed to refuse such written obligation, and therefore this species of paper currency will be received without compulsion, and, where the credit of the issuer or issuers is undoubted, equally as metallic money. But the reverse must be the case with regard to government paper-money : it contains no obligation to pay metallic money, and therefore will never be preferred to the latter, or taken, unless in cases where there is no alternative. With respect to bank-paper, it is sought after ; the taking of it is a matter of choice : with regard to government-paper, it is compulsory on the people ; the government which issues it, tenders it in payment of the debts which it may have contracted, and it is taken, only because, if it is refused, no other payment will be made. It may, however, be remarked, that another cause operates, in some degree, towards the acceptance and circulation of compulsory government-paper ; for, though this paper contains no obligation or promise to pay in metallic currency, yet, as all governments necessarily receive large sums from their subjects in taxes, the unwillingness of the people to receive this compulsory money is in some measure removed, by the conviction that part of it will be taken back by government in payment of taxes. It will be no difficult matter to perceive what, in almost every case, must be the consequence of an issue of compulsory government-paper : as long as any government confines itself to a metallic currency, there is some check to the extravagance and carelessness of its expenditure ; for, if it be extravagant or careless, it will experience great difficulty in replacing the money it has thus expended ; but, on the other hand, if it substitute compulsory paper-money in the room of a metallic currency, there can be no check to its carelessness or extravagance.

Money, of whatever it is composed, whether of metal or paper, like every other commodity, depends, for its value, on the proportion between it and the commodities for

for which it is exchanged : if this proportion is altered or deranged, the value of the money will be altered : if, while the quantity of money remains the same, the quantity of the commodities is diminished, the money must necessarily bear a larger proportion to them than it previously did ; and, consequently, its power to purchase them will be diminished : strictly speaking, however, this cannot, with propriety and precision of language, be denominated a depreciation of the currency, as the variation in its value or power of purchase, arises entirely from a change in the quantity of commodities, and not, in the smallest degree, from any alteration in the quantity of the currency. But if, while the quantity of commodities continues stationary, the amount of the circulating medium is increased, the consequence already pointed out will equally ensue ; that is, the power of the currency to purchase commodities will be diminished ; and the currency, therefore, so far as it is considered in relation to commodities, will be depreciated. But in all countries where a compulsory government-paper is issued, the metals, even when coined, soon are regarded solely as commodities, and are affected, equally with all other commodities, by the increased issue of the paper-currency. As, therefore, there is no check to the issue of government-paper, and extravagant or careless expenditure calls for increased issue, a depreciation of such paper necessarily ensues ; and each stage in the depreciation occasions a further issue, which in its turn increases the depreciation ; for, when the government perceives that one thousand pounds in paper-money, for instance, will no longer command the same quantity of the commodities which it needs that it would formerly do, but that one thousand and fifty pounds are requisite for this purpose, it is compelled to increase its issue of paper-money in this proportion ; and this increased issue, again raising the price of commodities, requires a still larger issue, the next time that the government has occasion to make a purchase.

On the first issue of compulsory government-paper, it is received with reluctance : metallic money is preferred to it ; and, where it can be procured, a premium is willingly given for it ; or, in other words, the compulsory government-paper is at a discount. But, if this is the case at the first issue of it, and when the amount is comparatively small, we may easily conceive what will be the consequence, if a larger and constantly-increasing quantity is forced on the people : this increasing quantity must act, not only in the manner which we have already described, towards its own depreciation, by the same process in which all commodities are depreciated by increase, but it will also operate towards its own depreciation in another manner. The very first issue of a compulsory government-paper is a sufficient proof of an impoverished and embarrassed government ; and every future issue, especially if the amount of the issue be increased, is a proof that the poverty and embarrassment of the government are increasing : but it is utterly impossible, that, while the poverty and embarrassment of a government are increasing, the confidence which the people repose in it can remain stationary : it must diminish, and a diminution of public confidence in a government displays itself in no respect so unequivocally and materially, as in the estimate which is formed of the value of the paper-currency. Here, then, we perceive the real and full state of the case, whenever a government increases the issue of its compulsory paper : a larger quantity of a currency, on its first circulation received with reluctance, and only because no other mode of payment could be obtained, is issued ; the increased issue, of itself, would necessarily diminish the value of the currency, but this consequence is increased by the suspicion which such a measure on the part of government creates, that the finances of government are on the decline ; hence, from the operation of both these causes, viz. an increased issue, and diminished confidence, a depreciation of the compulsory government-paper must necessarily ensue.

There is still another subject incidentally connected

with paper-currency, on which it may be proper to say a few words, before we proceed to the second division of this article. By many, bills of exchange, or exchequer-bills, payable only at a certain time, and bearing interest, are considered as paper-currency ; and it is contended that an increase in the issue of them has exactly the same effect as an increase in the issue of government or bank paper. This notion, though certainly plausible, and maintained by writers of considerable acuteness and knowledge on the subject of political economy, a little reflection will serve to convince us is erroneous and unfounded. We have only to reflect on the nature and operations of currency, to be convinced that bills of exchange and exchequer-bills do not form a part of it ; and, indeed, that notes bearing interest, are by that very circumstance excluded from the character and operations of currency ; and that the increased issue of these, so far from tending to depreciate the value of money, must rather operate to raise it. Bills of exchange, and exchequer-bills, are brought into the market, not for the purpose of employing them in the purchase of commodities, but for the purpose of sale ; and they are generally bought by those who wish to put out their money to interest : hence they may operate on the rate of interest, but they cannot operate on the price of commodities, unless it be, as has been already stated, to lower the price of commodities, or, in other words, to raise the value of money. That they may have this effect will appear from the following considerations : Let us suppose that the money and commodities in any market bear a certain proportion to one another, and that this proportion is disturbed, by the introduction, either of a greater quantity of some of the commodities formerly in the market, or by the introduction of some new commodity ; it is plain that in either case, if the quantity of money continue the same, its value or power of purchase will be increased, since it will now exchange, not merely for the commodities formerly in the market, but also, in addition, for the increased quantity of the old commodities, or for the new commodities. If, instead of a new commodity properly so called, we suppose that a person comes into the market, wishing to borrow money, and offering such a rate of interest as secures to him part of that money which used to be expended in the purchase of commodities ; in this case, also, the value of the money, or its power to purchase, must be increased, since it will now command, not only the commodities it formerly did, but also the interest offered for the sum wished to be borrowed. But in this question, it is a matter of mere indifference in what manner the interest to be paid is promised or secured ; whether in the usual way, or by bills of exchange, or by exchequer-bills. The general fact and consequence are precisely the same in all cases : if bills of exchange or exchequer-bills are brought into the market, they are brought, not to purchase commodities with, but for sale ; and, if they are sold for part of that money which used to be expended in the purchase of commodities, it is evident that the price of these commodities must be lowered, not raised, by the introduction of these bills of exchange, or exchequer-bills ; and consequently, that as their nature and operation is that of commodities, not of circulating medium, their issue cannot lower the value of money, but must, in some degree, tend to raise it.

II. OF PAPER-MONEY PAYABLE ON DEMAND.

Bank-notes have very generally, but very erroneously and improperly, been denominated the representatives or symbols of coin. This is one, among many other instances of vagueness and confusion of ideas, arising from the injudicious and careless use of metaphorical language, which has so much retarded the advance of the science of political economy. What precise or clear idea can we attach to the term representative of coin ? or how can bank-notes be so denominated ? It has been justly remarked, " that the most accurate representatives of coin are well-fabricated counterfeits ; yet every man, when he knows

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them, refuses them in payment." A bank-note does not represent coin; nor is it circulated and received on that account; but it is an obligation on the part of the person or persons who issue it to pay, on demand, a certain quantity of gold or silver. A common cheque upon a banker, which nobody ever dreamed of calling a representative of money, is just as much a representative of it as bank-notes; nay, in fact, the order which the manufacturer, on the Saturday night, puts into the hands of one of his workmen, to get from his clerk the wages of the week, is a representative exactly of the same description. The only real difference in practice is, that the one obligation generally passes but through one or a few hands, till it comes upon the obligee: the other passes through many hands, each accepting it as a satisfactory security for the valuable commodity which it is an order to receive.

With regard to the effects of paper-money, they may be considered under two heads: the effect it produces on the price of commodities, and the effect it produces on the metallic currency along with which it circulates. Mr. Hume entertained the notion that paper-money raises prices; whereas Mr. Adam Smith, referring to what he considers as a general fact in the theory of circulation, that every addition of paper to the currency displaces an equivalent quantity of gold, holds an opposite opinion. This notion of Smith, however, must be received with some limitation: if, by an addition of paper to the currency in any country, the price of any commodity is raised in that country so high as will pay for its importation, it will be imported, and part of the metallic currency will probably be employed to pay for the commodity thus imported. But, whenever the addition made to the currency by paper-money is employed in the production of commodities, and the increase in the quantity of these commodities is in the same proportion as the increase to the currency, by the addition of paper-money, there will be no reason for exporting gold; and the whole currency, consisting of the precious metals and of paper, will be no more than is necessary to circulate the increased quantity of commodities in the market. In considering this branch of the subject in a more extended sense, it will be necessary to look to the effect produced on the value of the precious metals, in the general market of the world, by the addition of paper to the currency of any particular country, in cases where that addition, not producing a corresponding increase in the quantity of commodities, enhances their price, and thus leads to the exportation of gold from the country where the paper-currency is issued. In these cases, the same exportation of gold, which remedies the temporary rise that takes place in the particular country where paper has been issued, has a tendency to increase the supply of precious metals in the general market of the world, and thus to occasion a general rise of prices in which that particular country must participate. The whole quantity of bullion, of which Great Britain has spared the use by adopting a different medium of domestic exchange, is added to the general stock of the mercantile commonwealth, as much as if an equal quantity had been brought additionally from America; and the saving of that annual loss which would have been occasioned by the waste of British coin, is equivalent to an increase in the annual produce of the mines.

On the whole, with respect to the effect of a paper-currency on the price of commodities, and on the precious metals with which it circulates, it may be remarked, that it must vary according to the circumstances under which the paper-currency is emitted, and the quantity which is thrown into the market; and these variations in its effects will more properly be considered under the next head, viz.

III. ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF PAPER-MONEY.

1. The first advantage resulting from the use of a paper-money, which occurs to the observation of a person reflecting ever so superficially on the subject, is, that by the

substitution of paper in the room of gold and silver money, a very expensive instrument of commerce is replaced by one much less costly. So far the substitution of paper-money must be advantageous to the community. The currency of a country is a part of its capital, which may be considered as unproductive: it is, indeed, necessary to carry on the operations of its commerce, but it does not, strictly speaking, increase that commerce; it is, therefore, of the utmost importance, that this instrument, thus unproductive, should be procured and kept in action with the least possible expense. But, where gold and silver alone are employed as the currency of a country, they must either be obtained directly from the mines at great labour or expense, or purchased by commodities on which the same quantity of labour and expense has been laid out. Again, if in a country, the currency of which consisted entirely or principally of gold and silver, a paper-currency is introduced, it is evident that a part of its former metallic currency will be set at liberty, and may be expended in the purchase of foreign commodities. Paper-currency, as we have already shown, is in fact only an obligation to pay on demand a specific sum of gold and silver; it therefore might be inferred, that the substitution of paper for gold and silver would not set at liberty any portion of the latter, since it would be necessary to retain the whole, in order to answer the demands of those who brought the paper-currency for payment. But the fact is, that a comparatively small proportion of gold and silver is required to answer the demands occasioned by a very extensive paper-circulation; those who issue bank-notes soon ascertain, with sufficient and perfectly-secure precision, the exact amount of gold and silver which it is necessary or prudent to keep by them, and the rest is employed in the purposes of commerce.

Whatever evils may have resulted from an injudicious and superabundant issue of paper-money, there can be little doubt that this species of currency has been of great service in increasing the produce and extending the commerce of the country. Let us suppose an instance of common occurrence, and of no intricacy or complication in its detail: A gentleman possesses a large estate, that is in a great measure in an uncultivated and unproductive state: he does not possess the capital adequate to the full improvement of it; and yet there can be no doubt, that if sufficient capital were laid out upon it, in a judicious and skilful manner, not only the owner, but the community, would be greatly benefited. In a country destitute of paper-currency, he would experience great, perhaps insurmountable, difficulties, in borrowing the requisite capital; whereas, in a country possessed of a paper-currency, the means of improvement would be easily obtained, and a great increase of produce, and consequently of wealth, would be added to the public stock. Whoever has watched the progressive improvement of Great Britain, not only in the extended and superior cultivation of her soil, but in the increase of her manufactures and commerce, must be convinced that the rapid and great advances she has made in wealth within these few years, have been in a great measure owing to her paper-currency.

The following passage from Smith's *Wealth of Nations* will set the advantages of a paper-currency, perhaps, in a still clearer light. "It is not by augmenting the capital of the country, but by rendering a greater part of that capital active and productive than would otherwise be so, that the most judicious operations of banking can increase the industry of the country. That part of his capital which a dealer is obliged to keep by him unemployed, and in ready money, for answering occasional demands, is so much dead stock, which, so long as it remains in this situation, produces nothing, either to him or to his country. The judicious operations of banking enable him to convert this dead stock into active and productive stock; into materials to work upon, into tools to work with, and into provisions and subsistence to work for;

for; into stock which produces something, both to himself and his country. The gold and silver money which circulates in any country, and by means of which the produce of its land and labour is annually circulated and distributed to the proper consumers, is, in the same manner as the ready money of the dealer, all dead stock. It is a very valuable part of the capital of the country, which produces nothing to the country. The judicious operations of banking, by substituting paper in the room of a great part of this gold and silver, enable the country to convert a great part of this dead stock into active and productive stock; into stock which produces something to the country. The gold and silver money which circulates in any country may very properly be compared to a highway, which, while it circulates and carries to market all the corn and grain of the country, produces itself not a single pile of either. The judicious operations of banking, by providing, if it may be allowed so violent a metaphor, a sort of waggon-way through the air, enable the country to convert, as it were, a great part of its highways into pastures and corn-fields, and thereby to increase very considerably the annual produce of its land and labour. The commerce and industry of the country, however, it must be acknowledged, though they may be somewhat augmented, cannot be altogether so secure, when they are thus, as it were, suspended upon the Dædalian wings of paper-money, as when they travel about upon the solid ground of gold and silver. Over and above the accidents to which they are exposed from the unskilfulness of the conductors of paper-money, they are liable to several others, from which no prudence or skill of those conductors can guard them."

2. The disadvantages and evils of paper-money, indeed, arise from the same causes which produce its advantages and benefits: we must never forget, that the foundation of paper-money is *credit*; that it is, in fact, an obligation to pay on demand a certain sum of metallic currency. Credit does not create capital, it only sets that portion of capital in operation, which would otherwise be inactive: the person who gives credit, in reality gives part of his capital, which he has not the disposition or the means to employ: and the person who receives credit or capital, by employing his industry and skill along with his borrowed capital, is enabled to repay it, and the stipulated interest. So long as the credit of the lender is good, and the repayment of the borrower punctual or undoubted, so long a paper-currency thus established, if not pushed too far, must be beneficial to the lender, the borrower, and the nation at large. But let us suppose that, from any cause, confidence in the paper-money of a country was destroyed or shaken, and we shall immediately perceive the disadvantages and evils of this species of currency, as compared with a metallic currency. Where the commercial transactions of a country are entirely carried on in a metallic currency, opinion has no room for operation: no confidence is reposed; commodities are sold, not for what may or may not be worth the value which they represent or promise, but for what possesses absolute and intrinsic value. No circumstance will point out and exemplify the difference between a paper and a metallic currency so clearly and strikingly, as the invasion, or dread of invasion, in the countries in which they respectively exist. If a country, the currency of which consisted principally or entirely of paper, were actually invaded, or threatened with invasion, or even if its internal state were convulsed or disturbed, or its finances considerably disarranged, its paper-currency would be immediately affected: its value would fall, in proportion as the confidence reposed in it was diminished: people would prefer metallic currency for this strong and obvious reason, that whoever had possession of the country, whatever change took place in its government, or into whatever circumstances of political or financial embarrassment and confusion it was thrown, the value of the metallic currency would

remain unchanged, whereas the value of the paper-currency would be subject to constant variation, and might probably be totally destroyed.

It is sometimes objected to a paper-currency, that, by exchanging commodities for it, we in fact get nothing valuable; whereas, when we sell our commodities for gold or silver, we obtain something of real and intrinsic value: but this observation amounts to nothing, provided the *credit* of the paper-currency be good; it is, indeed, founded on the erroneous idea, that when we sell our commodities, we look for any thing else in the money which we receive, but the certainty that it will be taken from us at an undiminished value. When a person sells a quarter of wheat for five pounds, it must be a matter of perfect indifference to him, whether he receives five pounds in silver, or five pounds in paper, provided he is convinced that, in the purchase of what he may want, the latter will go as far as the former: in selling his wheat he is never disturbed by the idea, that five pounds in silver have intrinsic value, i. e. value as metal, while the five pounds in paper possess no intrinsic value; the power each possesses over commodities is all he regards, and, if that power be equal, their value, for all the purposes he needs them for, is equal in his estimation.

It has also been objected to paper-currency, that its use is solely confined to transactions of domestic traffic; and consequently that a country, which has no other species of currency, must go to a foreign market to purchase commodities at a great disadvantage. The fact is undoubted, that, generally speaking, a paper-currency is without value in a foreign country; but the inference by no means follows, that on this account foreign commodities must be purchased by a country which possesses only a paper-currency at a great disadvantage. On the first establishment of a paper-currency, the very reverse must be the case; or, to speak more correctly, the establishment of a paper-currency setting loose a portion of the metallic currency, this may be employed in purchasing a larger quantity of foreign commodities than the country could afford to purchase while this metallic currency was necessary for the circulation of its internal commerce. But, even after a paper-currency is established, foreign commodities may be purchased at an equally-cheap rate as they were while the currency was metallic; for, in the first place, foreign commodities are seldom purchased by the coin of the country purchasing, but either by bullion, or the interchange of commodities; and secondly, while a bank-note for a guinea will exchange for a guinea, it will always command, indirectly, the same quantity of foreign commodities, as could be purchased if the currency were entirely metallic.

But the objection to paper-currency, urged most frequently and with the most confidence, arises from the extreme facility with which it may be increased, the strong temptations to increase it, and the evils to the community to which an improper increase must give rise. This objection naturally leads us to consider the nature and process of the checks to the over issue of bank-paper, when it is payable on demand.

3. It may be proper first to consider what is meant by an *over-issue of paper-money*: the term is too often used without any clear and definite idea being attached to it. When the quantity of circulating medium, whether metallic or of paper, is increased in a country, the increase either operates to the production of a great quantity of commodities, that is, is usefully employed, or it merely operates to raise the prices of the commodities already in existence: before, therefore, the addition of any sum to the circulating medium can be said to be an over-issue or not, the effects produced by it must be traced and ascertained: if a correspondent addition to the quantity of commodities has taken place, there cannot be said to be an over-issue of currency; but, if no such correspondent addition has taken place, as the sum added to the currency

rency cannot be inactive or unapplied, a rise of price must take place, and then an over-issue may justly be said to have occurred. Those who sell as well as buy, probably will not be much or long injured by this rise, since any addition to the currency is not long in adjusting itself to the various commodities in the market; and, consequently, if some commodities are bought dearer, other commodities are sold dearer: but those persons, whose whole property consists in money, are injured, when there is an over-issue of the currency; i. e. when an addition to the currency does not produce a correspondent addition to the commodities in the market. While the currency is entirely metallic, they are in a great measure guarded from a sudden or violent over-issue, and consequently, from a sudden or violent rise of prices, or depreciation of money, their sole property; since, before any great addition can be made to the circulating medium, additional labour must have been bestowed on the mines. But, where paper-currency is established, the case at first sight seems different; the value of their property, i. e. money, is at the mercy of all who can issue bank-notes. If, however, we investigate what actually takes place, where there is a paper-currency *payable on demand*, we shall find that the property of the moneyed man is guarded as effectually, though not so directly, as if the currency were metallic.

Let us suppose a large addition to be made to the paper-currency of any particular district in this country. This addition operates either to the rise of prices solely, or to an increase in the quantity of commodities; in the latter case, the moneyed man has no cause to complain; there is indeed more money in his neighbourhood, but, as there are also more goods, the value of his money is not affected. On the other supposition, that the increase to the paper-currency raises the price of commodities, let us see what will occur: those commodities, the price of which is raised, will be purchased in another district, where they have not undergone a similar rise; but, before they can be purchased, the local notes must be exchanged for such as are current in the district where the purchase is to be made; or, in other words, some part of the over-issued notes will return to the bank which issued them. This will be a sufficient proof and warning to the bank, that they have issued more notes than the commercial transactions of the district required; and as, on notes almost immediately returned, the expense in manufacturing them, and their proportion of the establishment, must far exceed the profit made on them while they were in circulation, the bank will be careful in future not to over-issue their notes.

A process similar in all its steps, and in its result, will take place, if the Bank of England, while subject to be called upon for cash-payments, should over-issue their notes: the over-issued notes will either spread themselves over the country, for the purchase of such commodities as have become cheaper in the country than in London, by the addition to the circulating medium, or they will be returned to the Bank of England for gold, wherewith to go to a foreign market.

Thus it would appear that the property of the moneyed man is rather more secure, and better protected from depreciation, in a country, the currency of which consists of paper payable on demand, than in a country, the currency of which is entirely metallic; since, in the former country, the real and well-understood interest of those who issue the paper-money must lead them most carefully to avoid any over-issue; whereas in a country, the currency of which is entirely metallic, though no addition to it, sufficient to raise the prices, can long remain in it, yet it may both remain longer than an over-issue of paper money, and be repeated more frequently.

4. We now come to consider, lastly, the state of bank-paper, *when not payable on demand*, so far as regards its over-issue, and its supposed depreciation arising from this or other causes.

The suspension of cash payments in the Bank of England, in the beginning of the year 1797, forms a most memorable era in the history of the science of political economy; and the undiminished confidence, which after this measure was, and is, reposed in the Bank-of-England notes, has shaken to the foundation many favourite theories in this most intricate and delicate science. By some it is alleged, that the confidence in Bank-of-England paper remained the same, even after the suspension of cash-payments, because there was a general and well-founded belief, that the Bank was able to pay all its notes in specie; but something more than mere ability would seem necessary to inspire or continue confidence. Of what moment is it to the holder of a Bank-of-England note, to be told that the Bank can pay it in specie, if he knows that they will not, and that he cannot compel them? By others it was argued, that the confidence was still continued, because it was expected, that in a short time cash-payments would be resumed. This consideration might have operated on some persons at the time of the imposing the restriction; but afterwards it could have no weight, as the expectation that cash-payments would soon be resumed, were till very lately utterly banished from the mind of every man; and yet no diminution of confidence took place. The continued confidence, without diminution, in the Bank-of-England paper, after they were relieved from the obligation to pay in cash, seems to have arisen from the following circumstances. All the principal merchants, and government itself, declared their willingness to receive bank-paper as before; the mass of the nation were content with this; for, though intrinsic value is indispensably necessary at first to give circulation, yet, in process of time, that circumstance is never adverted to, except by those whose business it is to watch the variations in the value of the metals of which the money is formed. The nation at large knew, that the Bank would no longer pay in cash; but they also knew, that Bank-of-England paper, though thus deprived of its intrinsic value, would be received the same as before by all those to whom their principal or most common payments were to be made: as, therefore, the bank-paper still retained the character and uses of money, the alteration in its intrinsic value was not adverted to.

With respect to the danger of over-issue, when cash-payments are suspended, it is argued, that it is merely chimerical; since no one will pay interest to the Bank for money, from which he does not expect to derive more profit than the interest he pays; and consequently, as all issues are made for commercial purposes, they will not be carried to a greater extent than the state of commerce requires. But it may be very true, that there are no issues, but what the state of commerce requires, and what will produce, or are expected to produce, a profit to the borrower; and yet there may be an over-issue of bank-paper; or, in other words, an issue that will raise the price of commodities; since, in many instances, the profit expected by the borrower may arise from this increase of prices. Let us suppose a merchant wishes to buy largely cotton, corn, or any other commodity, and for this purpose gets his bills discounted at the Bank-of-England: his speculations succeed, and he makes a large profit; in this case, the price of the cotton or corn is necessarily increased by the greater sum brought into the market for the purchase of it, by means of the discount afforded by the Bank-of-England: there is a real commercial transaction; and yet, as there is no increase in the quantity of commodities, but a mere transfer, the bank-notes issued for this purpose ought to be considered an over-issue, that is prejudicial to the property of the moneyed man, though advantageous to the bank and the merchant.

It is evident that paper-money, when not payable in cash on demand, must be more liable to depreciation from any doubt respecting the security of the country, than if it could be converted into cash at pleasure; but

how far it is liable to depreciation from other causes, is a question on which there is much difference of opinion. If, as we have endeavoured to show, there may be an over-issue, i.e. such an issue as will raise the price of commodities, the price of gold and silver bullion must rise as well as all other commodities; but, when the bullion-price of the metals rises above the mint-price, the coin will soon be regarded only as a commodity, and will, in spite of all laws and penalties, be bought and sold as such. When a difference in the estimated value of paper-currency takes place, from whatever causes it may arise, one of two effects must follow: either the paper-currency and the metallic-currency will be equally current, each at its respective value; or the metallic-currency, being regarded solely as a commodity, will disappear. Where depreciation has occurred from want of confidence, it has generally happened, that the paper and metallic-currency have circulated together, each at its own value; but where depreciation has taken place, from an increase in the quantity of paper, from a diminution in the quantity of the precious metals, or from an increased demand for them, it has generally happened, that the metallic-currency, being regarded solely as a commodity, has disappeared.

These two different effects may easily be accounted for. A rise in the price of bullion, occasioned by an over-issue of paper, by a diminished supply of bullion, or by an increased demand for it, is only known to, and acted upon by, comparatively a few people. The great mass of the nation, as has been already observed, in receiving or paying money, do not advert in the slightest degree to the character or value of the money as bullion, but solely to its character and value as a means of interchanging commodities; the variations in its bullion-value, therefore, are unheeded both in their payments and receipts; they are, however, constantly and carefully watched by all whose business consists in dealing in bullion; and, as soon as the bullion-value of coin exceeds its mint-value, it disappears from circulation by their means. The case is widely different, when there is any alarm respecting the credit of the paper-currency; in this all are immediately and deeply concerned; all are eager to exchange it for the precious metals; and under these circumstances, as the precious metals, in their character of coin, can thus be exchanged for as much paper as they could command as bullion, there is no temptation to withdraw them from circulation.

It is not just, therefore, to infer, that the paper-currency of a country is not depreciated, because two prices do not exist, if the other effect of depreciation, viz. the disappearance of the precious metals, has taken place; each circumstance marks depreciation, but of a different kind, and arising from different causes. On the other hand, is it not fair to infer, that the credit of the paper-currency, or in other words, a difference of value between the paper-currency and the coin it promises to pay, may arise, like a difference of value between any other two commodities, from the quantity of the one being increased, or the demand for it being diminished, or from the quantity of the other being diminished, or the demand for it being increased? See Smith's *Wealth of Nations*; Thornton on *Paper Credit*; and our article *BANK*, vol. ii. p. 674-8.

PAPER-OFFICE, (in the palace of Whitehall,) is an ancient office, where all the public writings, matters of state and council, proclamations, letters, intelligences, negotiations of the king's ministers abroad, and generally all the papers and dispatches that pass through the offices of the secretaries of state, are lodged, and disposed in the way of library. It was chiefly from this noble repository that bishop Burnet had materials for his *History of the Reformation*.

PAPER-OFFICE, sometimes called *Paper-mill*; an office, or room, in the Court of King's Bench, where the records belonging to that court are deposited.

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PAPES'CENT, *adj.* Containing pap; inclinable to pap. —Demulcent, and of easy digestion, moistening and solvent of the bile, are vegetable sopes; as honey, and the juices of ripe fruits; some of the cooling, lactescent, *papescent*, plants; as cichory and lettuce. *Arbutnot on Aliments*.

PA'PESS, *f.* [from *pape*, Fr.] A female pope.—The man, as ill as he loves marriage, will needs make a match betwixt his Gratian's pope Stephen, and his pope Joan. *Io Hymen!* Was ever man so mad to make himself part-time with his own shame? Was the history of that their monstrous *papes* of our making? *Bp. Hall's Honour of the Marr. Clergy*.

PA'PHIA, one of the names of Venus.

PA'PHIAN, *adj.* Belonging to Paphos; applied to Venus. See **PAPHOS**.

PAPHLAGONIA, in ancient geography, a province of Asia Minor, situated on the Euxine Sea, between Bithynia to the west, and the gulf Amifenus towards the east; to the south was Galatia. When other divisions were introduced, such as the province of the Hellespont, &c. the name of Paphlagonia disappeared. The river Parthenius served for a considerable time as a boundary between Paphlagonia and Galatia. Towards the east the mouth of the Halys served as a limit to Paphlagonia on that side. In the interior of the country were the Heneti or Veneti, regarded as the progenitors of those who afterwards passed over into Italy; they occupied the parts towards the north. In the centre of Paphlagonia was a province called *Domanitis*, which included a considerable town under the name of Germanicopolis, (*Kastamoni*.) This country is called *Pylemenia* by some. *Paphlagones*, the people, are mentioned by Homer, and therefore of no small antiquity; he calls them a brave people; while Lucian stigmatizes them as superstitious and silly. Borchart derives their name from *Phaleg*.

PAPHOS, in ancient geography, two adjoining islands on the west side of the island of Cyprus; the one called *Halle Paphos* (Strabo, Ptolemy, Pliny); the other *Nea Paphos*; and, when mentioned without an adjunct, this latter is always understood. Both dedicated to Venus, and left undistinguished by the poets (Virgil, Horace). Hence Venus is furnished *Paphia*.

Pausanias relates, that the Arcadians, in returning from the war of Troy, were cast by a tempest on the isle of Cyprus. Agapenor, their chief, founded a colony at Paphos, and there erected a temple in honour of Venus, about 1184 B.C. In this temple was an oracle, which was consulted by Titus, in his way to compliment Galba upon his elevation to the empire. When Cato was sent to the isle of Cyprus, he was assured by Ptolemy, that if he retired without opposition he should want neither money nor honour, and that the Roman people would confer upon him the profitable and honourable post of chief priest of Venus. The first town that bore the name of Paphos was in the interior of the country; the second, Neo Paphos, was on the sea-coast; here the goddess of beauty was particularly worshipped; and all male animals were offered on her altars, which, though a hundred in number, daily smoked with a profusion of frankincense. The inhabitants were very effeminate and lascivious, and the young virgins were permitted by the laws of the place to get a dowry by prostitution.

The abbe Mariti, in his *Travels through Cyprus*, gives the following account of the island of Paphos. "It is situated (says he) on the southern side of the isle of Cyprus. It contained the celebrated temple of Venus; which, together with the city, was destroyed by an earthquake, so that the least vestige of it is not now to be seen. A lake in the neighbourhood, which even in summer overflows with stagnant and corrupted water, renders the air in some degree unwholesome. On the western coast is the New Paphos, called by some of the modern geographers *Bafos*; a name which is unknown in the island of Cyprus. That we may not positively ascribe to the latter

ter every thing that history tells us of Paphos in general, it may not be here improper to mention that it has been several times destroyed. This city had a port, where vessels trading upon the coast, still cast anchor: but this happens only in summer; for, being exposed to every wind, it is extremely dangerous. The bottom of it is full of sharp rocks; which sometimes destroy the cables so much, that mariners are obliged to keep them afloat on the surface of the water, by means of empty casks fixed to them at certain distances. In the neighbourhood there are two castles; one on the borders of the sea, and the other on the summit of a little hill: but the latter is at present in ruins. The government of Paphos consists of a *digdaban*, or commissary; a *cadi*; and an *aga*, who presides over the custom-house. Of all the Christian edifices, there is none remaining but the church of St. George, in which service is performed by the Greek ministers. The productions of this part of the island, which are all of an excellent quality, are silk, barley, and other kinds of grain. To discover the origin of the Old and New Paphos, would be carrying light into the midst of the thickest darkness. When we have added conjecture to conjecture, we are still in the same situation. As this is an attempt superior to my abilities, I shall leave it to the divining, though uncertain, knowledge of our antiquaries. I must, however, observe, that in this island St. Paul by his eloquence converted Sergius, a Roman proconsul: here likewise he conferred the deaconship on his disciple and colleague Titus, who soon after suffered martyrdom. Paphos was an episcopal city in the time of the Lusignans; and it is still the seat of a bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Nicosia. On the western side of the island there are a great number of scattered villages; but they are not worthy of notice, being either abandoned or in ruins."

Mr. Bruce informs us, that in the neighbourhood of this place many silver medals of excellent workmanship are dug up; but that they are of little estimation among antiquarians, being chiefly of towns, of the size of those found at Crete and Rhodes, and in all the islands of the Archipelago. There are some excellent Greek intaglios, generally upon better stones than usual in the islands; particularly some heads of Jupiter, remarkable for bushy hair and a beard of excellent workmanship, and worthy of any price. All the inhabitants of the island are subject to fevers, but especially those in the neighbourhood of Paphos. The same traveller observes, that Cyprus was very long undiscovered; for, though ships had been sailing on the Mediterranean 1700 years before Christ, and though the island is only a day's sailing from the continent of Asia on the north and east, and little more from that of Africa on the south, it was not known at the building of Tyre, a little before the Trojan war, that is, 500 years after the neighbouring seas had been navigated. It was covered with wood at its first discovery; and our author is of opinion, that it was not well known even at the time of the building of Solomon's temple; because we do not find that Hiram king of Tyre, though just in its neighbourhood, ever had recourse to it for wood; though the carriage would undoubtedly have been easier from thence than to have brought it down from the top of Mount Lebanon. Eratosthenes informs us, that in ancient times the island was so overgrown with wood, that it could not be filled; so that they first cut down the timber to be used in the furnaces for melting silver and copper; that after this they built fleets with it: but, finding even this insufficient, they gave liberty to all strangers to cut it down for whatever purpose they pleased; and not only so, but they gave them afterwards the property of the ground they had cleared. Matters are now quite altered; and the want of wood is a principal complaint in most parts of the island. About Acamas, however, on the west side of the island, the wood is still thick and impervious, inhabited by large stags and wild boars of a monstrous size.

PA'THUS, a son of Pygmalion, by a statue which had been changed into a woman. See PYGMALION.

PA'PIA, *f.* in botany. See LAMIUM.

PA'PIAN-POPÆ'AN LAW, in Roman antiquity, was enacted by the consuls M. Papias Mutilus, and Q. Popæus Secundus. This law obliged all men to marry at a certain age, established great exemptions and privileges in favour of those that had children, and laid heavy fines on all who after a certain age continued single. It was also called the *Julian law*, because it had been published by the order of Augustus, who was of the Julian family. The severity of this law was mitigated by Tiberius.

PA'PIAS, bishop of Hierapolis, a city of Phrygia, is placed by Cave under the year 110; but, according to others, he flourished about the year 115 or 116. How long he lived is uncertain. Stephen Gobar, as quoted in Photius's Codex, asserts that he died a martyr; and the author of the Alexandrian Chronicle affirms that he suffered at Pergamos during the severe persecution in the reign of Marcus Aurelius; but, since neither Eusebius nor Jerome mention this circumstance, it must be admitted to be at least of doubtful authority. Irenæus speaks of him as a hearer of John, and companion of Polycarp; and by John seems to intend the apostle and evangelist. Eusebius, however, and Jerome, observe, that Papias "does by no means say, that he heard or saw any of the holy apostles, but only, that he received the things concerning the faith from those who were well acquainted with them; that he received the apostles' sayings from those who conversed with them; and that he was a hearer of Aristion, and John the presbyter." The character which they give of Papias is, that he was a good man, but very credulous, and of mean abilities, who delighted much in hearing and telling stories, and relating miracles which he learned from tradition. He was the first who propagated the famous notion concerning the *Millemium*, or personal reign of Jesus Christ upon earth for a thousand years after the resurrection, when he believed that the elect should be gathered together at Jerusalem, and enjoy all the felicity imaginable during that period. Papias was the author of "An Explication of the Oracles of the Lord, in five books;" of which we have now nothing left, excepting the fragments which are preserved in the writings of Irenæus and Eusebius. These are chiefly valuable on account of the testimony which they afford to the genuineness of the Gospels of St. Matthew and St. Mark, and of the first Epistles of St. Peter and St. John. *Cave's Hist. Lit.* vol. i. *Lardner's Cred.* vol. i.

PA'PIER-MACHÉ. See the article PAPER, p. 359.

PAPIGOHA'VEN, a bay on the east coast of Scotland, and county of Caithness: one mile north of Wick.

PAPIL'IO, *f.* [Latin.] The BUTTERFLY; in entomology, a genus of insects of the order lepidoptera. Generic characters: Antennæ thickening towards the extremity, commonly terminating in a knob or clavated tip; wings, when sitting, erect and meeting upwards. They fly in the day-time; and are thus distinguished from the moths, which fly in the night.—Conjecture cannot estimate all the kinds of *papilios*, natives of this island, to fall short of three hundred. *Ray.*

There is no class of insects which has been more accurately examined, or whose history has been more fully detailed, than that of the butterfly and moth. Two large volumes have been dedicated solely to this tribe by the indefatigable Reaumur.

The larvæ of butterflies are universally and emphatically known by the name of *caterpillars*, and are extremely various in their forms and colours; some being smooth, others beset with either simple or ramified spines, &c. and some are observed to protrude from their front, when disturbed, a pair of short tentacula or feelers, somewhat analogous to those of a snail.

A caterpillar, when grown to its full size, retires to some

some convenient spot, and, securing itself properly by a small quantity of silken filaments, either suspends itself by the tail, hanging with its head downwards, or else in an upright position, with the body fastened round the middle by a proper number of filaments. It then casts off the caterpillar skin, and commences *chrysalis*, in which state it continues till the inclosed butterfly is ready for birth, which, liberating itself from the skin of the *chrysalis*, remains till its wings, which are at first very short, weak, and covered with moisture, are fully extended; this happens in the space of about a quarter of an hour, when the animal suddenly quits the state of inactivity to which it had been so long confined, and becomes at pleasure an inhabitant of air. It is then that the insect enters upon a more enlarged sphere of action, with increased powers: he ranges from flower to flower, darting his rostrum into their nectaria for the delicious stores they contain. Then too, in the full possession of every faculty granted to his race, he prepares to multiply and perpetuate it. This last and most considerable metamorphosis is attended with a greater change in the economy of the animal than any of the preceding; not only the skin, but the teeth, jaws, and cranium, are left behind. The large artery which passes along the body may be considered as a succession of different hearts employed in circulating the blood, which is at that important æra observed to flow in a different direction from what it did before, like the fœtus of a quadruped after birth. Formerly it circulated from the extremity to the head: it now pursues a course directly opposite.

It is well known that the wings of butterflies are covered with a coloured powder; this powder, when examined through a microscope, is discovered to be nothing but an assemblage of feathers of the most elegant structure, erected on the surface of the wings, which gives them a great resemblance to the coloured plumes of large birds. How very minute must be the vessels which convey the fluids to the extremities of these feathers! and how curiously must the nutritive function of these animals be distributed! And, as their nourishment is only the most exquisite juices of flowers, how fine must be the terrestrial particles contained in that nectar, and which is spread over the extremities and surface of these feathers! See farther under the article ENTOMOLOGY, vol. vi. p. 834, 5, 6.

Insects have been long divided into two categories, according to the structure of their mouths, some having teeth well developed and which can divide solid food, while others have trunks or suckers adapted for liquids only. There are even some which, at different periods of their lives, assume both these forms of mouth; and in which a metamorphosis changes into suckers, when in their perfect state, what were masticators in their state of larvæ: such, for instance, are the *butterflies*, which feed by a double trunk only, generally spiral, which they unroll in order to introduce it into the bottom of the corolla of flowers to suck the nectar; whereas *caterpillars*, which are butterflies not yet developed, have their mouths armed with strong teeth, with which they cut the hardest leaves. Thus it has been supposed, that the caterpillar, in taking the wings, the long legs, and the beautiful antennæ, of the butterfly, also took its trunk and lost entirely its teeth. M. Savigny, the member of the Institute of Egypt, has proved, by some delicate and accurate observations, that this is not the case entirely; but that Nature, in this as well as in many other cases, confines herself to altering certain parts in order to develop others from them; thus producing effects entirely opposite by these simple changes of proportion. He has discovered, at the basis of the trunks of the butterfly, two organs of extreme minuteness, but which nevertheless represent the teeth of the caterpillar; at the back of the support of this same trunk, he found two very small filaments, which appeared to him to be analogous to the maxillary palpæ, so that the two laminæ of which the trunk is com-

posed are, according to M. Savigny, the points of the maxillæ extremely elongated, i. e. of the lower pair of grinders. Finally, the great feelers known to all naturalists are the palpæ of the lower lip. The two small maxillary feelers had been already perceived in some kinds of night-butterflies or moths; but we are indebted to M. Savigny for the information that they exist in the whole family. *Proceedings of the French Institute*, 1814.

Some of the species of butterflies are gregarious, and live in society during every stage of their existence; others live in that state during one period of their lives only. The duration of their life is various according to the weather; its warmth accelerates every step of their progress, and cold retards all their developments: a worm produced in a certain period of the summer lives only for three months, while the same species, if hatched a little later in the season, lives another year; hence Reaumur devised a method of prolonging the lives of these animals greatly beyond their natural course.

Butterflies of every species are extremely prolific; a single female at one birth produces several hundred eggs; and the most wonderful particular in the history of these insects, is the precautions by which they provide for the security of the young; some tear off the down from their own bodies to supply them with a covering.

Various insects prey upon the butterfly, or hasten the approach of its dissolution. A certain species of fly makes its way into its body, while yet a worm, and there deposits its eggs; and, although this worm continues, to live, and be metamorphosed into a *chrysalis*, no butterfly is produced from it; those internal parts that were essential to its preservation being consumed by the larvæ of the fly. From the great fecundity and variety of the insects of this genus, they probably would soon cover the surface of the earth, did not nature provide a bar to their increase; by multiplying their enemies: hence they are destined to become the food of a great number of animals of various kinds, some of which swallow them entirely, others macerate their bodies; while many accomplish their destruction by gradually sucking their juices. A single pair of sparrows, in order to supply themselves and their young, may destroy, as is supposed 3360 butterflies in a week.

The vast number of species belonging to this genus, and the variety and richness of their colouring afford ample scope to the painter for the exercise of his art. It was chiefly of these insects that Madame Merian exhibited those exquisite drawings that constitute the peculiar merit of her work. It is principally in America, the East Indies, and China, that those species are found which constitute the ornament of our collections. From the policy of the latter country, the ladies are circumscribed in their amusements; there they domesticate various species of this tribe of insects, and make their economy and manners the principal study of their lives; large glass apartments, furnished with proper food, being fitted up for the accommodation of these animals.

The papilionaceous insects in general, soon after their enlargement from the *chrysalis*, and commonly during their first flight, discharge some drops of a red-coloured fluid, more or less intense in different species. This circumstance, exclusive of its analogy to the same process of Nature in other animals, is peculiarly worthy of attention from the explanation which it affords of a phenomenon sometimes considered, both in ancient and modern times, in the light of a prodigy; viz. the descent of red drops from the air; which has been called a shower of blood: an event recorded by several writers, and particularly by Ovid, among the prodigies which took place after the death of the great dictator:

Sæpe facies visæ mediis ardere sub astris,

Sæpe inter nimbos guttæ cecidere cruentæ.

With threatening signs the lowering skies were fill'd.
And sanguine drops from murky clouds distill'd.

This

This highly-rational elucidation of a phenomenon at first view so inexplicable, seems to have been first given by the celebrated Peirese, who with his own eyes observed the vestiges of an appearance of this kind in France in the year 1608, and was clearly convinced of its real origin, viz. the discharge above mentioned from a species of butterfly, which happened during that season to be uncommonly plentiful in the particular district where the phenomenon was observed. The same idea was also entertained by Swammerdam, though he does not appear to have verified it from his own observation.

The prodigious number of species in this genus, 1157, has made it absolutely necessary to divide the whole into sections or sets, instituted from the habit or general appearance, and, in some degree, from the distribution of the colour on the wings. This division of the genus is conducted by Linnæus in a peculiarly elegant and instructive manner, being an attempt to combine, in some degree, natural and civil history, by attaching the memory of some illustrious ancient name to an insect of such or such a particular cast.

The first Linnæan division consists of the *Equites*, distinguished by the shape of their upper wings, which are longer, if measured from their hinder angle to their anterior extremity, than from the same point to the base. Some of this division have filiform or sharpened antennæ, in which particular they resemble moths, but may generally be very clearly distinguished by their habit or general shape. The *Equites* are either *Troes*, Trojans, distinguished by having red or blood-coloured spots or patches on each side their breasts; or *Achivi*, Greeks, without red marks on the breast, of gayer colours in general than the former, and often having an eye-shaped spot at the inner corner of the lower wings.

The next division consists of the *Heliconii*. These are distinguished by the narrowness of their wings, which are also, in general, of a more transparent appearance than in the other divisions; their upper wings are also generally much more oblong than the lower, which are short in proportion.

The third division is called *Parnassii*. These have the wings entire; the upper ones round.

The fourth division consists of the *Danaï*, (from the sons and daughters of Danaus.) They are divided into *Danaï candidi*, or those in which the ground-colour of the wings is generally white; and the *Danaï festivi*, in which the ground-colour is never white, and in which a greater variety of colour occurs than in the *candidi*. The wings of the Danaï are of a somewhat rounder shape than those of the *Heliconii*, or less stretched out.

The fifth section consists of the *Nymphales*, and is distinguished by the edges of the wings being scalloped or indented: it is subdivided into the *Nymphales gemmati*, in which eye-shaped spots are seen either on all the wings, or on the upper or lower pair only; and into the *Nymphales phalerati*, in which no ocellated spots are visible on the wings, but, in general, a great variety of colours.

The sixth section contains the *Plebeii*. These are, in general, smaller than the preceding kinds of butterflies, and are subdivided into *Plebeii urbicola*, or those in which the wings are marked by semi-transparent spots; and *Plebeii rurales*, in which the spots or patches have no transparency.

The arrangement made by Fabricius is upon the same principle, but something varied in the detail and subdivisions; and this last distribution is adopted by Dr. Turton in his translation of Gmelin's Linnæus. It is not our intention to insert the whole of this immense catalogue; but to select such of the species as possess any remarkable particularity, either of colour or form, and which may claim to be illustrated by the engravings which accompany the article; on which last particular it may be necessary to premise, that several of the most beautiful species have been already represented, in the course of the

work, in connexion with the plant or flower which they are known to inhabit.

I. *EQUITES*, Horsemen or Knights. *a. Troes*, Trojans.

1. *Papilio Paris*: black; wings tailed, that is, furnished with a pair of lengthened processes, black; the lower ones with a large blue spot and purple eye, and seven lunules beneath. It is found in China, and other parts of Asia; and is represented on the annexed Plate, at fig. 1.

2. *Papilio Hector*: wings tailed, black, both surfaces of the same colour; the upper pair with an uninterrupted white band; lower ones with numerous crimson spots. The thorax is red on each side. It is a native of the East Indies, and feeds on the *Aristolochia*, or birthwort.

3. *Papilio Afcanius*: wings tailed, black, with a common white band, both surfaces alike; the lower ones clouded red. It inhabits Brazil.

4. *Papilio Antenor*. This is a very large species, measuring six inches and a half in extent of wings. Its colour is black, with numerous cream-coloured spots and patches; and the under wings, which are tailed, are edged with a row of red crescent-shaped spots. It is a native of India. See fig. 2.

5. *Papilio Troilus*: wings tailed, black; the upper ones with pale marginal spots; lower ones with pale spots above, and fulvous ones beneath. Found in North America. See fig. 3.

6. *Papilio Ilioneus*: wings tailed, black; the lower ones with a bluish border, fulvous at the angle of the tail, with red spots beneath. It inhabits Georgia.

7. *Papilio Glaucus*: wings tailed, brown; the lower ones blue-black, fulvous at the angle of the tail, with yellow lunules beneath. It inhabits America.

8. *Papilio Palinurus*: wings tailed, black, with green-gold specks, and a common blue-green band. It is found at Tranquebar.

9. *Papilio Crinis*: wings tailed, black, with green-gold specks, and a common blue-green band; the lower ones beneath with green, blue, and cinereous, lunules. It is found in Africa.

10. *Papilio Deiphobus*: wings tailed, black, the base beneath spotted with red; the lower ones with seven red and almost angular spots. It is found in divers parts of Asia.

11. *Papilio Peleus*: wings tailed, black; the upper ones with a white band; the lower pair with white marginal lunules, and two red dots. It is found in India.

12. *Papilio Asterias*: wings tailed, black, with two macular bands; angle of the tail fulvous, with a deep black dot. Found in America. This is shown at fig. 4.

13. *Papilio Phorbanta*: wings tailed, black, spotted with blue; lower ones with an interrupted white band beneath. Found in the island of Cayenne.

14. *Papilio Philenor*: wings tailed, black; the lower ones with a greenish gloss, and seven eye-like spots beneath. It inhabits America. See fig. 5.

15. *Papilio Cyrus*: wings tailed, black, the margin spotted with white; lower ones with a white macular band, and marked beneath with seven red lunules. A specimen is preserved in the British Museum.

16. *Papilio Achates*: wings tailed, black, rufous at the base, both surfaces nearly of the same colour; the lower ones with a white spot divided into eight parts. It is found in China.

β. There is a variety of this species named *Papilio Alcenor*, with brown wings, black at the base; the upper ones with a rufous spot; lower ones with white spots.

17. *Papilio Priamus*: wings indented, silky; upper pair above green, with a black disk and edge; lower ones with from four to six black spots. This, says Dr. Shaw, should take the lead, not only from the corresponding dignity of the name, but from the exquisite appearance of the animal itself, which Linnæus considered as the most beautiful of the whole papilionaceous tribe. It measures more than

than six inches from wing's end to wing's end. The upper wings are velvet-black, with a broad band of the most beautiful grass-green, and of a satiny lustre, drawn from the shoulder to the tip, and another on the lower part of the wing, following the shape of that part, and of a somewhat undulating appearance as it approaches the tip; the lower wings are of the same green colour, edged with velvet-black, and marked by four spots of that colour, while at the upper part of each, or at the part where the upper wings lap over, is a squarish orange-coloured spot; the thorax is black, with sprinklings of lucid green in the middle; and the abdomen is of a bright yellow or gold-colour. On the under side of the animal the distribution of colours is somewhat different, the green being disposed in central patches on the upper wings, and the lower being marked by more numerous black, as well as orange, spots. It is a very rare insect, and is a native of the island of Amboyna.

18. *Papilio Astryanax*: wings indented, black, both surfaces of the same colour; the upper ones with a striate white band, including a smaller one; lower ones spotted with black. It is found in India.

19. *Papilio Anchises*: wings indented, black, both surfaces alike; lower ones with seven ovate scarlet spots.

20. *Papilio Sarpedon*. This is a highly-elegant species; the wings are of a lengthened shape, and the lower pair are stretched downwards into a pointed process; the whole animal is black, with a broad interrupted sea-green stripe, or band, passing through all the wings; on the lower part is also a border of crescent-shaped green spots.

21. *Papilio Polydamus*: wings indented, black, bronzed with a spotted yellow band; the lower ones with flexuous red lunules beneath. This is found on the *Aristolochia anguicida*.

22. *Papilio Æneas*: wings indented, black; upper pair with a green spot above; lower ones with a red palmate spot. It is found in India.

23. *Papilio Polymnestor*: wings indented, black, both surfaces nearly of the same colour; lower pair bluish towards the tip, and spotted with black and white. Found in divers parts of Asia.

24. *Papilio Panthous*: wings indented, black, both surfaces uniform; upper pair spotted with white; lower ones with white spots, including some black ones. It is found in India.

β. Upper wings clouded; lower ones with yellow spots.

25. *Papilio Pandarus*: wings slightly indented, both surfaces nearly alike, blackish spotted with white; lower pair yellow, with seven black eyes; the pupil blue. It inhabits India.

26. *Papilio Helena*: wings indented, black, both surfaces alike; common disk of the second pair of a brilliant gold-colour. It inhabits Surinam.

27. *Papilio Cressia*: wings indented; upper pair hyaline, with two black spots; lower ones black, with a white spot. It is found in New Holland.

28. *Papilio Harmonia*: wings scalloped, white; both surfaces alike; upper pair with a black spot; under ones with a brown margin and five white dots. It inhabits New Holland.

β. *Equites Achivi*. Greeks.

29. *Papilio Ripheus*: wings with six tail-like processes, black with green bands; lower ones with a large red patch, inclosing two black dots. It inhabits Coromandel.

30. *Papilio Leilus*: wings tailed, both surfaces alike, black with a shining green band, and numerous narrow stripes. This is an American insect.

31. *Papilio Achilles*: wings indented; above black, with a broad blue band; beneath brown, with ocellate spots. A large and beautiful species, from America. Fig. 6. Plate II. is a view of the under part; the caterpillar from which this insect is produced has been represented on the ENTOMOLOGY, Plate I. fig. 13. vol. vi.

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32. *Papilio Menelaus*: wings indented; above highly polished, blue; beneath clouded brown, with ferruginous eyes. This may be considered as one of the most splendidly beautiful of the butterfly tribe. Its size is large, measuring, when expanded, about six inches; and its colour is the most brilliant silver-blue that imagination can conceive, changing, according to the variation of the light, into a deeper blue, and in some lights to a greenish cast: on the other side it is entirely brown, with numerous deeper and lighter undulations, and three large ocellated spots on each wing. It is a native of South America, and proceeds, according to Madame Merian, who has figured it in her work on the Surinam Insects, from a large yellow caterpillar, beset with numerous upright sharp black spines. It changes into an angular chrysalis, of a brown colour, and distinguished by having the proboscis projecting in a semicircular manner over the breast: from this chrysalis, in about fourteen days, proceeds the complete insect, as represented at fig. 7.

33. *Papilio Ulysses*: wings tailed, black, with a blue radiating disk; lower pair with seven ocellate spots beneath. This species is found in Asia.

34. *Papilio Diomedes*: wings tailed, black; the disk unequally radiate with blue; the lower ones with blue lunules. It inhabits India.

35. *Papilio Podalirius*: wings tailed, both surfaces nearly alike, yellowish, with double brown bands and margin; lower ones with five blue ocellate spots, and a reddish line beneath. This is found in our own country, and other parts of Europe. Mr. Donovan has given a representation of it, which we have copied at fig. 8.

36. *Papilio Sinon*: wings tailed, black, with green entire band, stripes, and dots; lower ones with a red line underneath. It is found in India, and is half the size of the *Podalirius*.

37. *Papilio Chiron*: wings tailed, black, barred with brown; underneath white, on the fore part with ferruginous streaks. It inhabits India.

38. *Papilio Melibœus*: wings tailed, brown; upper pair with a red stripe, lower ones with two; beneath shining blue. It inhabits Surinam.

39. *Papilio Homerus*: wings tailed, black, with a yellow band; lower ones yellowish underneath, with seven eyes. It inhabits America.

40. *Papilio Machaon*. This is an insect of great beauty, and may be considered as the only British species of *Papilio*, excepting the *Podalirius*, belonging to the tribe of Equites. It is commonly known among the English collectors by the title of the *swallow-tailed butterfly*; and is of a beautiful yellow, with black spots or patches along the upper edge of the superior wings; all the wings are bordered with a deep edging of black, decorated by a double row of crescent-shaped spots, of which the upper row is blue, and the lower yellow. See fig. 9. The under wings are tailed, and are marked at the inner angle or tip with a broad red spot, bordered with blue and black. The larva, or caterpillar, of this species, feeds principally on fennel, and other umbelliferous plants; and is sometimes found on rue. It is of a green colour, encircled with numerous black bands, spotted with red; and is furnished on the top of the head with a pair of short tentacula of a red colour, which it occasionally protrudes from that part. In the month of July it changes into a yellowish-grey angular chrysalis, affixed to some part of the plant, or other neighbouring substance; and from this chrysalis, in the month of August, proceeds the complete insect. It frequently happens that two broods of this butterfly are produced in the same summer; one in May, having been in the chrysalis state all the winter; the other in August, from the chrysalides of July.

41. *Papilio Theristes*: wings tailed, yellow, with a black border; lower ones with yellow lunules. It is found in America. A specimen is found in Dr. Hunter's museum.

42. *Papilio Ajax*: wings tailed, both surfaces alike, brown

brown with yellow bands; lower ones beneath with red streaks, and fulvous at the angle of the tail. Found in North America.

43. *Papilio Agamemnon*: wings tailed; black spotted with green; lower ones with three rufous lunules beneath. It inhabits Asia.

44. *Papilio Orestes*: wings slightly tailed, above black, beneath yellowish, all of them with a snowy disk and two black bands. It inhabits Africa.

45. *Papilio Pylades*: wings indented, snowy, with a black border dotted with white; angle of the tail with a rufous eye. This also is an African insect.

46. *Papilio Tyndareus*: wings indented, black spotted with green; lower ones varied beneath with green, brown, and red, the base dotted with black.

47. *Papilio Œdipus*: wings very entire, above black, immaculate; beneath brown, with about three eyes on the upper, and five on the lower, ones. It inhabits Russia.

48. *Papilio Phocion*: wings entire, above brown, immaculate; lower ones beneath with yellow streaks, and three oblong eyes. It is preserved in the British Museum.

49. *Papilio Terminus*: wings entire, brown, with a rufous patch; upper pair with a single eye above, lower ones with four. Found in New Holland. A specimen is preserved in the museum of the late sir Joseph Banks, bart. president of the Royal Society, whose recent death the friends of science have great cause to lament.

II. HELICONII. Upper wings oblong; lower ones rounded.

50. *Papilio Horta*: wings entire, red, upper one hyaline at the tip, lower ones beneath whitish dotted with black. This is an inhabitant of Africa.

51. *Papilio Quirina*: wings entire, hyaline; disk of the lower pair fulvous, specked with black. This is found at Madrás. See Plate III. fig. 10.

52. *Papilio Calliope*: wings entire, yellow; upper pair with three black streaks; lower ones with three black bands. It inhabits India.

53. *Papilio Terpicore*: wings entire, fulvous; lower pair dotted with black. It inhabits Asia.

54. *Papilio Polymnia*: wings entire; upper pair with black spots, and tip and yellow band; lower ones with three black bands, the middle one ferrate. This is found in America.

55. *Papilio Hippodamia*: wings entire, upper pair black, with three hyaline bands; the lower ones are likewise hyaline.

56. *Papilio Irene*: upper wings black, with yellow spots, and a fulvous line at the base; lower ones fulvous, edged with black. It inhabits America.

57. *Papilio Sappho*: wings entire, both surfaces alike, black-blue; upper pair with a white band; lower ones edged with white. Inhabits Jamaica.

58. *Papilio Urania*: wings entire, brown, with a white disk; lower ones with two eyes each. This is found in India.

59. *Papilio Thales*: wings nearly entire, and alike on both surfaces, black, with red rays at the base; the upper pair is spotted with yellow. It inhabits Surinam.

60. *Papilio Aspasia*: wings entire, black, with hyaline streaks and spots; lower ones yellow at the base. It inhabits Tranquebar.

61. *Papilio Melpomene*: wings entire, black; upper pair with a red band; lower ones with red dots at the base beneath. It inhabits America.

62. *Papilio Clio*: wings entire, brown; upper pair spotted with white; lower ones with a white band. It inhabits America. This species is represented on the lower part of the engraving of MULLER, vol. xvi. being an inhabitant of that plant.

63. *Papilio Thalia*: wings entire, brown; upper pair spotted with yellow; lower ones striate. It inhabits India.

64. *Papilio Camoena*: wings nearly entire, brown; dotted with black; lower ones with a red band. It inhabits Africa; and is represented at fig. 11. of the annexed Plate.

65. *Papilio Persphone*: wings entire, brown dotted with black; upper pair with a white spot; margin of the lower ones black, immaculate.

66. *Papilio Parrhasia*: wings entire, black; upper pair with a four-cleft fulvous and hyaline spot; lower ones with a fulvous band, beneath yellow with black dots and lines.

67. *Papilio Pasiphae*: wings entire, brown, varied with white, with black spots and margin. It inhabits Guinea.

68. *Papilio Marcia*: wings entire; upper pair brown, immaculate; lower ones yellowish, dotted with black. This, and also the two next, are found in Africa; and specimens are preserved in sir Joseph Banks's museum.

69. *Papilio Cœcilia*: wings white, in the middle dotted with black; margin of the lower ones black; beneath it is dotted with white.

70. *Papilio Euterpe*: wings entire, black, with a fulvous band and white dots. It inhabits America.

71. *Papilio Erato*: wings entire, black; upper pair spotted with yellow and red at the base; lower ones are striate with red. This is found in India.

III. PARNASSII. Wings entire; the upper ones rounded.

72. *Papilio Apollo*: wings entire, white, spotted with black; lower ones with four eyes above and six beneath. This is a native of many parts of Europe, but has not been observed in these islands. It is something larger than the common great cabbage-butterfly. The caterpillar is black, with small red spots, and a pair of short retractile tentacula in front; it feeds on orpine and some other succulent plants, and changes into a brown chrysalis, covered with a kind of violet-coloured powder.

73. *Papilio Phœbus*: wings entire, both surfaces alike, white spotted with black; lower ones with three red spots circled with black. It is found in the wilds of Siberia.

74. *Papilio Mnemosyne*: wings entire, white, with black nerves; upper pair with two black marginal spots. It inhabits Europe.

75. *Papilio Cratægi*: wings entire, white, with black veins. This is sometimes called the *hawthorn-butterfly*, and is well known in this country. It is of the size of the common cabbage-butterfly, and is seen in the months of June and July. See the Plate, fig. 12.

76. *Papilio Andromache*: wings entire, both surfaces alike, dotted with black; the upper pair is dusky and naked; the lower ones yellowish. It is found in New Holland.

77. *Papilio Mandane*: wings oblong, entire; the upper pair is hyaline, with black veins; the lower ones black, with a white band. It inhabits Africa.

78. *Papilio Piera*: this species has semi-transparent wings, the lower pair marked with two ocellated spots. See fig. 13. It is a native of South America.

79. *Papilio Nereis*: wings scalloped, brown; lower ones with a snowy band; the disk is fulvous, with two black eyes. It inhabits America.

80. *Papilio Andromeda*: wings hyaline, white; lower ones red at the tip, with a single eye in each. It is found in India. See fig. 14.

81. *Papilio Diaphanus*: wings entire, hyaline, white; the margins brown. It inhabits Jamaica. See fig. 15.

IV. DANAI. *a. candidi*; wings mostly white.

82. *Papilio brassicae*: wings rounded, entire, white; the tips of the upper pair brown; and, in the male, there are two black spots in the middle of each wing. This, which is shown at fig. 16, is the common large white butterfly known in our gardens; it proceeds from a yellowish caterpillar freckled with bluish and black spots, and which changes during autumn into a yellowish-grey chrysalis, affixed

affixed in a perpendicular direction to some wall, tree, or other object, some filaments being drawn across the thorax, in order the more conveniently to secure its position. The fly appears early in the spring, and is seen almost through the summer.

83. *Papilio rapæ*: wings entire, white; upper pair tipped with brown; male with a brown spot on each; female with three brown spots on the upper, and one on the lower, pair. This is common in our own country. See fig. 17.

84. *Papilio Castalia*: wings entire, white; above immaculate, beneath yellowish at the base. A native of India.

85. *Papilio Sylvia*: wings entire, white; tip of the upper pair brown, with a fulvous spot beneath. Inhabits Sierra Leone. A specimen is in Sir Joseph Banks's museum.

86. *Papilio Argante*: wings entire, fulvous; beneath speckled with ferruginous. It inhabits Brasil.

87. *Papilio Argia*: wings entire, white; upper pair black at the tip. It inhabits Sierra Leone.

88. *Papilio Nephte*: wings scalloped, white; upper pair edged with black. This is shown at fig. 18. It inhabits China.

89. *Papilio Amathonte*: wings rounded, white tipped with black; margin of the upper pair beneath nut-brown. Inhabits America.

90. *Papilio Phileta*: wings entire, grey; upper pair above white, tipped with brown. It is a native of America.

91. *Papilio Libythea*: wings entire, white; upper pair brown at the base of the rib, and at the tip. Found in India.

92. *Papilio Calypso*: wings entire, upper pair with a black dot and tip; lower ones beneath yellowish, the margin dotted with black. This is a native of Sierra Leone.

93. *Papilio Daplidice*: wings entire, white, with a brown margin, beneath marked with yellowish-white and green. It inhabits Europe and Africa, and is common here.

94. *Papilio Cneora*: wings entire, white; the margin black, with a streak of dots. It inhabits India.

95. *Papilio Nerissa*: wings entire, white, with a black margin; beneath with black veins. It is a native of China.

96. *Papilio Demophile*: wings white, with two brown bands and margin; lower ones beneath flesh-colour. It inhabits India.

97. *Papilio Vanessa*: wings entire, white; upper pair with a brown exterior margin and black dot; lower ones with brown streaks. It inhabits America.

98. *Papilio Hecabe*: wings entire, yellow; the outer margin black; beneath dotted with brown. A native of India.

99. *Papilio Agave*: wings entire, yellow; tip of the upper pair above black; beneath chestnut-brown. It is found at Cayenne.

100. *Papilio Cardamines*: wings entire, white; upper pair of the male, with a large bright orange patch, including two black; the lower ones beneath marbled with green; the female is without the orange tip. See fig. 19.

101. *Papilio Dorothea*: wings entire, white; upper pair black at the tip; lower ones beneath with yellow bands, speckled with black.

102. *Papilio Nina*: wings entire, white; upper pair with a black spot and tip; lower ones beneath speckled with green. This is an Indian insect.

103. *Papilio Nyfa*: wings entire, white; the lower ones beneath brown, with a white dot and six yellow lunules. It is a native of New Holland.

104. *Papilio Muta*: wings entire, white; lower ones with a black dot in the middle; beneath yellow, with two black dots. It is found in many parts of India.

105. *Papilio Chloris*: wings entire, white, tipped with black; lower ones beneath fulvous with a broad black margin. This is an African insect.

106. *Papilio Rhodope*: wings entire, white, both surfaces nearly alike; upper pair yellow; lower ones white; all black on the outer margin. It is found in Sierra Leone.

107. *Papilio Leucippe*: wings entire; upper pair red, edged with black; lower ones yellow. It is a native of Amboyna.

108. *Papilio Glaucippe*: wings entire, white; upper pair tipped with black; lower ones beneath cinereous, with brown waves. It is found in Asia.

109. *Papilio Eudoxia*: wings entire, white, edged with black; beneath fulvous at the base and spotted with black at the margin. This is found in Sierra Leone.

110. *Papilio Danaë*: wings white; upper pair saffron at the tip, with a black band and margin; beneath with an abbreviated moniliform streak.

111. *Papilio Enippe*: wings yellow; underneath they have a yellow ocellar brown dot; on the upper pair six, on the lower ones seven. It inhabits China.

112. *Papilio Evippe*: wings entire, yellowish; upper pair tipped with black; lower ones white beneath. It is found in Asia.

113. *Papilio Charmione*: wings entire, both surfaces alike, white with a black border; which on the upper wings has two yellow spots, and one on the lower. A native of Johanna island.

114. *Papilio Phronima*: wings entire, white; base of the rib and tip black; lower ones beneath yellowish, with two darker bands. This and the next are natives of America.

115. *Papilio Psamathe*: wings entire, white; tip of the upper pair black spotted with white; lower ones beneath greenish with two darker bands, the foremost incurved.

116. *Papilio Hyale*: wings entire, yellow, the tip black, spotted with white; lower ones with a fulvous spot, a silvery dot, with a smaller contiguous one beneath. In the male, the margin of the wings is immaculate; in the female it is spotted.

117. *Papilio Nicippe*: wings entire, fulvous tipped with brown; upper pair with a black lunule on each side; the lower ones beneath speckled with red. This is found in Virginia.

118. *Papilio Eubule*: wings entire, yellow, the margin dotted with black; the lower ones beneath with a double silvery ferruginous dot. A native of Carolina.

119. *Papilio Rhamni*: wings entire, angular, yellow; each with a dot in the middle. A handsome insect; an inhabitant of Europe; shown at fig. 20.

β. Danai feliivi; wings variegated.

120. *Papilio Cypris*: wings entire, black, with two white bands; those of the upper pair oblique, of the lower ones punctate. It inhabits America.

121. *Papilio Diocletianus*: wings entire, black; upper pair with an interrupted white band; lower ones with white lines at the base, and a double row of dots at the tip. A native of the East Indies.

122. *Papilio Claudius*: wings entire, black; upper pair with a blue gloss, and dotted with white; lower ones with white lines. It inhabits Tranquebar.

123. *Papilio Damocles*: wings entire; upper pair black; lower ones brown with a white disk. It inhabits Asia and Africa.

124. *Papilio Radamanthus*: wings entire, black, with a blue gloss; upper pair with a marginal white spot; the lower ones with a white spot and four lines. It is a native of Asia.

125. *Papilio Zoilus*: wings entire, black; upper pair with three white spots, lower ones with a white disk. It is a native of New Holland.

126. *Papilio Syphax*. In this the wings are entire and black; the upper pair has a white band, the lower ones a marginal red one.

127. *Papilio Evalthe*: wings entire, black; upper pair with two yellow bands; the lower ones are marked with a yellow

a yellow band and red spots, beneath red with a yellowish macular band. It is a native of India.

128. *Papilio Phalaris*: wings entire and brown; the lower pair with two macular white streaks.

129. *Papilio Galanthis*: wings entire; above black, with fangineous bands; upper pair with two white dots at the tip.

130. *Papilio Hesperus*: wings scalloped, brown with black waves; upper pair with white dots.

131. *Papilio Archippus*: wings scalloped, fulvous, with black veins, the margin black, dotted with white; upper pair with fulvous spots at the tip. It is a native of America.

132. *Papilio Plexippus*: wings entire, fulvous, with dilated black veins; the margin black, with white dots; upper pair with a white band at the tip. It inhabits America.

133. *Papilio Eriippus*: wings entire, dull testaceous, the edge black dotted with white; disk of the lower ones immaculate, beneath with black veins and white dots. A native of China.

134. *Papilio Mifippus*. The wings of this are scalloped, and fulvous; the edge black, dotted with white; lower ones with a black curve. Found in America.

135. *Papilio Chrysippus*: wings entire, fulvous; the margin black, dotted with white; disk of the lower ones white, with black dots. See fig. 21.

136. *Papilio Alcippus*: wings entire, fulvous; the margin black, dotted with white; disk of the lower ones white, with black dots. Native of America.

137. *Papilio Diocippus*: wings scalloped, fulvous, with a common black border dotted with white; lower ones beneath with three black dots, and a streak of white ones behind. It inhabits India.

138. *Papilio Gilippus*: wings entire, both surfaces alike, fulvous spotted with white; the margin black, with white dots. It inhabits America.

139. *Papilio Hegefippus*: wings entire, both surfaces alike, black spotted with white; base of the upper pair fulvous, of the lower ones with white lines.

140. *Papilio Darius*. The wings are entire, brown; upper pair spotted with white, lower ones with a black curve beneath. It inhabits Brasil.

141. *Papilio Codomannus*. The wings entire, black, with red bands; lower ones beneath with angular yellow lines and blue dots. It inhabits Brasil.

142. *Papilio Hydaspes*: wings entire, brown, with a blue gloss; lower ones beneath yellow, with annular black lines, and three blue dots. A native of Brasil. A specimen is preserved in sir Joseph Banks's museum.

143. *Papilio Jaius*: wings entire, brown; disk of the lower ones white, with a blue eye above, and two beneath. A native of India.

144. *Papilio Orion*: wings scalloped; upper pair falcate, rufous; the tip black, with a marginal white spot. Found at Surinam.

145. *Papilio Cocytus*: wings falcate; above black, the hind margin cinereous. It inhabits Siam; and a specimen is in sir Joseph Banks's museum.

146. *Papilio Odin*: wings entire, dusky, with a single angle; lower ones beneath with a pair of black sub-ocellate dots on each side. It inhabits China.

147. *Papilio Dido*: wings indented, oblong, black, spotted with green; lower ones with a bluish band, and seven transverse spots. It is a native of America.

148. *Papilio Eurinome*: wings indented, black spotted with white; lower ones white at the base. It inhabits India: so also do the two following.

149. *Papilio Philomela*: wings scalloped, black spotted with white; lower ones radiate, with yellow at the base.

150. *Papilio Lais*: wings indented, black, with bluish stripes, beneath brown. Found in India.

151. *Papilio Enothrea*: wings indented, black, with a green disk; beneath black, with a white costal dot. It inhabits Sierra Leone.

152. *Papilio Hippias*: wings scalloped, greenish-white, with black border and veins.

153. *Papilio Panope*: wings indented, brown, both surfaces alike, the outer margin spotted with white; angle of the tail fulvous. This and the next are natives of India.

154. *Papilio Jacintha*: wings scalloped, toothed, brown; upper pair with a streak of white dots, lower ones white at the tip.

155. *Papilio Juno*: wings angular, indented, oblong, fulvous, with a black border; lower ones beneath black, with fulvous and silvery spots. Found at Surinam.

V. NYMPHALES. Wings denticulate; the lower ones forming a groove for the reception of the abdomen.

156. *Papilio Jafius*: wings two-tailed, brown, yellowish behind; beneath with a white band. Found in different parts of Africa.

157. *Papilio Pyrrhus*: wings tailed, brown, with a common white band, reaching half-way on the upper pair. It is a native of India.

158. *Papilio Camillus*: wings two-tailed, white, with fulvous bands edged with black; lower ones with a black caudal spot. It is found in Africa, and is in sir Joseph Banks's museum.

159. *Papilio Sempronius*: wings two-tailed, white, the margin black, dotted with white.

160. *Papilio Tiridates*: wings indented, two-tailed, above black spotted with blue; the margin is dotted with white. It inhabits Amboyna.

161. *Papilio Castor*: wings indented, two-tailed, fulvous edged with black; beneath with a white band and white spots, including a black one. This and the next are found in Guinea.

162. *Papilio Pollux*: wings indented, two-tailed, brown with a yellow band; beneath with a white band and spots, including a black one.

163. *Papilio Fabius*: wings indented, two-tailed, brown with yellow bands; the base beneath with black waves; the tip with fulvous dots. It inhabits India, and is in the museum of sir Joseph Banks.

164. *Papilio Miltiades*: wings tailed, brown; lower ones with a white spot, all beneath with a white band and single eye.

165. *Papilio Varanes*: wings tailed, above brown with fulvous and black spots; the base is white. It is an Indian insect.

166. *Papilio Themistocles*: wings tailed, chestnut-brown with brown bands; lower ones with black dots.

167. *Papilio Perianther*: wings tailed, both surfaces alike, white with yellow bands; the tip brown, streaked with white. It is a native of India, and is in the collection of sir Joseph Banks.

168. *Papilio Lycurgus*: wings tailed, black with blue marginal lunules; behind these are five white dots on the lower ones. It is a native of Africa.

169. *Papilio Decius*: wings tailed, with a common white band; lower ones rufous at the tip, with two eyes and two white dots. It is found in Guinea.

170. *Papilio Sabinus*: wings tailed, brown, with a fulvous band; beneath grey, with a white band and ocellar dots. It inhabits Amboyna.

171. *Papilio Palamedes*: wings tailed, black, with yellow marginal lunules; upper pair with a yellow band; lower ones with a macular rufous band. It is found in America; and is in the collection of Dr. Hunter.

172. *Papilio Orontes*: wings tailed, black, with two greenish bands; the tail is white and distant. It is a native of India, as is also the next.

173. *Papilio Ægistus*: wings tailed, undulate with brown and yellow, and about three caudal eyes.

174. *Papilio Solon*: wings tailed, black, with yellowish bands, brown at the base.

175. *Papilio Empedocles*: wings tailed, brown; upper pair with an abbreviated macular green band; lower ones beneath

beneath with two black spots, and a rufous lunule at the angle of the tail. It is a native of India, and in the collection of sir Joseph Banks.

176. *Papilio Euryalus*: wings tailed, black; lower ones blue before the margin, with black spots, including a white pupil. It inhabits Amboyna, as does the next.

177. *Papilio Nifus*: wings tailed, black; upper pair with a fulvous band; lower pair with a submarginal white one.

178. *Papilio Laertes*: wings tailed, brown, blue at the base; lower ones above with five white dots, beneath with four ocellar dots. Found in Surinam.

179. *Papilio Erithronius*: wings indented, black; lower ones with a blue band; beneath green, with a streak of white dots. It inhabits Africa; and is in the museum of Dr. Hunter.

180. *Papilio Ceres*: wings indented, black; upper pair with a white band; disk of the lower ones bluish, with a black dot. It inhabits Sierra Leone.

181. *Papilio Cato*: wings indented, black, with a common greenish disk beneath, dotted with black, and a rufous spot at the base of the lower ones. It inhabits Sierra Leone.

182. *Papilio Philoctetes*: wings indented, brown; lower ones with two eyes, the pupil black, and three white dots. It is found in India, as is the next.

183. *Papilio Lucretius*: wings indented, black, with fulvous bands; beneath with black spots, surrounded with a blue line. Found in Guinea.

184. *Papilio Demophon*: wings indented, above black, with a green band; beneath grey, streaked with white. Inhabits Cayenne. See Plate IV. fig. 22.

185. *Papilio Nestor*: wings indented, brown, with a bright blue common disk, and white spots; beneath with three or four eyes. This species inhabits America.

186. *Papilio Telemachus*: wings indented, brown, with a common blue radiate area, each with eyes beneath. A native of America. See fig. 23.

187. *Papilio Teucer*: wings scalloped, livid brown; beneath clouded, and on the lower ones three eyes, the last very large.

188. *Papilio Automedon*: wings angular, scalloped, brown; beneath livid, with an eye at the angle of the tail. Inhabits Surinam.

189. *Papilio Io*, the peacock-butterfly; so called on account of its great beauty. It is rather a common species in this country. The wings are angular, indented, fulvous, spotted with black, and on each there is a large blue eye. "The ground colour of this insect," says Dr. Shaw, "is orange-brown, with black bars, separated by yellow intermediate spaces, on the upper edge of the superior wings; while at the tip of each is a most beautiful large eye-shaped spot, formed by a combination of black, brown, and blue, with the addition of whitish specks; on each of the lower wings is a still larger eye-shaped spot, consisting of a black central patch, varied with blue, and surrounded by a zone of pale-brown, which is itself deeply bordered with black. The caterpillar is black, with numerous white spots, and black ramified spines: it feeds principally on the nettle, changing to a chrysalis in July, and the fly appearing in August." See fig. 24.

190. *Papilio Almanax*: wings angular, fulvous, spotted with black; lower ones with a larger eye, and a double pupil; all nut-brown beneath. It inhabits Asia. See fig. 25.

191. *Papilio Oenone*: wings denticulate, yellow, edged with black; lower ones blue at the base. This is an Asiatic insect. Fig. 26.

192. *Papilio Ægeria*: wings indented, brown spotted with yellow, upper pair with an eye on each side; lower ones with four eyes above, and dots beneath. This belongs to England, and is described in Lewin's Butterflies. See fig. 27.

193. *Papilio Minerva*: wings indented, fulvous, the tip black, spotted with white; lower ones with five blind

eyes above, and seven pupillate ones beneath. It is a native of America.

194. *Papilio Ocirrhe*: wings indented; above white tipped with brown, beneath brown with two white bands; lower ones with five eyes. A native of Surinam.

195. *Papilio Penelope*: wings slightly indented, brown, with a single eye; lower ones with two beneath. It is found in Surinam.

196. *Papilio Aranea*: wings slightly indented, brown; lower ones bluish, with five eyes beneath. This is found in Surinam.

197. *Papilio Merope*: wings indented, fulvous, with a single eye, and black tip; lower ones beneath cinereous, with three minute eyes. It inhabits New Holland: a specimen of it is in the museum of sir Joseph Banks.

198. *Papilio Artemisia*: wings indented, black; upper pair with white spots, lower ones with white bands, and two silvery eyes beneath. It inhabits America.

199. *Papilio Ianthé*: wings indented, above brown slightly barred with white, lower ones with five blind eyes. It inhabits Cayenne.

200. *Papilio Huntera*: wings subangular, fulvous varied with white and black; lower ones beneath reticulate with white, and with two eyes.

201. *Papilio Blomfieldia*: wings indented, yellow, tipped with black; lower ones beneath brown, waved with white, with four eyes, the middle ones blind. It inhabits Brazil. Specimens of this and the two next are in the museum of sir Joseph Banks.

202. *Papilio Bankia*: wings angular, above brown; disk of the upper pair yellowish, with a black eye, in which is a double pupil. It inhabits New Holland.

203. *Papilio Solandra*, wings angular, brown; upper pair with an eye, and also a contiguous one that is smaller; lower ones with two above and four beneath. It inhabits Otaheite.

204. *Papilio Leda*: wings angular, brown, upper pair with a double eye above, beneath reticulate with grey, and six eyes on the lower ones. It inhabits Sierra Leone.

205. *Papilio Lena*: wings slightly indented, brown; lower ones black behind, with white and blue dots, and eyes beneath. There is a variety with brown hyaline wings, the lower ones with five ocellar white spots. It is found at Cayenne.

206. *Papilio Luna*: wings indented, brown, with darker streaks; lower ones with two eyes, and they all have underneath four white dots.

207. *Papilio Iris*: wings indented, brown, with a blue gloss, and whitish interrupted band on each side; all with a single eye, those on the upper pair above blind. This is described and figured by Donovan and Lewin. See fig. 28.

208. *Papilio Chrysippe*: wings indented, black, with a common rufous patch; lower ones beneath brown, spotted with black. This is a native of New Holland, and is preserved in sir Joseph Banks's collection.

209. *Papilio Cidippe*: wings indented, black, with white spots, and a common rufous patch; the base beneath is testaceous, varied with black and blue. A native of India.

210. *Papilio Penthesilea*: wings indented, black, with white spots, and a common rufous patch; lower ones beneath with yellow bands, and a white one spotted with black. It is a native of India.

211. *Papilio Berenice*: wings indented, black, with a common red band; lower ones beneath spotted with black, white, ferruginous, and yellow. Inhabits Sierra Leone.

212. *Papilio Atalanta*: wings indented, black; upper pair with a red band and white spots, the lower ones bordered with red behind. This, as the *admirable butterfly*, has been described and figured by Donovan, Lewin, and Dr. Shaw; the latter says "it is of the most intense velvet-black colour, with a rich carmine-coloured bar across

the upper wings, which are spotted towards the tips with white; while the lower wings are black, with a deep border of carmine colour, marked by a row of small black spots; the under surface of the wings also presents a most beautiful mixture of colours; the caterpillar is brown and spiny, feeds on nettles, and changes into a chrysalis in July, the fly appearing in August." See fig. 29.

213. *Papilio Urticæ*: wings angular, fulvous spotted with black; upper pair with three black dots, the inner one square. It inhabits this country, and has been described and figured by Donovan and Lewin. The larva is spinous, varied with brown and green, head black; pupa toothed, brown with gold dots. This insect and many others of the same genus, as the *Atalanta*, *Polychloris*, *Io*, &c. soon after their enlargement from the chrysalis state, discharge a few drops of reddish-coloured fluid, which, in places where they have appeared in large numbers, has had the appearance of a shower of blood, and, having of course been greatly magnified, the fact has been recorded by writers as a prodigy ominous of some extraordinary event. See fig. 30.

214. *Papilio Clytemnestra*: wings angular, black; beneath spotted with white; upper pair with a yellow band on each side. Inhabits Surinam.

215. *Papilio Dirce*: wings angular, brown; upper pair with a yellowish band, beneath undulate with black. Found in various parts of India, as is the next species.

216. *Papilio Iſis*: wings indented; upper pair black, with a red spot on the disk; all of them with green lines beneath.

217. *Papilio Progne*: wings indented, fulvous, with black dots and margin, the latter dotted with white; beneath grey. Found in South America.

218. *Papilio Ariadne*: wings angular, fulvous, with undulate black streaks; upper pair with a white marginal dot. Found in the island of Java.

219. *Papilio Clytia*: wings indented, black; outer margin of the upper pair spotted with white; lower ones with a triple row of white and yellow spots. This and the next are natives of India.

220. *Papilio Cocytia*: wings scalloped, indented, brown; lower ones bluish at the tip. It inhabits India.

221. *Papilio Meleagris*: wings slightly indented, dotted with white, above brown, beneath yellowish. It inhabits Africa.

222. *Papilio Melantha*: wings indented, above brown dotted with white, beneath pale chestnut. It inhabits Guinea. A specimen is to be seen in Sir J. Banks's museum.

223. *Papilio Leucothoe*: wings indented, above brown, with three white bands; beneath yellow, with three white bands marked with black. It is found in divers parts of Asia.

224. *Papilio Medea*: wings indented, falcate, black, with three macular yellow bands; angle at the tail red. A native of Surinam.

225. *Papilio Blandina*: wings indented, above brown, beneath yellow, with two blue streaks and dots marked with black on the lower ones. This and the next are found in Sierra Leone.

226. *Papilio Hostilia*: wings indented, brown; the base fulvous dotted with black; upper pair spotted with yellow at the tip.

227. *Papilio Nauplia*: wings slightly indented, both surfaces nearly alike, black; upper pair with four white spots above, lower ones with a white band. It inhabits South America.

228. *Papilio Amphione*: wings indented, black clouded with blue; upper pair with a white band on each side; lower ones beneath radiate with red. It inhabits South America.

229. *Papilio Alcmena*: wings indented, black, with an interrupted blue band, each with seven white marginal dots.

230. *Papilio Agatha*: wings indented, above fulvous, beneath glaucous, lower ones with one black dot above, and three beneath.

231. *Papilio Laura*: wings angular, indented, brown, with a common band, which is fulvous on the upper half, and snowy on the lower; lower ones beneath silvery with a snowy band. It inhabits Jamaica.

232. *Papilio Lydia*: wings indented, yellow, black above the margin; beneath with a streak of black dots. It inhabits Surinam.

233. *Papilio Iphicla*: wings indented, above brown, with a common white ferruginous spot at the angle of the tail. Found in South America.

234. *Papilio Veronica*: wings indented, above greenish, beneath ferruginous, with a paler band. It is found in Guinea.

235. *Papilio Nærea*: wings indented, above brown, spotted with white beneath, with white spots surrounded with a red line. There is a variety of this species, wings slightly tailed, black; upper pair with two red spots, disk of the lower ones edged with red. Natives of India.

236. *Papilio Procris*: wings indented, fulvous, with black spots and a white band, beneath variegated. Inhabits China.

237. *Papilio Erymanthis*: wings indented, fulvous; upper pair black at the tip, with a yellow band; lower ones with black lunules above, and a streak of ocellate dots beneath. Inhabits China.

238. *Papilio Celtis*: wings angular, indented, brown, with fulvous spots, and a single white one; lower ones beneath grey. Found in southern Europe, on the leaves of the *Celtis Australis*, or European nettle-tree. Three different sizes and ages of the caterpillar are noticed and figured by Fuesly. At every change their colours alter. Passing to the chrysalis state, they hang themselves perpendicularly from a leaf; in this state they were first green, afterwards darker, which announced the approaching birth of the butterfly: the wings, within an hour of their coming forth, acquired all their firmness.

239. *Papilio Melissa*: wings indented, brown; lower ones beneath marbled with grey. It is found in America.

240. *Papilio Paphia*. This is an highly-elegant insect, of a fine orange-chestnut colour above, with numerous black spots and bars, beneath greenish, with narrow silvery undulations on the lower wings, and black spots on the upper. It proceeds from a yellowish-brown spiny caterpillar, living principally on nettles. This insect is generally found in the neighbourhood of woods. See fig. 31.

241. *Papilio Cytheræa*: wings crenate, brown; upper pair with a fulvous band; lower ones with a common silvery one; beneath with a lanceolate silvery band. It is found in India.

242. *Papilio Aglaia*: wings indented, fulvous, spotted with black; beneath it has twenty-one silvery spots. This is found in England and other parts of Europe.

243. *Papilio Cybele*: wings indented, fulvous, spotted with black; beneath thirty-four silvery spots.

244. *Papilio Idalia*: wings indented, fulvous, spotted with black; beneath with thirty-seven silvery spots.

245. *Papilio Diana*: wings indented, brown, with a common black disk; lower ones beneath with nine silvery spots.

246. *Papilio Adippe*: wings indented, fulvous, spotted with black; beneath (in the female only) there are twenty-eight silvery spots. This is an English insect; and has been called the *great pearl-butterfly*, but Fuesly ascertained that the female only can claim that name: "Large veins spread upon the upper surface of the upper wings, and the want of a line of silvery spots at the lower part of the under wings," are the peculiar characters of the male. When the worm or caterpillar has attained the full size, it passes into chrysalis state. It has been generally called the *violet-worm*, but it is now said to inhabit

only the pansy, *Viola tricolor*. It weaves a covering for itself, and remains suspended by the tail; but it previously winds some threads round its own body, probably to keep off flies and the ichneumon-insect, which are its enemies. De Geer has omitted to notice this circumstance. The butterfly appears in its perfect state at the end of a fortnight. Finally, from whom the above particulars are taken, begins his "Archives upon the History of Insects" with a Dissertation upon this species. It was long supposed to be a variety of the *P. Aglaia*.

247. *Papilio Euphrosyne*: wings indented, pale, fulvous spotted with black; beneath with nine silvery spots.

248. *Papilio Selene*: wings indented, fulvous, spotted with black; lower ones beneath, with twelve silvery spots; a distinct black dot at the base and streak behind. This is found at Kiel.

249. *Papilio vanillæ*: wings indented, yellow spotted with black; thirty silvery spots beneath. Inhabits America, chiefly on the plant called *Epidendrum vanilla*, whence the name. This butterfly is shown in its perfect state on the ENTOMOLOGY, Plate I. fig. 6. vol. vi. two of its fecundated eggs are shown magnified at fig. 9. and at fig. 11. Plate II. is represented the caterpillar of the same.

250. *Papilio Sophoræ*: wings entire, brown, with a ferruginous band; lower ones beneath chestnut-brown, with two eyes. It inhabits America; and is represented on the upper part of the engraving of MULLER, vol. xvi.

VI. PLEBEII, or Common People. *a. rurales*, of the country.

251. *Papilio Cupido*: lower wings six-toothed; tailed; beneath whitish, with silvery spots. It inhabits America.

252. *Papilio Cnidus*: wings six-toothed, tailed, white, with a black border; lower ones with silvery spots beneath. A native of Surinam.

253. *Papilio Pythagoras*: wings three-tailed, with a yellow border; beneath black, varied with white, and a white band in the middle. It inhabits India.

254. *Papilio Amor*: wings three-tailed, brown, the disk beneath variegated, and a golden streak behind on the lower ones. It inhabits India.

255. *Papilio Hesioidus*: wings three-tailed, black with a blue disk, beneath white, with a common greenish streak, and two silvery dots at the angle of the tail. It is found in India.

256. *Papilio Timon*: wings three-tailed, greenish at the base; beneath white, with an abbreviated red band on the lower ones. It inhabits America; a specimen is in Dr. Hunter's museum.

257. *Papilio Faunus*: wings three-tailed, brown, beneath white, with two fulvous streaks. It inhabits Africa.

258. *Papilio Hymen*: wings three-tailed, brown, spotted with white beneath; upper pair white above. It inhabits Africa; and is to be seen in Sir Joseph Banks's museum.

259. *Papilio Pindarus*: wings nearly three-tailed, blue with a black border; beneath brown, with silvery and fulvous spots. Inhabits India.

260. *Papilio Pelion*: wings nearly three-tailed, blue with gold dots and a brown border. It inhabits America.

261. *Papilio Vulcanus*: wings two-tailed, above brown, with fulvous spots; beneath variegated with fulvous, yellow, and silvery streaks. It is a native of India.

262. *Papilio Ganymedes*: wings two-tailed, bluish, with a brown border; beneath greenish, at the base with gold dots. It inhabits India.

263. *Papilio Mars*: wings two-tailed, brown; lower ones with a rufous spot and two white dots, and an oblique band beneath. A native of America.

264. *Papilio Iocastes*: wings two-tailed, brown, two approximate waved darker streaks, and a double black spot at the angle of the tail. This and the two following are found in India.

265. *Papilio Atys*: wings two-tailed, brown with a blue disk; beneath cinereous with brown veins, the base with a fulvous spot, and white dots.

266. *Papilio Sophocles*: wings two-tailed, black, with a common blue disk; beneath white, with waved yellowish streaks, the lower ones with a fulvous dot at the tip.

267. *Papilio Euripides*: wings two-tailed, with a blue disk; beneath brown, with an abbreviated white streak on the upper pair, and two angular rufous streaks and marginal ocellar spots on the lower ones.

268. *Papilio Anacreon*: wings two-tailed, brown; beneath waved with white, and a macular fulvous streak behind. This and the next species are natives of India.

269. *Papilio Thales*: wings two-tailed, black, with blue lunules beneath, lower ones beneath with an abbreviated sub-marginal gold band.

270. *Papilio Endymion*: wings two-tailed; beneath green, with rufous and gold specks; lower ones with a black streak and red band.

271. *Papilio Venus*: wings two-tailed; lower surface of the upper pair green, speckled with gold; of the lower ones gold, spotted with green and black. There is a variety of this species, of which the wings are three-tailed, bluish, tipped with black; beneath golden, speckled with black.

272. *Papilio Sphinx*: wings two-tailed, bluish; beneath cinereous, with a double black spot at the angle of the tail. This and the next are natives of India.

273. *Papilio Melibœus*: wings two-tailed, bluish, with a brown border; beneath yellowish, with brown streaks on the upper pair, and black ones on the lower; angle of the tail black, with blue rings.

274. *Papilio Mæcenæ*: wings two-tailed, black, with a blue disk beneath, with chestnut-brown clouds. It inhabits China.

275. *Papilio Tyrtæus*: wings two-tailed, brown; lower ones beneath with a waved white streak, and black marginal lunules, the middle ones rufous. This and the next are natives of India.

276. *Papilio Xenophon*: wings two-tailed, brown, with a yellow disk; beneath cinereous, with a white streak in the middle, joined to a brown one.

277. *Papilio Marfyas*. A very beautiful exotic species, a native of India, and of a most exquisite lucid blue colour, edged with black, and farther ornamented by having each of the lower wings tipped with two narrow black tail-shaped processes. This is represented at fig. 32.

278. *Papilio Phorbas*: wings tailed, brown, with a white disk; beneath white, with cinereous streaks, and two black dots at the angle of the tail. It inhabits India.

279. *Papilio betulæ*: wings slightly tailed, brown; beneath yellowish, with two white streaks on the lower ones. See fig. 33.

280. *Papilio pruni*: wings slightly tailed; above brown, with a red spot at the tip of the lower ones; lower wings beneath, with a fulvous marginal band dotted with black. This and the last species are found in this country.

281. *Papilio spini*: wings tailed, brown; beneath cinereous, with fulvous marginal lunules, and a bluish spot near the tail. It is found in Germany, on the *Prunus spinosa*, hence its specific name.

282. *Papilio quercus*: wings slightly tailed, bluish, edged white; beneath cinereous. A native of England, and other parts of Europe. Fig. 34.

283. *Papilio cerasi*: wings tailed, brown, immaculate; beneath a white streak, and fulvous lunules marked with a black dot on the lower ones. Inhabits Austria.

284. *Papilio acaciæ*: wings tailed, brown; beneath bluish; with a white streak, and fulvous lunules near the tail. This is a Russian insect.

285. *Papilio fedi*: wings tailed, blue, the margin spotted with white; beneath white, with square black spots and a rufous band. Inhabits Germany.

286. *Papilio rubi*: wings slightly tailed; above brown; beneath

beneath green. This is found in our own country, and other parts of Europe.

β. Plebeii urticae; of or near towns.

287. *Papilio exclamatoris*: wings entire, divaricate, brown; upper pair with a yellowish line, and dots under it. Inhabits India.

288. *Papilio comma*: wings entire, divaricate, fulvous with a black line on the upper pair; beneath spotted with white. This is found in England.

289. *Papilio linea*: wings entire, divaricate, fulvous, edged with black. It inhabits Austria.

290. *Papilio colon*: wings divaricate, fulvous, with a brown striate margin and spot in the middle. It inhabits India.

291. *Papilio bixæ*: wings rounded, brown, greenish at the base; lower ones beneath with a yellow band. It inhabits America.

292. *Papilio melvæ*: wings indented, divaricate, brown, with cinereous waves; upper pair with hyaline dots; lower ones with white dots beneath. Inhabits this country. Fig. 35.

293. *Papilio fritillum*: wings entire, divaricate, black, dotted with white. It inhabits Europe.

294. *Papilio vibrius*: wings entire, black; upper pair with three white dots; lower ones tipped with white. Inhabits Surinam.

295. *Papilio pygmaeus*: wings entire, brown, immaculate.

The method of preserving butterflies, for forming a cabinet, has been shown under the article ENTOMOLOGY, vol. vi. p. 844. but, where the very large species are the objects of attention, it will not be amiss to advert to the directions given under NATURAL HISTORY, vol. xvi. p. 602. We shall conclude this article with extracting, from Edwards's Hist. of Birds, vol. ii. a method of taking impressions from butterflies, so as to form a picture.

"Take butterflies, or field-moths, either those caught abroad, or such as are taken in caterpillars and nursed in the house till they be flies; clip off their wings very close to their bodies, and lay them on clean paper, in the form of a butterfly when flying; then have ready prepared gum arabic that hath been some time dissolved in water, and is pretty thick; if you put a drop of ox-gall into a spoonful of this, it will be better for the use; temper them well with your finger, and spread a little of it on a piece of thin white paper, big enough to take both sides of your fly. When it begins to be clammy under your finger, the paper is in proper order to take the feathers from the wings of the fly. Then lay the gummed side on the wings, and it will take them up. Then double your paper so as to have all the wings between the paper. Then lay it on a table, pressing it close with your fingers; and you may rub it gently with some smooth hard thing. Then open the paper and take out the wings, which will come forth transparent: the down of the upper and under side of the wings sticking to the gummed paper, form a just likeness of both sides of the wings in their natural shapes and colours. The nicety of taking off flies depends on a just degree of moisture of the gummed paper: for, if it be too wet, all will be blotted and confused; and, if too dry, your paper will stick so fast together, that it will be torn in separation. When you have opened your gummed papers, and they are dry, you must draw the bodies from the natural ones, and paint them in water-colours: you must take paper that will bear ink very well for this use; for sinking-paper will separate with the rest, and spoil all."

PAPILIONACEOUS, *adj.* [from *papilio*, Lat.]—The flowers of some plants are called *papilionaceous* by botanists, which represent something of the figure of a butterfly, with its wings displayed; and here the petala, or flower-leaves, are always of a difform figure: they are four in number, but joined together at the extremities; one of these is usually larger than the rest, and is erected

in the middle of the flower, and by some called *vexillum* : the plants that have this flower are of the leguminous kind; as pease, vetches, &c. *Quincy*.—All leguminous plants are, as the learned say, *papilionaceous*, or bear butterflyed flowers. *Harte*.

PAPIL'LA, *f.* [Latin.] The nipple.

PAPIL'LAE, *f. plu.* The nipples of the breasts; the dugs of beasts; little protuberances on the tongue; glandules on several parts of the body, so called on account of their resemblance to a pap or nipple.

PAPILLARY, or **PAPIL'LOUS**, *adj.* Having emulgent vessels, or resemblances of paps.—Malpighi concludes, because the outward cover of the tongue is perforated, under which lie *papillary* parts, that in these the taste lieth. *Derham's Phys. Theol.*—The *papillous* inward coat of the intestines is extremely sensible. *Arbutnot on Aliments*.—In botany; somewhat like a nipple; to be distinguished from *verrucosus*, or warty.

PAPILLON' (Philibert), a man of letters, was the son of an eminent advocate at Dijon, where he was born in 1666. He studied first in the Jesuits' college at Dijon, and afterwards at Paris, where he was admitted a bachelor of civil and canon law. Returning to his native province, he embraced the ecclesiastical state, and received priest's orders in 1694. He had previously obtained a canonry of a moderate revenue, but sufficient for all his wants, since his sole ambition was to possess a good library, and to be able to devote himself to the cultivation of literature. The great object of his researches was literary history, especially that of his own province; and, as he was obligingly communicative of his stores, the works of several other writers were enriched by his collections. The principal work of his own, was his "*Bibliothèque des Auteurs de Bourgogne*," which appeared after his death in two volumes folio, 1742 and 1745. This estimable man, whose modest, frank, and amiable disposition, endeared him to all his acquaintance, died at Dijon in 1738.

PAPIMOUAGOU', a lake of Canada: seventy miles north-north-east of Quebec. Lat. 50. N. lon. 69. 20. W.

PAPIN (Denys), an ingenious physician, the son of Nicholas Papin, also a physician, was born at Blois. He took the degree of M.D. and travelled to England, where he was elected a fellow of the Royal Society in December 1680. He passed the following year in London, and published an account of a machine which he had invented and which still bears his name; this was "*The New Digester, or Engine for the softening of bones*;" 4to. 1681. It soon appeared in French, with the title of *La Manière d'Amollir les Os, et de faire cuire toutes sortes de Viandes en peu de tems et à peu de frais*; Paris, 1682. The machine consists of a very strong metal boiler, with an airtight cover screwed down with great force; hence the contained fluid, being incapable of escaping either by evaporation or by bursting the machine, may be heated to a degree far beyond that of boiling water, so as to dissolve the gluten of bones and cartilages. He afterwards improved this digester, and it has since been much employed in chemical and philosophical experiments. He assisted Boyle in various experiments, of which an account is given in the History of the Royal Society. Papin was a Calvinist, and was therefore prevented from returning home by the revocation of the edict of Nantes. He afterwards resided at Marburg, where he taught the mathematics, and published a "*Fasciculus Dissertationum de quibusdam Machinis Physicis*," 12mo. 1696; and, in 1707, he published at Frankfurt, an account of a machine which he had invented for raising water by the action of fire, entitled "*Ars nova ad aquam ignis adminiculo efficacissimè elevandam*."

His father, Nicholas Papin, mentioned above, was author of several works, which, however, are nearly forgotten. Two of them related to the powder of sympathy, which he defended; and one to the discovery of Harvey, which he opposed.

PAPIN,

PAPIN (Isaac), a celebrated French divine, who renounced the protestant faith, and embraced that of Rome, was descended from a respectable family, and born at Blois in 1657. Being intended for the ministry, he was sent to study philosophy and divinity at Geneva; whence he removed to Orleans, in 1679, to perfect himself in the Greek and Hebrew languages under the instructions of the famous Claude Pajon, who was his maternal uncle. In the life of that gentleman we have seen, that he differed in opinion from the majority of his protestant brethren on some disputed points; (see p. 259.) Isaac Papin adopted his uncle's sentiments, and avowed them every where, without ambiguity or reserve. On this account, and because he refused to sign the condemnation of them, when required to do so by the academy of Saumur in 1683, he was not permitted to receive the usual testimonials to his character and qualifications. This treatment created disgust in his mind against the leading men in the protestant party, and, by a natural process, disposed him to view the religious principles of their opponents in a more favourable light than he had done before. In this temper he composed, and published at Bourdeaux, a treatise, entitled "The Faith kept within due Bounds, and reduced to its true Principles;" in which he maintained, that, since the papists professed to embrace the doctrine of the holy scriptures, they were entitled to toleration from the most zealous protestants. He also wrote several letters to the members of the reformed communion at Bourdeaux, in order to satisfy them that they might be saved in the Roman-catholic church, should they become reconciled to it. These publications, as might be expected, exasperated the more zealous protestants against him; and, to avoid the effects of their resentment, he crossed the sea to England, where he was admitted to priest's orders in the year 1686. About the same time he published a work against M. Jurieu, entitled, "Theological Essays concerning Providence and Grace, in which an Attempt is made to disentangle M. Jurieu from all the perplexing Difficulties which present themselves under his System;" in two volumes. This work provoked the malignant resentment of Jurieu, who, understanding that Papin was endeavouring to obtain employment as a professor in Germany, wrote letters every where, to prevent the success of his applications; and, though he obtained the situation of a preacher at Hamburg for a few months, Jurieu found means to procure his dismissal from it. About the same time Mr. Bayle, having met with our author's treatise, entitled *The Faith kept within due Bounds, &c.* reprinted it, with the addition of some pages of new matter. These were attributed by Jurieu to M. Papin, who did not disavow the principal maxims laid down in them, which were condemned by the synod of Bois-le-duc in 1687. During the following year, these principles, and the other distinguishing tenets of our author, were condemned with still greater marks of severity by the French synod at the Hague, where a sentence of excommunication was pronounced against M. Papin. In the mean time he accepted an invitation to fill a professor's chair in the church of the French refugees at Dantzic. He had not been long in this post, before it was proposed to him that he should subscribe and conform to the synodal decisions of the Walloon churches in the United Provinces; but to this he would not consent, because they enforced the belief of sentiments contradictory to his own, particularly the opinion that Jesus Christ died only for the sake of the elect. This refusal gave great offence to the persons who had invited him to Dantzic; and, in six months time after his arrival there, the connexion between them was dissolved. Exasperated at the repeated obstacles which he met with to obtain an honourable settlement among the protestants, and the persecutions with which he was harassed by Jurieu and some of his brother-bigots, M. Papin returned to France, and embraced the Roman-catholic religion, delivering his abjuration into the hands

of Bossuet bishop of Meaux, in the year 1690. Upon this change, Jurieu wrote a pastoral letter to the French protestants, in which he pretended, that M. Papin had ever regarded all religions with equal indifference, and that it was in this spirit that he had become reconciled to the church of Rome. By way of reply to this letter, our author composed a treatise "Concerning the Toleration of Protestants, and the Authority of the Church," which met with the approbation of Bossuet, and was published in 1692. Afterwards M. Papin changed the title of the work, which was rather equivocal, and made some additions to it; but, while he was engaged in forming collections to render it more complete, and in finishing other pieces of the same kind, he died at Paris in 1709, at the age of fifty-two. After his death, his theological pieces, which are chiefly controversial, and all written with ability and shrewdness, were collected together, and published in Holland, in 1713, 12mo. and a third edition of them was printed at Paris, in 1723, in 3 vols. 12mo. with the life of the author prefixed, written by his widow. *Gen. Biog.*

PAPIN'ACHOIS, a river of Canada, which runs into the Saguenay in lat. 48. 24. N. lon. 70. 50. W.

PAPIN'ACHOIS, Indians of Canada, so named from the river. They inhabit from lat. 50. to 51. N. lon. 69. to 71. W.

PAPINIANUS, a celebrated Roman lawyer, was the disciple of Cerebrius Scaevola, under whom Septimius Severus, afterwards emperor, was also brought up. Papinianus succeeded Severus in his office of advocate to the treasury; and was created pretorian prefect by Severus after he had ascended the imperial throne in 194. His profound knowledge of the law, and his incorruptible integrity, gave him great influence during this reign, the rigours of which he softened by his counsels as much as lay in his power. It is affirmed, but apparently upon little authority, that he was related to the empress, Julia Domna. Severus, on his death-bed, particularly recommended his sons Caracalla and Geta to the care of this faithful servant; and he accordingly used all his efforts to preserve that fraternal union between them which soon appeared in danger of dissolution. His remonstrances were so disagreeable to Caracalla, that he was deprived of the post of pretorian prefect; yet the weight of his character induced that emperor to keep him about his person, and treat him as if still in his confidence. When Caracalla had perpetrated the execrable murder of his brother, he strongly urged Papinianus to compose a justification of the action; but received from him the severe reply, "That it was easier to commit a parricide than to defend it; and that it was a second parricide to vilify the memory of the innocent." The monster dissembled the resentment he felt; but when, soon after, the pretorian guards, probably through his instigation, demanded the head of Papinianus, he readily gave him up to their rage, and he suffered under the axe, A. D. 212. This eminent lawyer composed a great number of works, and formed several illustrious disciples. His juridical authority rose beyond that of any of his predecessors; and remained in such consideration, that the emperor Valentinian III. made a decree, that, in cases in which the opinions of judges should be divided, the preponderance should be given to that which should have the support of Papinianus.

PAPI'RA, or PAPYRA, in ancient geography, a town of Asia, in Galatia, upon the route from Paphlagonia to Ancyra, between Vindia and Ancyra; according to the Itinerary of Antonine.

PAPIRE-MASSON. See MASSON (John Papirius), vol. xiv.

PAPIR'IA, *f.* in botany. See GETHYLLIS.

PAPIR'IUS CUR'SOR, the name of two Roman generals and consuls, who distinguished themselves more particularly against the Samnites. See the article ROME.

PA'PISM, *f.* [from *pape*, Fr.] Popery.—The place is long, which deserves to be read for the objection of the universality

universality of Arianism, like to that of *papism* in these last ages. *Bp. Bedell.*

PAPIST, *f.* [*papiste*, Fr. *papista*, Lat.] One that adheres to the communion of the pope and church of Rome.—The principal clergyman had frequent conferences with the prince, to persuade him to change his religion, and become a *papist*. *Clarendon.*

The word *Papist* seems to be considered by the Roman-catholics themselves as a nick-name of reproach, originating in their maintaining the supreme ecclesiastical (and heretofore temporal) power of the pope, *papa*.

This word, *Papist*, came into use soon after the Reformation. From that time, the word *Protestant* was used to denote all descriptions of Christians who were not in communion with the church of Rome; and the word "*Papist*" was used to denote that description of Christians which remained in communion with her. It is to be observed, that, before the laws passed in the late reign, to repeal the principal penal laws in force against the Roman-catholics, the word "*Papist*" had a very extensive signification. In the language of the law, *Papists* are divided into five classes. *The mere Papist* was a person who had done those acts which amounted to legal evidence of *Papistry*; *the reputed Papist* was a person generally considered to have done such acts; *the Popish recusant* was a *Papist* who absented himself from the Protestant church; *the Popish recusant convict* was a *Papist* legally convicted of such absence. Several statutes inflicted the penalties, legally incident to *Popish recusancy*, on the commission of certain acts, and the omission of others, into which the religious principles of Roman-catholics frequently led them; and thus constituted an *indirect recusancy*, the fifth and last species of *Papistry*, if it can be justly called by that name. But "*Papist*" was the general appellation given to the particular denomination of Christians who are the subject of the present article. It was always considered by them to be a term of reproach, and they affected the appellation of Roman-catholics. In the oath, which passed in the year 1791 for the relief of the Roman-catholics, the person who takes it is made to say, "I, A. B. do hereby declare, that I do profess the Roman-catholic religion." Since the passing of that act, the name of Roman-catholic has been generally given them; and it now seems to be their proper legal appellation.

The history of the English Catholics, as a distinct body of Dissenters, begins with the reign of Elizabeth. In the course of her reign, many oppressive, and even sanguinary, laws were enacted against them. The justice and policy of those laws scarcely find at this time a single advocate. But when they were enacted they found their defenders; and, among them, none more able than lord-treasurer Burleigh, who published, or rather caused to be published, in their defence, a book entitled "The Execution of Justice;" in which he attempted to show, that the Catholic priests, executed in the reign of queen Elizabeth, were not executed for their religion, but for treasonable practices. In answer to it, cardinal Allen published his modest "Defence of the English Catholics." The subject was revived in our times by Dr. Sturges's "Reflections on Popery." To those, Dr. Milner opposed his "Letters to a Prebendary;" one of the most successful works that has appeared in defence of the Roman-catholics. A discussion of this controversy would be misplaced in a work like the present. We shall only mention that, by a succession of legislative enactments during the reigns of queen Elizabeth, of the three first Stuart monarchs, and of the three monarchs who filled the throne from the abdication of king James II. to the accession of king George II. the Catholics were subjected to the heaviest pains, penalties, and disabilities. The laws by which they were inflicted may be reduced under four heads.

1. The first are those which subjected them to penalties and punishments for exercising their religious worship; under which head may be ranked the laws respecting their

education, and the ministers of their church. By these laws, if an English priest of the church of Rome, born in the dominions of the crown of England, came to England from beyond the seas, or tarried in England three days without conforming to the church, he was guilty of high treason; and those incurred the guilt of high-treason, who were reconciled to the see of Rome, or procured others to be reconciled to it. By these laws also, *Papists* were totally disabled from giving their children any education in their own religion: for, if they educated their children at home, then, for maintaining the school-master, if he did not repair to church, or was not allowed by the bishop of the diocese, they were liable to forfeit 10l. a-month, and the school-master was liable to forfeit 40s. a-day; and, if they sent their children for education to any school of their persuasion abroad, they were liable to forfeit 100l. and the children, so sent, were disabled from inheriting, purchasing, or enjoying, any lands, profits, goods, debts, duties, legacies, or sums of money. Saying mafs was punishable by a forfeiture of 200 marks; hearing it by a forfeiture of 100. See 1 Eliz. c. 2. 23 Eliz. c. 1. 27 Eliz. c. 2. 29 Eliz. c. 6. 35 Eliz. c. 2. 2 Jac. I. c. 4. 3 Jac. I. c. 4. 5. 7 Jac. I. c. 6. 3 Car. I. c. 2. 25 Car. II. c. 2. 7 & 8 W. III. c. 27. 1 Geo. I. c. 13.

2. Under the second head, were those laws which punished the English communicants with the church of Rome, for not conforming to the established church. These are generally called the Statutes of Recusancy. It should be observed, that absence from church alone, and unaccompanied by any other act, constituted recusancy, in the true sense of that word. Till the statute of 35 Eliz. c. 2, all nonconformists were considered as recusants, and were all equally subject to the penalties of recusancy. That statute was the first penal statute made against *Popish Recusants* by that name, and as distinguishing from other Recusants. From that statute arose the distinction between Protestant and *Popish Recusants*; the former were subject to such statutes of recusancy as preceded that of the 35th of queen Elizabeth, and to some statutes against recusancy made subsequently to that time; but they were relieved from them all by the Act of Toleration in the first year of king William's reign. From 35 Eliz. c. 2, arose also the distinction between *Papists*, and persons professing the popish religion, and *Popish Recusants*, and *Popish Recusants convict*.

By the statutes against *popish recusants convict*, they were punishable by the censures of the church, and by a fine of 20l. for every month during which they absented themselves from church; they were disabled from keeping arms in their houses; from maintaining actions, or suits at law or in equity; from being executors or guardians; from presenting to advowsons; from practising in the law or physic; and from holding offices, civil or military; they were subject to the penalties attending excommunication; were not permitted to travel five miles from home, unless by licence, upon pain of forfeiting all their goods; and might not come to court, under pain of 100l. A married woman, when convicted of recusancy, was liable to forfeit two-thirds of her dower or jointure: she could not be executrix or administratrix to her husband, or have any part of his goods; and during her marriage she might be kept in prison, unless her husband redeemed her at the rate of 10l. a-month, or the third part of his lands. *Popish recusants convict* were, within three months after conviction, either to submit and renounce their religious opinions, or, if required by four justices, to abjure the realm; and, if they did not depart, or if they returned without a licence, they were guilty of felony, and were to suffer death as felons. See the statutes referred to under the former head.

3. As to the penalties or disabilities attending the refusal of Roman-catholics to take the Oath of Supremacy, the Declaration against Transubstantiation, and the Declaration against Popery; it must be premised, that the Roman-catholics make no objection to take the Oath of Allegiance,

Allegiance, (1 Geo. II. c. 13.) or the Oath of Abjuration, (6 Geo. III. c. 53.) With respect to the Oath of Supremacy, by 1 Eliz. c. 1, the persons therein mentioned were made compellable to take the oath of supremacy contained in that act. By the third of James I. c. 4, another oath was prescribed to be taken, commonly called the "Oath of Allegiance and Obedience." These oaths were abrogated by the first of William and Mary c. 8. and a new oath of allegiance, and a new oath of supremacy, were introduced, and required to be taken in their stead. The statute made in the second session of the first year of Geo. I. c. 13. contains an oath of supremacy, in the same words as the oath of supremacy required to be taken by the first of king William and queen Mary. By that oath persons are made to swear, "That no foreign prince, person, prelate, state, or potentate, hath, or ought to have, any jurisdiction, power, supremacy, pre-eminence, or authority, ecclesiastical or spiritual, within the realm." It was required to be taken by the persons therein named; it might be tendered to any person, by any two justices of the peace; and persons refusing the oath so tendered, were adjudged to be popish recusants convict, and to forfeit and be proceeded against as such. This was the *constructive recusancy* referred to above. It was not the offence itself of recusancy, which, as we have already observed, consisted merely in the party's absenting himself from church; it was the offence of not taking the oath of supremacy, and the other oaths prescribed by the act of 1 Geo. I. the refusal of which was, by that statute, placed on the same footing as a legal conviction on the statutes of recusancy, and subjected the party refusing to the penalties of those statutes. This was the most severe of all the laws against Papists; as it restrained them from practising the law as advocates, barristers, solicitors, attorneys, notaries, or proctors, and from voting at elections.

With respect to receiving the sacrament of our Lord's supper; by 13 Car. II. (commonly called the Corporation Act,) no person can be legally elected to any office relating to the government of any city or corporation, unless, within a twelvemonth before, he has received the sacrament of the Lord's supper according to the rites of the church of England; and he is also enjoined to take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, at the same time that he takes the oath of office; or, in default of either of these requisites, such election shall be void.

As to the Declaration against Transubstantiation, by 25 Car. II. c. 2. (commonly called the Test Act,) all officers, civil or military, are directed to take the oath, and make the declarations against transubstantiation, in the court of King's Bench or Chancery, the next term, or at the next quarter-sessions, or (by subsequent statutes) within six months after their admission; and also, within the same time, to receive the sacrament of the Lord's supper, according to the usage of the church of England, in some public church immediately after divine service and sermon; and to deliver into court a certificate thereof, signed by the minister and churchwardens, and also to prove the same by two credible witnesses, upon forfeiture of 500l. and disability to hold the office.

With respect to the Declaration against Popery; the act passed in the 30th year of Car. II. stat. 2. c. 1. contains the declaration, and prescribes it to be made by members of either house of parliament, before they take their seats; by it they declare their disbelief of the doctrine of transubstantiation; and their belief that the invocation of saints and the sacrifice of the mass are idolatrous.

4. With respect to the laws affecting their landed property; how this was affected by the laws against recusancy has been already mentioned. By the 11 & 12 W. III. c. 4. it was enacted, that a person educated in the popish religion, or professing the same, who did not, in six months after the age of sixteen, take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, and subscribe the declaration of 30 Car. II. should, in respect of himself only, and not of

his heirs, or posterity, be disabled to inherit or take lands by descent, devise, or limitation, in possession, reversion, or remainder; and that during his life, till he took the oaths, and subscribed the declaration against popery, his next of kin, who was a protestant, should enjoy the lands without accounting for the profits, and should be incapable of purchasing; and that all estates, terms, interests, or profits, out of lands, made, done, or suffered, to his use, or in trust for him, should be void. By 3 Jac. I. c. 5. 1 W. & M. c. 26. 12 Anne, stat. 2. c. 14. 11 Geo. II. c. 17. Papists, or persons professing the popish religion, were disabled from presenting to advowsons, and other ecclesiastical benefices, and to hospitals and other charitable establishments. By annual acts of legislature, Papists, being of the age of eighteen years, and not having taken the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, were subjected to the burthen of the double land-tax. By a statute made in the second session of the first year of Geo. I. c. 55, they were required to register their names and estates in the manner and under the penalties therein mentioned; and by 3 Geo. I. c. 18. continued by several subsequent statutes, an obligation of enrolling their deeds and wills was imposed on them. Such were the principal penal laws against Roman-catholics at the time of the accession of the house of Brunswick.

To the enlightened and humane temper of the times during the reign of his late majesty, his Roman-catholic subjects are wholly indebted for any appeal of this large and grievous code. Two acts in particular have been already passed for their relief.

1. The first of those acts was passed in the 18th year of his late majesty's reign. It enacted, that so much of the 11 & 12 W. III. as related to the prosecution of popish priests and Jesuits, and imprisoning for life Papists who keep schools, or to disable Papists from taking by descent or purchase, should be repealed as to all Papists, or persons professing the popish religion, who, within six months after the passing of the act, or their coming of age, should take the oath prescribed by the act. This is an oath expressive of allegiance to his majesty, abjuration of the pretender, renunciation of the pope's civil power, and abhorrence of the doctrines of destroying, and not keeping faith with, heretics; and of deposing or murdering princes excommunicated by authority of the see of Rome.

This act was an essential benefit to Roman-catholics; but its best effect in their regard, was its operation on the public mind, by lessening the prejudice generally entertained against them, and bringing them and their fellow-subjects into habits of social intercourse and amity, which the penal code had too much interrupted. It can only be conceived by those who witnessed it, what a sudden and extensive effect, in this regard, was produced by this single act of parliament.

2. A more extensive relief from the penal laws was granted to the English Roman-catholics by an act of the 31st year of the reign of his late majesty. The stat. 31 Geo. III. c. 32. may be divided into six parts. The 1st contains the declaration and oath afterwards referred to in the body of the act, and prescribes the method of taking it. The second is a repeal of the statutes of recusancy, in favour of persons taking the oath thereby prescribed. The 3d is a toleration, under certain regulations, of the religious worship of the Roman-catholics, qualifying in like manner, and of their schools for education. The 4th enacts, that in future no one shall be summoned to take the oath of supremacy prescribed by stats. 1 W. & M. c. 8. 1 Geo. I. stat. 2. c. 13. [but electors of members of parliament in England, still remain bound to take this oath;] or the declaration against transubstantiation; that the stat. 1 W. & M. c. 9. for removing Papists, or reputed Papists, from the cities of London and Westminster, shall not extend to Roman-catholics taking the appointed oath; and that no peer of Great Britain or Ireland, taking that oath, shall be liable to be prosecuted for coming into his majesty's presence, or into the court

or house where his majesty resides, under stat. 30 Car. II. ft. 2. c. 1. The 5th part of the act repeals the laws requiring the deeds and wills of Roman-catholics to be registered or enrolled. The 6th excuses persons acting as counsellors at law, barristers, attornies, clerks, or notaries, from taking the oath of supremacy, or the declaration against transubstantiation.

To state this statute something more particularly: Roman-catholics, who are willing to comply with the requisitions contained in it, must appear at some of the courts at Westminster, or at the quarter-sessions held for the county, city, or place, where they shall reside, and shall make and subscribe a declaration, that they profess the Roman-catholic religion; and also an oath, which is nearly similar to that required by stat. 18 Geo. III. c. 60. the substance of which is stated above. The chief difference in the oath is, that the words of that in stat. 31 Geo. III. c. 32. are stronger, and more adapted to present times and circumstances; and probably intended to be less liable to equivocation or evasion. On this declaration and oath being duly made by any Roman-catholic, the officer of the court shall grant him a certificate; and such officer shall yearly transmit to the privy-council, lists of all persons who have thus qualified themselves within the year in his respective court. The statute then provides, that a Roman-catholic thus qualified shall not be prosecuted under any statute for not repairing to a parish-church, nor shall he be prosecuted for being a Papist, nor for attending or performing mass or other ceremonies of the church of Rome; provided that no place shall be allowed for an assembly to celebrate such worship until it is certified to the sessions; nor shall any minister officiate in it until his name and description are recorded there. And no such place of assembly shall have its doors locked or barred during the time of meeting or divine worship.

And if any Roman-catholic whatever is elected constable, churchwarden, overseer, or into any parochial office, he may execute the same by a deputy, to be approved, as if he were to act for himself as principal. But every minister who has qualified shall be exempt from serving upon juries, and from being elected into any parochial office. And all the laws for frequenting divine service on Sundays shall continue in force; except where persons attend some place of worship allowed by this statute, or the Toleration Act of the *Dissenters*; stat. 1 W. & M. c. 8.

If any person disturb a congregation allowed under this act, he shall, as for disturbing a Dissenting meeting, be bound over to the next sessions, and, upon conviction there, shall forfeit 20l.

No Roman-catholic minister, however, shall officiate in any place of worship having a steeple and a bell, or at any funeral in a church or church-yard, or shall wear the habits of his order, except in a place allowed by this statute, or in a private house where there shall not be more than five persons besides the family. This statute shall not exempt Roman-catholics from the payment of tithes, or other dues, to the church; nor shall it affect the statutes concerning marriages, or any law respecting the succession to the crown. No person who has qualified shall be prosecuted for instructing youth, except in an endowed school, or a school in one of the English universities; and except also, that no Roman-catholic school-master shall receive into his school the child of any Protestant father; nor shall any Roman-catholic keep a school until his or her name be recorded as a teacher at the sessions.

No religious order is to be established; and every endowment of a school or college by a Roman-catholic shall still be superstitious and unlawful.

The declaration prescribed by the act is contained in these words: "I, A. B. do hereby declare, that I do profess the Roman-catholic religion." Till the passing of this act, the persons who were the subject of it

were known in the English law by the name of Papists, reputed Papists, or persons professing the popish religion. As the bill was originally framed, and as it stood, when, having passed the commons, it was brought into the house of lords, the first clause in it directed, that the oath contained in the stat. 18 Geo. III. c. 60, should be taken no longer; but that the oath appointed by the bill should, in future, be administered in its stead, and should give the same benefits and advantages, and should operate to the same effects and purposes, as the oath contained in the stat. 18 Geo. III. c. 60. This clause was altered, in the house of lords, to the form in which it stands in the act. It does not express that the oath contained in it shall entitle the persons taking it to the benefits of the stat. 18 Geo. III. it only expresses that it shall be lawful for Catholics to take the oath prescribed at the places and times, and in manner, therein mentioned. Thus it was uncertain whether persons taking only the oath prescribed by the stat. 31 Geo. III. would be entitled to the benefit of the stat. 18 Geo. III. so as to be relieved from the penalties and disabilities from which the persons taking the oath prescribed by that act, were released by it. The chief of these penalties and disabilities were those which disabled them from taking by descent or purchase: and it was thought advisable for every Roman-catholic, who wished to be secure in the enjoyment of his landed property, to take both the declaration and oath prescribed by the stat. 31 Geo. III. and the oath prescribed by the former stat. 18 Geo. III. But all doubt on this subject is now removed by stat. 43 Geo. III. c. 30. which, after reciting the inconvenience above stated, enacts, "That the declaration and oath contained in the act 31 Geo. III. shall, as to all persons who have made, taken, and subscribed, the same, or who at any time hereafter shall make, take, or subscribe, the same, give the same benefits and advantages, and be and operate to and for the same intents and purposes, as in and by the said act of 18 Geo. III. is enacted, expressed, and declared, of and concerning the oath thereby subscribed."

The statute 1 W. & M. c. 18, (commonly called the Toleration Act,) exempts all Dissenters, except Papists and such as deny the Trinity, from all penal laws relating to religion; provided they take the Oaths of Allegiance and Supremacy, and subscribe the Declaration against Popery, and repair to some congregation registered in the bishop's court, or at the sessions. But there is nothing in this act which dispenses either with the Test-Act or the Corporation-Act, so far as they impose the obligation of receiving the sacrament of our Lord's Supper on persons serving in offices or elected to serve in corporations; and there is nothing in the statute 31 Geo. III. c. 32. which dispenses Catholics from that obligation, in case of their serving in offices, or being admitted into corporations. With respect, therefore, to the Test-Act and Corporation-Act, these are the only statutes which subject the Protestant Dissenters to any penalties or disabilities; to these the Roman-catholics are subject equally with the Protestant Dissenters: there is, therefore, no penalty or disability that affects the Protestant Dissenters, to which Roman-catholics are not subject equally; but there still remain several penalties and disabilities to which Roman-catholics are subject, that do not in any respect whatever affect the Protestant Dissenters.

The principal of these are, that by stat. 30 Car. II. ft. 2. c. 1, Roman-catholics, in consequence of refusing the Oath of Supremacy, or the Declaration against Popery, are disabled from sitting in either house of parliament. By stats. 7 & 8 W. III. c. 27, those who refuse to take the Oath of Supremacy are disabled from voting at elections (in Great Britain;) and by several statutes, Roman-catholics are disabled from presenting to advowsons. This latter is peculiar to them; Quakers, and even Jews, having the full enjoyment of the right of presentation.

By the Militia Acts, previous to 42 Geo. III. c. 90, 91. the oath required to be taken by persons enrolled in the militia

militia of Great Britain, was as follows: "I, A. B. do sincerely promise and swear, that I will be faithful, and bear true allegiance, to his majesty king George, his heirs and successors. And I do swear, *that I am a Protestant*, and that I will faithfully serve in the militia, within the kingdom of Great Britain, for the defence of the same, during the time for which I am enrolled, unless I shall be sooner discharged." In the acts of 42 Geo. III. the words declaring the person to be a Protestant are omitted.

By stat. 31 Geo. III. c. 32. Roman-catholics stand, as to the serving upon *juries*, in the same predicament as the rest of his majesty's subjects. Ministers of Roman-catholic congregations are exempted from serving on juries, by § 8 of the statute.

The first step taken in the late reign to give relief to the Papists in Ireland, was by the acts 1 Geo. III. c. 12 & 13. 3 Geo. III. c. 26. and 13 & 14 Geo. III. c. 25. by which the possessions of Protestants were protected, who derived title from or through Papists.

The next step was by enabling Papists to take leases for 61 years, of not more than fifty acres of unprofitable bog, for the purpose of reclaiming the same. 11 & 12 Geo. III. c. 21.

By 13 & 14 Geo. III. c. 35. an oath of allegiance and a declaration was framed for the Papists, and which they were allowed to take, "in order to give them an opportunity of testifying their allegiance, and to promote peace and industry among the inhabitants." By 17 & 18 Geo. III. c. 49. Papists taking and subscribing this oath and declaration, were empowered to take leases for 999 years at a bona-fide money-rent reserved; and to dispose of the same by will or otherwise. And all lands and tenements whereof any Papist was or should be seized, were declared to be defendible, devisable, and transferrable, as fully as if the same were in the seizer of any other subjects.

By 21 & 22 Geo. III. c. 24. Papists taking oath, &c. required by 13 & 14 Geo. III. are empowered to purchase or take by grant, limitation, descent, or devise, any lands, tenements, or hereditaments, in Ireland, or any interest therein, (except advowsons, and except any manor or borough returning members of parliament,) and to dispose of the same by will or otherwise; and such lands, &c. so purchased or taken, shall be defendible according to the course of the common law; and devisable, and transferrable in like manner as the lands of Protestants. Various minor disabilities are also removed by this act, and 21 & 22 Geo. III. c. 61. and 30 Geo. III. c. 29.

By 32 Geo. III. c. 21. Papists (taking the oath required by 13 & 14 Geo. III. c. 35.) are enabled to be barristers, attorneys, solicitors, or notaries: but not king's counsel. By the same act, marriages of Papists with Protestants is allowed.

By 33 Geo. III. c. 21. the last and most effectual act passed in Ireland for the relief of the Papists, it is enacted, that no subject being a Papist, or married to or educating children Papists, (taking the oath, &c. required by 13 & 14 Geo. III. c. 35.) shall be liable to any penalty or disability, or to any law for limiting, charging, or discovering, their estates, or touching the acquiring of property, or securities affecting it, save such as Protestants are liable to. And all such parts of oaths required to be taken at voting, or to qualify for voting for members of parliament, as deny the so being a priest, &c. shall not in future be required to be taken by any voter; and such Papists shall not be required, previous to voting, to take oaths of allegiance and abjuration.

By the same act, § 7. it is declared lawful for Papists (taking the oath, &c. required by 13 & 14 Geo. III. c. 35. and an additional oath prescribed by this act, 33 Geo. III.) to hold, exercise, and enjoy, all civil and military offices or places of trust or profits under his majesty in Ireland; and to be a member of any lay body corporate, (except Trinity College, Dublin,) without taking oaths of allegiance, supremacy, or abjuration, &c. With the following exceptions; viz. § 9. Papists are not allowed to sit or

vote in either house of parliament, nor to exercise or enjoy any of the following offices, &c. Lord Lieutenant; Lord Chancellor, Keeper, &c. Lord High Treasurer; Chancellor of the Exchequer; Chief Justice, Chief Baron, or Judge, of the Courts of King's Bench, Common Pleas, or Exchequer; Judge of the Admiralty; Master of the Rolls; Secretary of State; Keeper of Privy Seal; Vice Treasurer, or his Deputy; Teller or Cashier of Exchequer; Auditor General; Lieutenant, Governor, or Custos Rotulorum, of Counties; Secretary to Lord Lieutenant; Privy Counsellor; Prime Serjeant; Attorney or Solicitor General; Second and Third Serjeant; King's Counsel; Master in Chancery; Provost or Fellow of Dublin College; Post Master General; Master and Lieutenant-general of the Ordnance; Commander in Chief of the Forces; General on the Staff; Sheriff or Sub-Sheriff of any County; or any Office contrary to the Act of Settlement and the New Rule, under act 17 & 18 Car. II. And by § 10. Papists are declared not to be enabled to exercise any right of presentation to any ecclesiastical benefice.

By 35 Geo. III. c. 21. an academy was authorized to be established for the education of Papists; in consequence of which the College at Maynooth was founded, and has been from time to time supported by grants from parliament.

The Roman-catholics of Ireland and of England have repeatedly presented petitions to both houses of parliament for the repeal of all disabilities whatever, and for placing the Catholic and Protestant religions upon exactly the same footing, by admitting Catholics into both houses of parliament, and into all offices of state. We have argued this question at great length under the article LIBERTY OF CONSCIENCE, vol. xii. p. 589 & seq. See also LONDON, vol. xiii. p. 250, 284, 292, 328.

PAPISTIC, or PAPISTICAL, *adj.* Popish; adherent to popery.—There are some *papistical* practitioners among you. *Whitgift*.—Ornamenting service-books for the old *papist* worship. *Warton's Hist. E. P.*

PAPISTICALLY, *adv.* In the manner of the papists.

PAPISTICALNESS, *f.* The state of being papistical.

PAPISTRY, *f.* Popery; the doctrine of the Romish church.—*Papistry* as a standing pool, covered and overflowed all England. *Ascham's Schoolmaster*.—A great number of parishes in England consist of rude and ignorant men, drowned in *papistry*. *Whitgift*.

PAPIUCHI, a town, of Mexico, in the province of Mayo: 150 miles north of Santa Cruz.

PAPIZED, *adj.* Popish; adhering to popery.—Protestants cut off the authority from all *papized* writers of that age. *Fuller's Holy War*.

PAPLAH, a town of Asia, and capital of a small country dependent upon Thibet; governed by a raja: ninety miles north of Fyzabad. Lat. 28. 10. N. lon. 82. 53. E.

PAPOU'L (St.), a town of France, in the department of the Aude, before the revolution the see of a bishop; four miles east of Castelnaudary. Lat. 43. 20. N. lon. 2. 7. E.

PAPOZZE, a town of Italy: twenty-two miles north-east of Ferrara.

PAPPAW', a town of Prussia, in the palatinate of Culm: ten miles south-east of Culm.

PAPPENBURG, a seaport town of East Friesland, situated on a canal which communicates with the Ems, and belonging to the kingdom of Hanover. Though but a newly-erected town, it contains 19 yards for ship-building, 2 churches, 400 houses, and 3250 inhabitants: 160 vessels belong to this port, the largest carrying 160 lasts, with about 100 small craft: twenty miles south of Emden. Lat. 53. N. lon. 7. 23. E.

PAPPENHEIM, a town of Bavaria, and capital of a county, in the bishopric of Aichstatt, on the Altmühl. The established and universal religion here is Lutheranism: twelve miles north-west of Aichstatt, and fifteen north-east of Donauwert.

PAPPES'CENT, *adj.* [from the Lat. *pappus*, down.] Growing downy, growing pappous.

PAPPING, a town of Austria: one mile north of Eferding.

PAPPON (John-Peter), an estimable man of letters, was born in 1736 at Pujes near Nice. He entered young into the congregation of the Oratory, where he distinguished himself by his writings. He passed a life in tranquillity, exempt from ambition and intrigue; and his spirits were scarcely affected by the loss of a pension from the states of Provence, which constituted his chief support, at the commencement of the revolution. During the reign of terror he took refuge in the department of Puy-de-Dome, whence he afterwards returned to Paris. He died suddenly in 1801, at the age of sixty-five. Of his works the principal are, 1. An Ode on Death, inserted in the collection of the Floral Games of Toulouse. 2. L'Art du Poete et de l'Orateur, 12mo. several times reprinted. 3. Voyage de Provence, 2 vols. 12mo. 1787: a very agreeable performance, full of historical anecdotes. 4. Histoire de Provence, 4 vols. 4to. To this work many documents are annexed from the ancient historians of Provence. For the purpose of discovering new authorities, the author took a journey to Naples, the throne of which was long occupied by the counts of Provence. Among the pieces which he procured was the quittance given by queen Joan to pope Clement VI. for the price of the city of Avignon, which she sold him. This is supposed to afford a refutation of the assertion that the city was the price of the pope's absolution of Joan from the murder of her first husband; but in fact it proves no more than that an offensive bargain and sale passed between them. 5. Pappon also wrote some pieces relative to the French revolution; and, 6. Epoques memorables de la Peste, 2 vols. 8vo. 1800.

PAPPOPHORUM, *f.* [a genus first established by Schreber, and named by him from the Gr. *παππος*, thistle-down, and *φορος*, to bear; in allusion to the peculiar resemblance of the fine aggregate awns of this grass to the seed-down of many syngenesious plants.] In botany, a genus of the class triandria, order digynia, natural order of gramina, or grasses. Generic characters—Calyx: glume two-flowered, two-valved; valves long, linear, somewhat compressed, very thin, acuminate, awnless: outer a little shorter; one floret inferior, larger, sessile, bearded at the base, hermaphrodite: the other superior, less, on a short pedicel, pressed close to the back of the lower one, beardless, neuter; and above this the rudiment of a third. Corolla: glume two-valved, shorter than the calyx: outer valve ovate, ventricose, angular, terminated by several awns (thirteen or fourteen), very long, straight, unequal, spreading, with its edges embracing the inner valve, which is lanceolate, acute, a little longer and narrower than the outer. Nectary two-leaved, very small, with linear leaflets. Stamina: filaments three, capillary. Antheræ oblong. Pistillum: germen ovate; styles two, short; stigmas villose. Pericarpium: none. Corolla incloses the seed, and lets it drop. Seed one, ovate, compressed, diaphanous.—*Essential Character.* Calyx two-valved, two-flowered; corolla two-valved, many-awned. There are five species.

1. Pappophorum alopecuroides: awns thirteen, minutely toothed. Stem branched, three or four feet high, smooth, sheathed with leaves, which are convoluted, awl-shaped, striated, shorter than the culm; the last spathaceous. Panicle erect, subsplined, often a foot and a half long, resembling Alopecurus monspeliacus. Calyx three or four-flowered. Found by Von Rohr at Spanish Town in South America. *Vahl*, iii. 10. t. 51.

2. Pappophorum nigricans: awns nine, feathery; spike compound, somewhat cylindrical, with imbricated lobes; glumes very finely downy; leaves and sheaths naked, roughish. Gathered by Mr. Brown, in the tropical as well as southern parts of New Holland, and at Port Jackson.

3. Pappophorum pallidum: awns nine, feathery; spike compound, somewhat cylindrical, with imbricated lobes; glumes and leaves villous. Native of the tropical part of New Holland, as well as the two following; Mr. Brown having gathered them all in that country.

4. Pappophorum purpurascens: awns nine, feathery, coloured; spike lanceolate, lobed; its branches alternate, racemose; glumes and leaves downy.

5. Pappophorum gracile: awns nine, feathery; spike divided in the lower part, simple above; glumes downy; leaves involute, smooth, as well as the stems. *Brown, Prodr. Nov. Holl.* i. 184.

PAPPO'SE, or PAP'POUS, *adj.* [*papposus*, low Lat. or from the Gr. *παππος*, thistle-down.] Having that soft light down, growing out of the seeds of some plants; such as thistles, dandelion, hawk-weeds, which buoys them up so in the air, that they can be blown any-where about with the wind: and, therefore, this distinguishes one kind of plants, which is called *papposa*, or *papposi flores*. *Quincy*.—Another thing argumentative of providence is, that *pappous* plumage growing upon the tops of some seeds, whereby they are wafted with the wind, and by that means disseminated far and wide. *Ray on the Creation*.—Dandelion, and most of the *pappous* kind, have long numerous feathers, by which they are wafted every way. *Derham*.

PAP'PUS, *f.* in botany, seed-down: the hairy or feathery, sometimes chaffy, radiating crown of the seed, in the natural order of compound flowers, or syngenesious class, such being the true classical acceptance of this Latin word, as well as of the Greek *παππος*, from whence it comes. The use of this part is to waft the seed to a distance, in dry and windy weather, when the pappus is most light and expanded; by which means such plants are widely dispersed. Finally it either slips off, by the drying and contraction of the summit of the seed, as in thistles; or the seed having fixed itself in the earth, the down is broken off by the wind, or some other accidental cause; in either case the seed is left behind, to germinate without further disturbance. The down, having fulfilled its primary destination, often serves a secondary purpose in the economy of nature; being hoarded up by birds, and the smaller quadrupeds, to compose or to line their nests, or winter retreats. Its texture is not such as to render it fit for being woven, by human art, for any use.

Gærtner properly restrains the term *pappus* to compound flowers; though Linnæus and others use it indiscriminately for such, and for the hairy appendages to the top, sides, or base, of other seeds, even when they are inclosed in a capsule; witness Epilobium, Asclepias, and many others. Gærtner uses the word *coma*, when such an appendage is situated at the top of the seed; and *pubes* when it originates from the base or sides, as in Gossypium, the cotton-plant.

PAP'PUS, a very eminent Greek mathematician of Alexandria in the fourth century, is said by Suidas to have flourished in the reign of Theodosius the Great, who presided over the empire from the year 379 to 395. Such of his works as are still extant, show him to have been profoundly skilled in the mathematical sciences. Suidas and Vossius mention several of his productions which are lost, or at least have not yet been discovered; among which are, 1. A Commentary upon Ptolemy's Almagest. 2. An universal Chorography. 3. A Description of the Rivers of Lybia. 4. A treatise on Military Engines, 5. Commentaries upon Aristarchus of Samos, concerning the Magnitude and Distance of the Sun and Moon, &c. 6. He is quoted by Marinus, a disciple of Proclus, in his preliminary observations on the Data of Euclid, who refers to his Mathematical Collections, in eight books, which are yet extant, in the original Greek, excepting the first and part of the second book, among the rare manuscripts in the Bodleian library at Oxford, and in other collections. Of this work, the third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth, books, were translated into Latin,

by

by Frederic Commandini of Urbino, and published with a commentary by the editor, Guido Ubaldi, 1588, folio. In 1644, father Mersenne gave a kind of abridgment of them, in his *Synopsis Mathematica*, containing only such propositions as could be understood without figures. At length, the whole of what remains of the Mathematical Collections, was published at Bologna, in 1660, folio, by Carol. Manoleffi, who seems to have spared no labour to render his edition complete and excellent, availing himself of the assistance of very able Greek scholars, and profound mathematicians. On the English reader Dr. Hutton has conferred a favour, by presenting him with a brief analysis of these "Collections," in his *Mathematical Dictionary*, art. *PAPVUS*.

PAPPUS (John), a learned German Lutheran divine and professor, was born at Lindau, on the banks of the lake of Constance, in the year 1549. Having been instructed in the rudiments of the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, languages at his native place, in the year 1502 he was sent to commence his academical studies at the university of Strasburg. In 1564 he removed to Tubingen, and took his first degree in philosophy; and in 1567 his father sent him to Strasburg to finish his studies. To that object he devoted his attention with great diligence and success, till the year 1569, when he was made minister of the church of Reichoville, though only twenty years of age. His abilities, however, were more mature than his years, and were so well known at Strasburg, that in the year 1570, he was recalled to that city, where he was first of all placed in the chair of Hebrew professor, and soon afterwards appointed professor of divinity, as well as one of the ministers in the church of that place. These preferments were followed by the title of master of philosophy, with which he was honoured by the university of Basil, in 1571. Two years afterwards he went again to Tubingen, and, after performing the requisite exercises in the schools with great applause, was admitted to the degree of doctor of divinity. In 1578, he was made pastor of the principal church at Strasburg; and, in 1581, he was appointed to the superintendence of that ecclesiastical district, which he exercised with great prudence and moderation, and to the entire satisfaction of the clergy who were under his inspection, during twenty-nine years. He died in 1610, in the sixty-first year of his age. He was the author of, 1. *Parva Biblia*, five *Synopsis Biblica*, *Summam continens totius S. Scripturæ methodicè digestam*; 12mo. 2. *Historia ecclesiastica Conversionis Gentium*, 8vo. 3. *Epitome Historiæ Ecclesiasticæ de Conversionibus Gentium, Persecutionibus Ecclesiæ, Hæresibus, et Conciliis Ecumenicis, ex præcipuis Scriptoris Ecclesiasticis collecta*, 8vo. 4. *Homiliæ Academicæ*, 8vo. 5. *Hypotyposis Doctrinæ Christianæ*, five *Institutio Christianæ Religionis de præcipuis quibusdam Articulis*, 8vo. 6. *Germaniæ veteris Descriptiones, ex probatis Auctoribus collectæ*. 7. *Descriptio omnium Regum et Prophetarum populi Indæici*, 8vo. 8. *Index Expurgatorius Librorum qui hoc sæculo prodierunt*, 1699, 12mo. 9. He published, in the original Greek, with an accurate and perspicuous Latin version of his own, a curious monument of antiquity, by an unknown author, entitled, *Συνδικον Περιεχον*; or, *Libellus Synodicus, omnes Synodos, tam Orthodoxas quam Hæreticas, brevi Compendio continens: quæ ab Apostolorum inde Tempore, usque ad octavam, super Unione Photii, et Johannis Papæ, Institutam, sunt celebratæ*, 1601. This work is inserted entire in the eleventh volume of Fabricius's *Bibl. Græc. Gen. Biog.*

PAPPY, *adj.* Soft; succulent; easily divided.—These were converted into fens, where the ground being sprung, sucked up the water, and the loosened earth swelled into a soft and pappy substance. *Burnet*.—Its tender and pappy flesh cannot at once be fitted to be nourished by solid diet. *Ray on the Creation*.

PAP'RA, a town on the west coast of Siam. Lat. 8. 10. N. lon. 98. 30. E.

PAPRE'MIS, or **PAPRIMIS**, in ancient geography, a

town of Egypt, and the capital of the Papremite nome. In this place the hippopotamus was regarded as a sacred animal; and Mars was honoured with a singular ceremony. Upon the festival appropriated to this deity, the priests bore upon a four-wheeled chariot the statue of the god, which was enclosed in a small chapel of gilt wood; and, while they endeavoured to force the chariot and statue into the temple of that divinity, men armed with clubs stood in the way to hinder it; and, as the priests who accompanied the procession had likewise arms, there ensued an engagement, when naturally many people must have lost their lives. The Egyptians, however, maintained that nobody died of the wounds they received upon that occasion.

PAPS, two remarkable hills on the north shore of Lake Superior, in North America.

PAPS (The), mountains of Ireland, in the county of Kerry: eight miles east of Killarney.

PAPS OF JU'RA. See **JURA**.

PAP'UA. See **NEW GUINEA**, vol. viii.

PAP'UDA BA'Y, a bay on the coast of Chili, in the South Pacific Ocean, five leagues north of the shoals of Quintaro, and four from port Liga; the water is deep, the anchorage good, and the entrance safe.

PAPULÆ, *f.* [Latin.] Eruptions of several kinds upon the skin.

PAPULA'RIA, *f.* in botany. See **TRIANTHEMA**.

PAPULOS'ITY, *f.* [from *papula*.] An eruption of pimples on the skin. *Bailey*.

PAP'ULOUS, *adj.* Full of pustules or pimples.

PAP'WORTH (Agnes and Evered), two villages in Cambridgeshire, eleven miles on the west side of Cambridge. The Ermin-street Roman way passes through the latter, from Holm to Huntingdon.

PAP'WORTH (Nether), a village in Huntingdonshire, between Great Paxton and Hilton.

PAPYRIFEROUS, *adj.* [from the Lat. *papyrus*, and *fero*, to bear.] Producing the papyrus. *Cole*.

PAPYR'IUS, *f.* [from *papyrus*.] A name given by Lamarck to the paper-mulberry, in allusion to the use made of its bark, from which most of the East Indian, Japanese, and Chinese, paper is prepared, as well as the cloth of Otaheite, &c. See **MORUS papyrifera**, vol. xvi. p. 49.

PAPYROPOLIST, *f.* [from the Gr. *παπωρως*, paper, and *πωλεω*, to sell.] One that sells paper. *Cole*.

PAPY'RUS, *f.* [Latin.] A kind of flag growing in moist places, which the ancients used instead of paper. See **CYPERUS papyrus**, vol. v.

PAQUASH'E LAKE, a lake of North America. Lat. 50. 48. N. lon. 93. 30. W.

PAQUILIGASTA, a town of South America, in the province of Tucuman: forty miles south-south-west of St. Miguel de Tucuman.

PAR, a river of Bavaria, which runs into the Danube four miles below Ingoldstadt.

PAR, *f.* [Latin.] State of equality; equivalence; equal value. This word is not elegantly used, except as a term of traffic.—To estimate the *par*, it is necessary to know how much silver is in the coins of the two countries, by which you charge the bill of exchange. *Locke*.—Exchequer-bills are below *par*. *Swift*.—My friend is the second after the treasurer; the rest of the great officers are much upon a *par*. *Swift*.

PARA, *f.* A small Turkey coin, forty of which are equal to a piastre; and contains three aspers.

PARA, *f.* A measure, in India, equal to five pecks, or 34 lb. 8 oz. 12 drams.

PARA, [signifying First or Greatest.] The name the Hindoo goddess Parvati, in her character of **PRAKRITI**; which see.

PARA, or **GRAND PARA**, the most northern of the colonies or governments of Brazil, in South America. This province comprehends that part of Guiana which belongs to the Portuguese, on the north side of the river Amazon, extending from the union of the river Madeira to

to the Atlantic, about 606 miles from east to west, and 200 from north to south. It produces abundance of cotton, sugar, vanilla, chocolate, coffee, and tobacco: a fleet laden with these articles has usually failed every year for Lisbon. The climate is extremely hot; and the woods abound with valuable timber of great solidity and brilliant colours, and some trees that yield odorous balsams. This province contains about 150,000 inhabitants.

PARA, the capital of the above jurisdiction, is situated at the mouth of the great river Tocantin, which receives that called Dos Bocas, into which a natural canal from the Maranon has been opened by the violent tides. This is a rich and handsome town, with two parish-churches, a college, and 15,000 inhabitants. Besides a citadel, it has a fortress, with a strong train of artillery, and a garrison of four companies. Lat. 1.45. S. lon. 50. W.

PARA, a river of Brasil, formed by the union of the Tocantin and the Guanapa. It is a large river, and runs about 120 miles in a north-easterly direction, separating the island of Marajo from the continent, and emptying itself into the Atlantic about twenty miles south of the line.

PARA, a river of Brasil, which rises about 150 miles west of Villarica, and runs into the St. Francisco in lat. 16. 50. S.

PARA, a town of Turkish Armenia: ninety miles north-north-east of Cars.

PARA HO'TUN, a town of Chinese Tartary, on the river Kerlon: 512 miles north of Pekin. Lat. 43. 6. N. lon. 113. 14. E.

PARABIT'TA, a town of Naples, in the province of Otranto: ten miles north-west of Alessano.

PAR'ABLE, *f.* [παράβολον, Gr. formed from παράβαλεν, to oppose, or compare.] A fable or allegorical instruction, founded on something real or apparent in nature or history; from which a moral is drawn, by comparing it with some other thing wherein the people are more immediately concerned.—In the *parable* of the talents, our Saviour plainly teacheth us, that men are rewarded according to the improvements they make. *Nelson*.

What is thy fulsome *parable* to me?

My body is from all diseases free.

Dryden.

Some make *parable* differ from fable; Grotius and others use the two terms promiscuously. Kircher derives the use of *parables* from the Egyptians.

Parable, according to the eminently-learned bishop Lowth, (Lectures on the Sacred Poetry of the Hebrews,) is that kind of allegory which consists of a continued narration of a fictitious event, applied by way of simile to the illustration of some important truth. The Greeks call these allegories *αἰναι*, or apologues; the Latins *fabule*, or fables: and the writings of the Phrygian sage, or those composed in imitation of him, have acquired the greatest celebrity. Nor has our Saviour himself disdained to adopt the same method of instruction, of whose *parables* it is doubtful, whether they excel most in wisdom and utility, or in sweetness, elegance, and perspicuity. This species of composition occurs very frequently in the prophetic poetry, and particularly in that of Ezekiel. If to us they should sometimes appear obscure, we must remember, that in those early times, when the prophetic writings were indited, it was universally the mode throughout all the eastern nations to convey sacred truths under mysterious figures and representations.

It is the criterion of a *parable*, that it be consistent throughout, and that the literal be never confounded with the figurative sense; and in this respect it materially differs from that species of allegory called the *continued metaphor*. (See Isaiah, v. 1-7.) It should be considered that the continued metaphor and the *parable* have a very different view. The sole intention of the former is to embellish a subject, to represent it more magnificently, or at the most to illustrate it; that, by describing it in more elevated language, it may strike the mind more for-

cibly: but the intent of the latter is to withdraw the truth for a moment from our sight, in order to conceal whatever it may contain ungraceful or disgusting, and to enable it secretly to insinuate itself, and obtain an ascendancy as it were by stealth. There is, however, a species of *parable*, the intent of which is only to illustrate the subject; such is that remarkable one of Ezekiel, (chap. xxxi.) of the cedar of Lebanon; than which, if we consider the imagery itself, none was ever more apt or more beautiful; of the description and colouring, none was ever more elegant or splendid; in which, however, the poet has occasionally allowed himself to blend the figurative with the literal description, (see ver. 11, 14-17.) whether he has done this because the peculiar nature of this kind of *parable* required it, or whether his own fervid imagination alone, which disdained the stricter rules of composition, was his guide, our learned author can scarcely presume to determine.

In the New Testament, the word *parable* is used variously. In Luke iv. 23. for a proverb, or adage; in Matth. xv. 15. for a thing darkly and figuratively expressed; in Heb. ix. 9, &c. for a type; in Luke xiv. 7, &c. for a special instruction; Matth. xxiv. 32. for a similitude or comparison.

Parables, or *similitudes*, are of two sorts, simple and compound. Those are called *simple*, in which one thing only is likened or compared to another in this manner: as swallows appear in summer, but in winter retreat; so false friends show themselves in prosperity, but fly all away, when adversity approaches. *Compound similitudes* are such wherein one thing is likened or compared to several others; as thus: What light is to the world, physic to the sick, water to the thirsty, and rest to the weary; that is knowledge to the mind. The more exact the agreement is between the things compared, they give the greater beauty and grace to the figure. *Ward's Orat.* vol. ii.

To PAR'ABLE, *v. a.* To represent by a *parable*.—That was chiefly meant, which by the ancient sages was thus *parabled*. *Milton's Doct. and Disc. of Div.*

PAR'ABLE, *adj.* [from *paro*, Lat. to prepare.] Easily procured. *Not in use*.—They were not well withers unto *parable* physic, remedies easily acquired, who derived medicines from the phoenix. *Brown*.

PARAB'OLA, *f.* [Latin.] A curve line arising from a cone's being cut by a plane parallel to one of its sides, or parallel to a plane that touches one side of the cone. See CONIC SECTIONS, vol. v.—Had the velocities of the several planets been greater or less than they are now, at the same distances from the sun, they would not have revolved in concentric circles as they do, but have moved in hyperbolas or *parabolas*, or in ellipses very excentrick. *Bentley's Serm.*

PARABOL'IC, or PARABOLICAL, *adj.* [from *parable*.] Expressed by *parable* or *similitude*.—The scheme of these words is figurative, as being a *parabolical* description of God's vouchsafing to the world the invaluable blessing of the gospel by the *similitude* of a king. *South*.—Having the nature or form of a *parabola*; [from *parabola*.]—The pellucid coat of the eye doth not lie in the same superficies with the white, but riseth up a hillock above its convexity, and is of an hyperbolical or *parabolical* figure. *Ray*.—The incident ray will describe, in the refracting medium, the *parabolic* curve. *Cheyne's Phil. Prin.*

PARABOL'ICALLY, *adv.* By way of *parable* or *similitude*.—The words, notwithstanding *parabolically* intended, admit no literal inference. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*—In the form of a *parabola*.

PARABOL'ICALNESS, *f.* The state of being *parabolical*.

PARABOL'IFORM, *adj.* Having the form of a *parabola*.

PARAB'OLISM, *f.* In algebra, the division of the terms of an equation, by a known quantity that is involved or multiplied in the first term.

PARABOLOID, *f.* A paraboliform curve in geometry, whose ordinates are supposed to be in subtriplicate, subquadruplicate, &c. ratio of their respective abscissæ. There is another species; for, if you suppose the parameter, multiplied into the square of the abscissa, to be equal to the cube of the ordinate; then the curve is called a semicubical *paraboloid*. *Harris*.

PARABOSCO (Girolamo), an Italian poet and miscellaneous writer, was born towards the beginning of the sixteenth century at Placentia. He appears to have been a musician by profession, and a maestro di capella. He wrote several comedies in prose and verse, which are said to possess a character of originality. He also composed a tragedy, entitled "Progne," printed at Venice in 1548. At the same place was printed in 1558 "Gli Disporti di Girolamo Parabosco," consisting of novels in the manner of Boccaccio and Bandello. He likewise published "Letters," and other works now forgotten.

Doni speaks very highly of this Parabosco, both as a writer and a musical composer and performer: "Whoever (says he) is endowed by heaven with the power of receiving and communicating pleasure, should imitate Parabosco; who, not content with that musical excellence, with which he has given such delight, both in public and private, and acquired such fame, has afforded equal pleasure by his literary and poetical talents, in the publication of works that are as much esteemed for their wit and learning as originality." Dr. Burney, whose curiosity was raised by this account, procured several of his musical compositions, as well as his *Disporti*, or Novels; which last he "purchased at an extravagant price, as curiosities, at the sale of the late Hon. Topham Beauclerc's books; but found, on perusal, that Doni spoke of them, as he did perhaps of his musical abilities, with the partiality of a friend. Some of the motets and madrigals he took the trouble to score, but found in them no subject, and but little design or contrivance; and, if his literary character did not impose on his friends, and on the writers who speak of his musical productions, his fame as a composer must have been established on some lost works superior to these, which are mere remplissage, or notes heaped on each other totally devoid of meaning with respect to melody."

PARABRAMA, a name given to the first of the gods of India.

PARABYS'TE, one of the five principal civil tribunals of Athens.

PARAC, a town of the island of Borneo: 200 miles north of Banjar Massim.

PARACA, a town of Peru, in the audience of Lima: twelve miles south of Pisco.

PARACALE, a town of the north coast of the island of Luçon. Lat. 14. 29. N. lon. 123. 19. E.

PARACELS. See **PRACELS**.

PARACELSIAN, *f.* A physician who follows the practice of Paracelsus.—The *Paracelsians* do use to give their patients, in this case, a kind of gentle vomit. *Ferrand on Love Melancholy*.

PARACELSIAN, *adj.* Denoting the medical practice of Paracelsus.—Joining the Galenical and *Paracelsian* physick together, making use of them both as occasion serves. *Hakewill on Providence*.

If that the *Paracelsian* crew
The virtues of this liquor knew,
Their endless toil they would give o'er,
And never use extractions more. *Nabbes's Poems*, 1639.

PARACEL'SUS, an extraordinary adventurer in chemistry and physic, is said to have been born at Einsieden, a little village near Zurich, in Switzerland, in 1493; and his father, called William de Hohenheim, is supposed to have been the natural son of a grand master of the Teutonic order, and a practitioner in medicine in Carinthia. With a view of dignifying himself and his family, his son assumed the names of *Philippus Aureolus Theophrastus*

Paracelsus Bombastus de Hohenheim. But Thomas Erastus affirms, that there was no family bearing any of these names in that part of Switzerland, either noble or ignoble; and Haller was credibly informed, that Paracelsus was a native of Gais, in the canton of Appenzel, and of an obscure family of the name of Hochener, which was still existing there. His father gave him early a turn for his own pursuits, and put him under the care of John Tritheimus, abbot of Spanheim, at that time eminent for his knowledge of the *spagirie art*, as chemistry in its infancy was called. He afterwards followed another master of the art, Sigismund Fugger; and from both these he learned many secrets. If any credit is due to his own statements, he received instructions from several other tutors, whom he has named; although, in one of his treatises, he denies having had any instructors at all.

He very soon commenced a sort of rambling life; for he says, he had examined the principles of the medical art with great attention, and found them defective and erroneous in all points; and therefore he resolved, after having visited the schools of France, Italy, and Germany, to travel in pursuit of medical truth, and not only to search for it among physicians and other learned persons, but among barber-surgeons, monks, conjurors, old women, and quacks of every description. He makes a pompous display of the names of all the countries which he thus visited, during a peregrination of several years, and of the important acquisitions in science which he thus collected, with the view of impressing on the world the highest opinion of his superiority; for he seems to have possessed the talents of imposing and successful quackery in an eminent degree. Even the learned Erasimus appears to have consulted him, especially after a fortunate cure of his friend Frobenius, the celebrated printer of Basle, in an attack of gout, (although the latter died of apoplexy a few months afterwards;) and Oporinus, an eminent citizen of that place, left his family to follow him. In the course of his travels he had doubtless collected much information concerning metallic chemistry; which, however, he perverted to the vain search of the philosopher's stone; and, by the bold use of some active medicines, especially mercury and opium, the administration and properties of which were not understood by medical men, he had certainly effected many cures, where ordinary medicine had failed; and, while these successful cases were blazoned forth with the usual exaggeration, the unsuccessful ones, and the mistakes, were long passed over in silence. To such a height, however, his reputation had been raised in Switzerland, that the magistrates of Basle were induced to engage him, at a large salary, to fill the chair of medicine in their university. In the years 1527 and 1528, he gave lectures daily, sometimes in barbarous Latin, but more frequently in German; and, although he at first acquired several enthusiastic adherents, yet the barbarism, vanity, and extravagance, of his lectures, at length disgusted the students, and he was soon left without an audience. Indeed nothing could exceed the ridiculous pride and bombast with which he assumed the supremacy, the monarchy, of medicine, and the contempt which he affected towards all the teachers and universities in the world. Seated in his professorial chair, at his first lecture he publicly burnt the works of Galen and Avicenna, averring that his cap contained more knowledge than all physicians, and that the hair of his beard had more experience than all the universities: "Greeks, Romans, French, and Italians," he exclaimed; "you Avicenna, you Galen, you Rhazes, you Mesue; you doctors of Paris, you of Montpellier, you of Swabia, you of Misnia, you of Cologne, you of Vienna; and all you throughout the countries that are washed by the Danube and the Rhine, and you who inhabit the islands of the sea, Athenian, Greek, Arab, and Jew; you shall follow and obey me; I am your king; the monarchy of physic is mine," &c. That such an extravagant enthusiast should not long retain his professorial chair might be

anticipated. A quarrel with the magistrates of Basle, on account of a decision against him in respect to a demand of fees, which was deemed exorbitant, increased his displeasure, and he suddenly quitted that place in 1528. From this time he resided chiefly in Alsace, and in different parts of Germany, leading a life of extreme intemperance, in the lowest company, being frequently in a state of continued intoxication for many days and nights in succession. Nevertheless he still maintained his reputation by the cures occasionally effected by his powerful remedies, though his failures were equally conspicuous. But the most signal failure of his boasted remedies occurred in his own person; for, after pretending to the power of extending human life to an indefinite limit by virtue of his *elixir*, he died in 1541, at an inn at Saltzburg, in the forty-eighth year of his age, in consequence of an attack of fever, and was buried in the hospital of St. Sebastian, to which he bequeathed the little property he possessed.

Notwithstanding the reputation, and the numerous eulogies bestowed on this singular man, it can scarcely be said that either scientific chemistry or medicine is much indebted to him for its advancement. The fundamental doctrines of his chemistry, which resolved every thing into *three elements*, salt, sulphur, and mercury, and which were for a long time received, were, in fact, borrowed from his predecessor, Basil Valentine. As to his medical skill, it consisted principally in the bold administration of some powerful remedies, which had been heretofore thought too dangerous to be used. His most favourite medicine was *opium*, a drug with which, it is obvious, he would be able in many instances to afford great and speedy relief; but with which also few permanent cures could be effected, and much mischief would necessarily be produced when it was misapplied. Antimony and mercury were also medicines which he liberally prescribed, and he used various preparations of them of the most active kind. He was indeed one of the first to employ mercury for the cure of the venereal disease; and of course he must, in this severe and newly-distinguished malady, have been successful in a degree to which none of his contemporaries, who did not resort to that remedy, could attain: and this success was a source of considerable emolument. In fact, he must be allowed to have conferred a substantial benefit on mankind, by the introduction of mercury as a cure of this malady: and in this point consists his principal merit in respect to medicine; for his total ignorance of anatomy and rational physiology, his inability from want of literature to investigate the doctrines of the ancients, which he so boldly impugned, and his employment of a barbarous jargon, as well as his infatuated notions of magic, astrology, geomancy, and all the other branches of mystical imposture, are totally adverse to any claim on his part to the improvement of medical science; and indeed he appears to have been entirely destitute of clear and methodical views upon any subject. We shall not pretend therefore to enter into any detail of the unintelligible jargon and absurd hypotheses which he employed, or to enumerate the immense farrago of treatises which made their appearance under his name after his death, the notices of which occupy above nine quarto pages in the Bibliotheca of Halle: for the first we are unable to comprehend, and the latter would be a waste of time. The most complete edition is that of Geneva, in three volumes folio, 1658. He published little while he lived.

PARACENTE'SIS, *f.* [from *παράπνεω*, Gr. to make a perforation.] A term in surgery, signifying the operation of tapping, or making an opening into the thorax, abdomen, or bladder, for the purpose of discharging the fluid confined in these parts in cases of empyema, hydrothorax, ascites, and retention of urine. See the article **SURGERY**.

PARACEN'TRIC, or **PARACENTRICAL**, *adj.* [*παρα*, beside or out of, and *κεντρον*, centre.] Deviating from circularity.—Since the planets move in the elliptick orbits,

in one of whose foci the sun is, and, by a radius from the sun, describe equal areas in equal times, we must find out a law for the *paracentric* motion that may make the orbits elliptick. *Cheyne's Philos. Prin.*

PARA'CHO, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Gohud: fifteen miles north of Narwa.

PARACH'RONISM, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρα*, beside, and *χρονος*, time.] False chronology; error in the computation of time.

PARACHUETE'AS, a town of West Florida, near the Apalachicola. Lat. 31. 24. N. lon. 85. W.

PARACHU'RECOIL, a town of Hindoostan, in Marawar: seven miles north-west of Tripatore.

PARACHUTE, *f.* [French; from *para*, against, and *chute*, fall.] A machine in the form of an umbrella, sometimes annexed to an air-balloon, and sometimes used separately, and serving to buoy up a heavy body in its ascent, or to prevent its precipitate fall (as its name imports) in the atmosphere. Umbrellas have been used for this purpose from remote times in various parts of the East Indies. In the "Historical Relation of the Kingdom of Siam," by M. de la Loubere, who visited that country in the years 1687 and 1688, we have an account of the manner in which umbrellas were employed in the diversions of the court of Siam. "There died one," says this writer, "some years since, who leaped from a hoop, supporting himself only by two umbrellas, the handles of which were firmly fixed to his girdle: the wind carried him accidentally sometimes to the ground, sometimes to trees or houses, and sometimes into the river. He so exceedingly diverted the king of Siam, that this prince had made him a great lord, he had lodged him in the palace, and had given him a great title, or, as they say, a great name."

This very dangerous amusement has been but lately exhibited among us. When the novelty of common ascents and descents with air-balloons began to wear off, Mons. Garnerin, a Frenchman, was, as we believe, the first who tried the experiment of descending under a parachute after detaching himself from his balloon. This was first performed in London in the year 1802. See **AIR-BALLOON**, vol. i. p. 220. (last edit.) A young lady, his daughter, performed the same intrepid feat at Paris on the 17th of March, 1815; and again, at Bourdeaux, on the 8th of February, 1818. She cut the rope when about 200 toises (1200 feet, near a quarter of a mile) from the ground.

PARACLE'TE, *f.* [*παράκλητος*, Gr. comforter, or advocate.] The title of the Holy Ghost; the intercessor, by way of distinction.—Whereas we know not what we should pray for as we ought, the Spirit itself maketh intercession for us with groanings which cannot be uttered; and he that searcheth the hearts knoweth what is the mind of the Spirit, because he maketh intercession for the saints according to the will of God. From which intercession especially I conceive he hath the name of the *Paraclete* given him by Christ. *Pearson on the Creed*.

Immortal honour, endless fame
Attend the Almighty Father's name:
The Saviour Son be glorify'd,
Who for lost man's redemption dy'd:
And equal adoration be,
Eternal *Paraclete*, to thee.

Dryden.

Any advocate or intercessor.—Bragging Winchester, the pope's *paraclete* in Englande, that is mayster of the stewes at London. *Bale on the Rev.*—He strengtheneth that conceit of the *paraclete*; by whom if he mean Montanus the arch-heretick, we need not much envy the cardinal for raising up so worshipful a patron of his purgatory. *Abp. Usher's Answer to the Jesuit Malone*.

PARAC'ME, *f.* [Gr. declension; from *παρα*, beyond, and *ακμη*, vigour, strength, or height.] Any thing past its height, or perfection. That part of life in which a person is past his full vigour; the vale of life.

PARACU'SIS,

PARACUSIS, *f.* [from the Greek.] Depraved hearing. The term is not applied to simple deafness, that is, to a mere diminution or abolition of the sense of hearing; but to those varieties of imperfect hearing, in which all sounds are heard incorrectly; as for instance, with hissing, ringing, or other noises; and to over-acute as well as obtuse powers of hearing. See Cullen's *Nofol. Meth.* Gen. 97.

PARADAN'GA, a town of Bengal: twenty-five miles east-north-east of Rungpore.

PARA'DE, *f.* [Fr. from *parata*, *paratura*, low Lat. ornaments. Our word was probably not admitted into use before the middle of the seventeenth century. Milton's is the earliest of Dr. Johnson's examples. Bishop Taylor writes it *parada*. "Nor may this be called an histrionike *parada*, or stagely vizard." Artif. Handsomeness, 1656. *Todd*.] Show; ostentation.—He is not led forth as to a review, but as to a battle; nor adorned for *parade*, but execution. *Granville*.

Be rich; but of your wealth make no *parade*,
At least before your master's debts are paid. *Swift*.

Procession; assembly of pomp:

The rites perform'd, the parson paid,
In state return'd the grand *parade*. *Swift*.

Military order:

The cherubim stood arm'd
To their night-watches in warlike *parade*. *Milton*.

Place where troops draw up to do duty and mount guard.—The place of trumpets and kettle-drums, of horse and foot guards, the *parade*. *Warburton's Letters to Hurd*.—Guard; posture of defence.—Accustom him to make judgment of men by their inside, which often shows itself in little things, when they are not in *parade*, and upon their guard. *Locke on Education*.—A public walk.—The *parade* originally consisted of a square court before cathedrals, surrounded with piazzas or porticoes for persons to walk under, being supported with pillars. It is now used, in a military sense, to signify any place where troops assemble, and may be distinguished in the following manner:

General PARADE, the place where soldiers belonging to different corps are drawn up, according to seniority, to mount guard, or to be exercised, &c.

Regimental PARADE, the place where any particular regiment or corps is formed in line, &c.

Private PARADE, any spot selected (in general by each captain of a troop or company) for the inspection of his men, previous to their being marched off to the regimental parade. This parade is likewise called *company* or *troop parade*. When troops are encamped, the general and regimental parades are usually in front of the line of tents; each regiment having its quarter-guard opposite, and the space between being sufficient to allow of the free exercise of the battalion. The companies have their private parades in the several streets of the camp. *James's Mil. Dict.*

PARADE-OFFICER, an officer who attends to the minutiae of regimental duty, but who is not remarkable for military science. *James's Mil. Dict.*

PARA'DE, *f.* [French.] In fencing, is the action of parrying or turning off any push or stroke. This is merely a French word.—There are as many kinds of *parades* as of strokes and attacks; as the *parade* inward, outward, above, below, feigned, &c. *Chambers*.

To **PARA'DE**, *v. n.* To go about in military procession:
I hate that drum's discordant sound,
Parading round and round and round. *Scott of Amwell*.
To assemble together for the purpose of being inspected or exercised.

To **PARA'DE**, *v. a.* To exhibit in a showy or ostentatious manner.

PARA'DE (La), a town of France, in the department of the Lot and Garonne; six miles east of Tonneins.

PARA'DE DE BOU'RO, a town of Portugal, in the province of Entre Duero e Minho: sixteen miles north-north-east of Braga.

PARADELLA, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira: twelve miles south-east of Lamego.

PARA'DES, a town of Spain, in the province of Seville: five miles south of Carmona.

PARADIES, a town of Prussia, in the province of Oberland: two miles south-west of Mohrungen.

PARADIG'M, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρά*, by the side of and *δεινμι*, to show.] An illustration by an example. A model.—The archetypal *paradigm*, the idea of ideas, or form of forms. *More's Song of the Soul*.—Your Greek too, I dare say, keeps pace with your Latin; and you have all your *paradigms* ad unguem. *Chesterfield*.

PARADIGMA'TICAL, *adj.* Exemplary.—Those virtues that put away quite and extinguish the first motions, are *paradigmatical*; that is, virtues that make us answer to the paradigm or idea of virtues exactly, viz. the intellect of God. *More's Song of the Soul*.

To **PARADIG'MATIZE**, *v. a.* To set forth as a model or example.—There is no one question concerning any line in those books so *paradigmatized* by you, or in any piece of divinity wherein I understand aught, but you or any man shall for the least asking have the full sense of your servant, H. Hammond. *Hammond to Cheyne*.

PAR'ADIN (William), an industrious French author, who flourished in the 16th century, but of whose personal history little more is known than that he was living about the year 1581. His most important works were, 1. The Chronicle of Savoy. 2. Aristæus's History of the Septuagint. 3. History of his own Time. 4. Memoirs of the City of Lyons.

PAR'ADIS, a village of Switzerland, on the left bank of the Rhine: two miles east of Scaffhausen.

PAR'ADISE, *f.* [*παράδεισος*, Gr. a garden.] The blissful regions in which the first pair was placed.—*Paradise* is in Hebrew פֶּרֶדֶס, *pardès*, from פָּרַד, to divide, to set apart; so that the real meaning of the word is a "sequestered retired place," which sense agrees exactly with the purpose for which the *pardès* was created. *Gleanings in Etymology*, now preparing for the press.

Longer in that paradise to dwell

The law I gave to Nature him forbids. *Milton*.

As to the *terrestrial paradise*, there have been many enquiries about its situation. Some, as Hardouin, &c. will have it in Judea, in the place where now is the lake Genesareth; others, as Le Clerc, &c. in Syria, towards the springs of the Orontes, and Chrysorrhoe; but in neither of those places do we discover any track of the rivers with which the paradise in Moses's description was watered. Calmet, and some other ingenious critics, have placed the terrestrial paradise in Armenia, near Mount Ararat, where Noah's ark was left; and imagine they there discover the sources of the four rivers which watered the garden of Eden, viz. Euphrates; Hiddekel, now the Tigris; Gihon, now Araxes; and Pison, now Phazzo. But sir J. Chardin assures us, in his *Travels*, that the Phazzo springs out of the mountains of Caucasus, northward of the kingdom of Imereti, and far enough from Mount Ararat: besides, that in Armenia we have no signs of the countries of Havila and Ethiopia, which those rivers washed after their departure from Eden.

There are various other opinions, as to this point: Poffellus will have paradise placed under the North Pole! grounding his notion upon an ancient tradition of the Egyptians and Babylonians, that the ecliptic or sun's way was at first at right angles to the equator; and so passed directly over the North Pole. Others are against limiting it to any one place, and contend, that it included the whole face of the earth, which was then, as it were, one continued scene of pleasures, till altered upon Adam's transgression. However, both these opinions are equally incompatible with the account in the book of Genesis.

Others,

Others, as Origen, Philo, &c. interpret the Scripture relation of paradise allegorically.

"Learned men," says Mr. Milne in his *Physico-Theological Lectures*, "have laboured to find out the situation of paradise, which seems to be but a vague and uncertain inquiry; for the Mosaic description of it will not suit any place on the present globe. He mentions two rivers in its vicinity, viz. Pison and Gihon, of which no vestiges can now be found. The other two still remain, viz. the Hiddekel, supposed to be the Tigris, and the Euphrates, whose streams unite together at a considerable distance above the Persian gulf; in some part of which, it is highly probable the happy garden once lay. This gulf is eastward both of the land of Midian and the wilderness of Sinai; in one of which places Moses wrote his history. But, since the formation of this earth, it has undergone great changes from earthquakes, inundations, and many other causes. The garden, however, seems to have been a peninsula, for the way or entrance into it is afterwards mentioned. We are told that a river *went out of it*; which, according to some, should be rendered 'ran on the outside of it,' and thus gave it the form of a horse-shoe: for, had the Euphrates run through the middle of the garden, one half of it would have been useless to Adam, without a bridge or boat wherewith to have crossed it."

The learned authors of the *Universal History*, in their account of rarities natural and artificial in Syria, mention "a spot which is still shown as the place where once stood the Garden of Eden, or terrestrial paradise; and indeed it is in all respects so beautiful and rich, and yields so delightful a prospect from the adjacent hills, that there is hardly another place in the world that has a fairer title to the name it bears. Its proximity to Damascus, the capital of Syria, near the fountain-head of the Jordan; its situation between the Tigris or Hiddekel, the Euphrates, the Phasis or Pison, the Araxes or Gihon (which last has those names from its vast rapidity above all other known rivers), its bordering upon the land of Chus, famed for its fine gold; all these and many other marks specified by Moses, together with its charming and surprising fruitfulness, and constant verdure, have induced a great number of commentators to settle that celebrated and so much sought-after spot here.

But the most common and probable opinion is that of Hopkinson, Huet, Bochart, &c. who place paradise in Chaldea between the confluence of the Euphrates and Tigris, and their separation. Here we find two of Moses's rivers by name; and below, we find the stream was parted into two large divisions, the eastern one of which may have been the Gihon, and the western the Pison. Ethiopia, one of the countries which these rivers washed, was incontestibly Arabia Deserta; for Moses calls his wife, who was of this country, an Ethiopian; and Havilah, the other country, must have been the Chusistan in Persia; where were anciently found gold, bdellium, the onyx, &c. mentioned in Moses's description. The difficulty in this system is, that Moses speaks expressly of four rivers, each of which had its source in the garden of Eden; whereas this gives us only two rivers, which were separated into four branches.

PARADISE is also used in the New Testament, and by Christian writers, for the final habitation of the blessed, or Heaven.—Heaven is called a *paradise*, because of the complete happiness, manifold delights, and intimate fellowship with God, that are there enjoyed. *Brown's Dict. of the Bible*.—Hence,

PARADISE is likewise taken for any place of felicity.—If ye should lead her into a fool's *paradise*, it were very gross behaviour. *Shakespeare's Rom. and Juliet*.

Why, Nature, bower the spirit of a fiend
In mortal *paradise* of such sweet flesh. *Shakespeare*.

PARADISE (Mahometan). See MAHOMETANISM, vol. xiv. p. 141.

PARADISE, a township of America, in Pennsylvania, in the county of York, containing 1548 inhabitants.

PARADISE (Bird of). See PARADISEA.

PARADISE SOUND, a bay on the south-west part of Placentia, on the coast of Newfoundland. Lat. 47. 30. N. lon. 54. 15. W.

PARADISEA, *f.* The BIRD of PARADISE; a genus of the order picæ, of which the generic characters are—Bill covered with a belt of downy feathers at the base; feathers of the sides very long; two of the tail-feathers naked; feet large and strong. These birds chiefly inhabit New Guinea, from which they migrate in the dry season into the neighbouring islands. Their feathers are used in those countries as ornaments for the head-dress; and the Japanese, Chinese, and Persians, import them for the same purpose. Among the latter, the principal people attach these brilliant collections of plumage, not only to their own turbans, but to the housings and harness of their horses.

1. *Paradisea apoda*, the greater bird of paradise: chestnut; neck beneath gold-green; feathers on the sides longer than the body; the two middle tail-feathers long and bristly. (There is a variety which is less, and the body above is yellow; the feathers on the sides are yellowish-white.) The two long tail-feathers are naked, straight, and tapering to the tip; the tail, as it is improperly called, is nothing more than the long feathers of the back and sides. These birds are found in the Molucca islands, and those surrounding New Guinea, particularly in Aroo, where they arrive with the westerly or dry monsoon, and whence they return to New Guinea, when the easterly or wet monsoon sets in. They are seen going and returning in flights of thirty or forty, conducted by a leader, which flies higher than the rest. During this flight they cry like starlings. By a sudden shifting of the wind, their long scapular feathers are sometimes so dishevelled as to preclude flying, when they fall to the ground, or are lost in the water. In the former case they cannot rise again into the air, without gaining an eminence; and are secured by the natives, and killed on the spot, as they cannot be preserved alive by art. They are likewise caught with birdlime, or shot with blunt arrows, or are sometimes intoxicated with the berries of *Menispermum cocculus* put into the water which they are accustomed to drink. Their real food is not known with certainty. According to some authors, they feed on the red berries of the *Ficus benjamina*, or waranga-tree; according to others, they are particularly fond of nutmegs; some assert they live on large butterflies and moths, and others that they chase and devour small birds.

No bird has given rise to more fables than this. Its residence was said to be in the earthly paradise. It was believed by the credulous and ignorant, that it lived alone upon the air and the dew; that it had no entrails, nor feet; but remained perpetually floating upon the air, while sleeping, as well as while awake; while hatching and laying, as well as while procreating its young. Instead of a stomach and intestines, which, to so extraordinary a feeder, would have been useless, the cavity of its abdomen was said to be filled with fat. The truth is, the hunters who procure and sell these birds, take out their entrails, the better to preserve and carry them, and perhaps too with a view to perpetuate the belief of those fables, which they have found so beneficial to their trade.

If any thing could give an air of probability to the perpetual flying of the bird of paradise, it might be its extraordinary lightness. A bird no larger than a thrush, swelled to an immense bulk by its feathers, is rendered specifically lighter than any other. "These feathers (says Vaillant) proceed from the sides, pass beyond the tail, with which they are blended, and form behind it a mass of extreme tenuity, light and transparent as air. Naturalists distinguish them by the epithet *subalarian*, because they have their origin under the wings. Their

total

3

1

2

4

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J. Pass. sc.

1. Greater Bird of Paradise. 2. Magnificent Bird of Paradise. 3. Lorget Bird of Paradise.
4. *Paramaecium oviferum*: 5. *marginatum*.

total amount exceeds 600, though Buffon mentions only 40 or 50 on each side. I have had the patience to count them in fifty individuals, all very entire; and I have reckoned from 260 to 310 on a side. Their forms, colours, and natures, vary according to their positions. The largest measure from twenty to twenty-two inches in length, and have long downy beards, which are so many small feathers, with their complete complement of beardlets, perfectly visible. They are of a bright-brown colour, and terminate in a long hairy filament. The secondary, which cover the first, have smooth and glossy beards, and are of a beautiful jonquil yellow. The third set is composed of feathers, similar to the secondary, which they cover. They are very narrow, present the same yellow hue at their bases, and are tipped with a glowing purple, finely contrasting with the yellow ground on which they are distributed by gradations, the smallest occupying the upper range. The space on the side between the thighs and breast, which is covered by all these subalarian feathers, scarcely exceeds two square inches. These gaudy appendages are closely pressed on one another, and imbedded so deeply, that their quills are visible through the skin, which they completely transpire; thus proving their insertion in an extensor muscle, which enables the bird to erect them at pleasure, like the peacock when he displays the glories of his rump-feathers, vulgarly and very improperly called his tail. This latter appellation has been also frequently bestowed on the subalarian plumage of the bird of paradise, though he has a distinct and very beautiful tail."

In some parts of India, the feathers of this bird bring a great price. They are extremely well suited for the ornaments of dress, both by their lightness and their lustre. About a century ago, they were employed in Europe for the same purposes for which those of the ostrich are now purchased.

What renders this bird still more remarkable, is two long naked feathers, like threads, that arise in the uropigium, above the false tail already described. These are of an enormous length, extending above a foot beyond the longest of that large mass. The head, back, and breast, of these birds, are covered with short straight feathers, which, to the touch, are soft like velvet. They are of different colours, and so changeable in their hue, that they vary continually, according to the different points from which they are viewed.

Belon pretends that the bird of paradise is the same with the phoenix of the ancients; but the countries which they inhabit are too distant for such an hypothesis; Egypt being the habitation of the latter, and the eastern parts of Asia that of the former. These notions, then, says Dr. Forster, are to be explained by the theology of Egypt. Though the birds of paradise were never known to the ancients, and though what has been said by the Egyptian priests concerning the fabulous phoenix, has but little agreement with the bird of paradise, yet it is remarkable that the names applied both by the Indian and European nations to these birds, appear to attribute something of a supposed celestial origin to them. In all probability, says Dr. Shaw, this notion has arisen merely from their transcendent beauty, and the singular disposition and delicacy of their plumage.

Margrave has inserted a description of this species in his History of the Birds of Brazil; but it does not appear that any of them were ever seen in America, unless it were those which were transported thither by the vessels that trade between Asia and that continent. It is extremely improbable that a bird, so little capable of directing its flight amidst a gentle breeze, should ever have attempted so long a voyage. The bird of paradise is confined within very narrow limits in that continent which it inhabits, and never has shown a disposition to go beyond them: it is not to be supposed, therefore, that it should ever have attempted to cross the Pacific Ocean.

The Portuguese first discovered these birds in the island Vol. XVIII. No. 1253.

of Gilolo; and they were known by the name of *birds of the fin*. The inhabitants of Ternate called them *manuco dawata*, "the bird of God;" whence the name *manucodiata*, used by some naturalists, is derived. According to them, these birds have no legs; and the error is scarcely at this moment wholly eradicated, as we find the species still called *apoda*. The circumstance which gave rise to it did not indeed at first proceed from an intention to deceive, but merely from accident: in the parts of the world which produce these birds, the natives made use of them as aigrets and other ornaments of dress, and in course threw away the less brilliant parts; all the trouble they were at on this occasion was merely to skin the bird, and, after cutting off the legs, the coarser part of the wings, &c. to thrust a stick down the throat into the body, letting an inch or two hang out of the mouth beyond the bill: on the bird's drying, the skin collapsed about the stick, which became fixed, and supported the whole. They had then no more to do than to put this end of it into a gold or silver socket fitted to receive it, or fasten it in some manner to the turban, &c. By degrees these were imported into the other isles for the same uses, and afterwards were coveted by the Japanese, Chinese, and Persians, in whose countries they are frequently seen, as well as in many parts of India; the grandees of these last parts not only ornamenting themselves with these beautiful plumes, but adorning even their horses with the same. These birds are not found in Key, an island fifty Dutch miles east of Banda; but they are found at the Arou islands, lying fifteen Dutch miles farther east than Key, during the westerly or dry monsoon; and they return to New Guinea as soon as the easterly or wet monsoon sets in. They come always in a flock of thirty or forty; and during their flight they cry like starlings. Their note, however, approaches more to the croaking of ravens; which is heard very plainly when they are in distress from a fresh gale blowing on the back of their plumage. In Arou, these birds settle on the highest trees; and the natives catch them with birdlime or in nooses, or shoot them with blunt arrows; but, though some are still alive when they fall into their hands, the catchers kill them immediately, not knowing their food; then they draw out the entrails, dry and fumigate the bodies with sulphur, and sell them at Banda for half a rix-dollar each. Flocks of these birds are often seen flying from one island to the other against the wind. In case they find the wind become too powerful, they fly straight up into the air, till they come to a current where it is less agitated, and then continue their flight. During the eastern monsoon their tails are moulting, so that they have them only during four months of the western monsoon. The dried specimens indeed, which are brought to Europe, present great diversity of appearance; in size, in the number and position of the feathers, in the colours of the plumage, &c. But, in such mutilated and imperfect preparations, it is impossible to decide what must be ascribed to the effect of age, of sex, of season, of climate, and of other accidental causes. Besides, the birds of paradise being very expensive articles of commerce, many other birds, with long tails and an elegant plumage, have been passed on the credulity of the public, and the legs and thighs pulled off, to conceal the fraud and enhance the price. We have already had an example in the paradise roller, mentioned by Edwards, on which the honours of mutilation had been conferred, in order to make it pass for a bird of paradise. This beautiful species is represented on the annexed Engraving, at fig. 1.

2. *Paradisea regia*, the king bird of paradise: body chestnut, whitish beneath, breast bluish; the two middle tail-feathers filiform, feathered, and semilunar at the tips.

The name of king-bird, given to this species by the English writers, had its origin in those fables that were propagated by the sailors, who retailed the fictions they had learned from the superstitious Indians. One of these was,

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that

that each species of the birds of paradise had its own king, to which every individual paid submission and obedience: that this king always flew in a higher region of the air than his subjects, from which he issued various orders to them; such as, to go and examine the springs where he might drink with safety, and to taste of them before him. This alleged king of the birds of paradise in many circumstances resembles the preceding; in more, perhaps, differs from it. His head is garnished with the same velvet covering; his eyes are equally small; and he has the two filous and naked feathers springing from the uropigium, and going greatly beyond the tail; and their extremity, which is furnished with webs, forms a curl, by rolling into itself, and is ornamented with spangles, somewhat like those of a peacock. He also has under the wing, on each side, a bunch of seven or eight feathers, which are longer than in most birds, but not so long as those of the greater bird of paradise, and of a different shape, for they are edged through their whole extent with webs of adhering filaments. The king-bird is smaller than the apoda; the wings are longer, the tail shorter. It is found on the islands of the Indian Ocean; and returns to New Guinea in the rainy season.

3. *Paradisea tristic*, the grakle bird of paradise: a triangular naked space behind the eyes; the head and neck brown. It is nine inches and a half long.

This bird has a great affinity in all its habits to the grakle genus; yet, on account of the downy feathers at the base of the bill, it is placed among the birds of paradise. It feeds upon insects, and the havoc which it makes is the more considerable, as it has a gluttonous appetite: the various sorts of flies and caterpillars are its prey. Like the carrion-crows and magpies, it hovers about the horses, the oxen, and the hogs, in search of the vermin which often torment these animals to such a degree as to exhaust them, and even occasion death. The patient quadrupeds are glad to get rid of these; and suffer, without molestation, often ten or twelve to perch on their back at once; but the intruders are not content with this indulgence; the skin need not be laid bare by a wound; the birds will peck with their bill into the raw flesh, and do more injury than the vermin which they extract. They may indeed be considered as carnivorous birds, whose prudence directs them to attack openly none but the weak and the feeble. A young one was known to seize a rat two inches long, exclusively of the tail, dash it repeatedly against the board of its cage, break the bones, and reduce every limb to a pliancy suited to its views; and then lay hold of it by the head, and almost in an instant swallow it entire. It rested about a quarter of an hour to digest, its wings drooping, and its air languid; but, after that interval, it ran with its usual cheerfulness; and about an hour afterwards, having found another rat, it swallowed that as it did the first, and with as little inconvenience. This bird is also very fond of grasshoppers; and, as it destroys immense quantities, it is a valuable guest in countries infested with these insects. It is found in India and the Philippines, and probably in the intermediate islands. These birds are not timorous, and are little disturbed by the report of a musket. They commonly take possession of certain trees, or even certain rows of trees, often very near hamlets, to pass the night. They alight in an evening in such immense bodies, that the branches are entirely covered with them, and the leaves concealed. When thus assembled, they all begin to chatter together, and their noisy society is exceedingly troublesome to their neighbours. Yet their natural song is pleasant, varied, and extensive. In the morning they disperse into the fields, either in small flocks, or in pairs, according to the season.

They have two hatches in succession every year, the first being in the middle of spring. Their nests are very rude, and they take no precaution to prevent the wet from penetrating. They fasten them in the leaves of the palm or other trees; and, when opportunity presents,

they prefer a hay-loft. These birds are warmly attached to their young: when their nests are about to be robbed, they flutter round, and utter a sort of croaking, which indicates their rage, and dart upon the plunderer: nor do their fruitless exertions extinguish their affection; they follow their brood, which, if set in a window or open place, the parents will carefully supply with food; nor will they in the least be deterred by anxiety for their own safety.

The young are quickly trained, and easily taught to talk. If kept in the poultry-yard, they spontaneously mimic the cries of all the domestic animals, hens, cocks, geese, dogs, sheep, &c. and their chattering is accompanied with certain accents and gestures which are very pleasing.

This bird is rather larger than a blackbird. The bill and legs are yellow as in these, but longer, and the tail shorter. The head and neck are blackish; behind the eye is a naked reddish skin, of a triangular shape; the lower part of the breast, and all the upper part of the body, including the coverts of the wings and of the tail, of a chestnut brown; the belly white; the twelve quills of the tail, and the middle quills of the wings, brown; the large ones blackish, from the tip to the middle, and thence to their origin white; which produces an oblong spot of that colour near the edge of each wing when it is closed; and in this situation the wings extend as far as two-thirds along the tail.

4. *Paradisea magnifica*, the magnificent bird of paradise: chestnut-brown above; chin green, with golden lunules; crown with a tuft of yellow feathers. It inhabits New Guinea, and is about nine inches long. It is a singularly-beautiful species. The first quill-feathers are brown, secondary deep yellow; middle tail-feathers very long, with a short fringe; legs and bill yellow, the latter black at the base and tip. The two tufts, which are regarded as the distinctive character of this bird, appear behind the neck, and at its origin. The first consists of several narrow feathers of a yellow colour, marked near the point with a small black spot, and which, instead of lying flat, in the usual manner, stand almost erect; those near the head at right angles, and the succeeding ones with smaller inclinations. Under the first tuft we perceive a second, which is larger, but not so much raised, and more reclined; it is composed of long detached filaments, which sprout from very short shafts, and of which fifteen or twenty join together, forming straw-coloured feathers. These feathers seem to be cut square at the end, and make angles, more or less acute, with the plane of the shoulders. This second tuft is bounded on the right and left by common feathers, variegated with brown and orange, and is terminated behind by a reddish and shining brown spot, of a triangular shape, with the vertex turned towards the tail, and the filaments of the feathers loose and decomposed, as is the second tuft.

Another characteristic feature of this bird is, the two filaments of the tail, which are about a foot long and a line broad, and of a blue colour, changing into a lucid green, and taking their origin above the tail. So far they much resemble the filaments of the preceding species, but are of a different form, for they do not end in a curl, and are furnished with webs on the middle only of the inner side. This is represented at fig. 2.

5. *Paradisea cirrata*, the crested bird of paradise: head, neck, and wings, black; tuft of hairs near the crown, and frontlet, yellow. Bill very long, black, hooked; tuft on the crown three inches high, rigid, appearing as if bristly: probably a variety of the preceding. Inhabits New Guinea; eighteen inches long.

6. *Paradisea nigra*, the gorget bird of paradise: black; beneath slight green; hind head, nape, crown, and band on the middle of the belly, fine green; under the chin a gold-coloured crescent. This elegant species is about the size of a blackbird in the body; which, from the tip of the bill to the insertion of the tail, measures no more than

than about six inches, the tail occupying all the rest. The bill is an inch in length, rather stout, moderately bent, and of a black colour: the forehead is furnished with tufted thick feathers, which occupy also the sides of the head; and beneath the eye, and round the throat, they are so full as to enlarge those parts considerably in bulk: the colour of this part of the plumage is black, and like plush or velvet; but from the root of the under mandible, at the chin, are a few feathers of the common structure, with webs: the back part of the head, nape, and hind part and sides of the neck, to the beginning of the back, are of a gilded green, but the feathers are not much unlike those in common, and which, in course, sitting closer to the skin, give those parts a flat appearance: at the angles of the mouth begins a line of the most brilliant gilded copper-colour imaginable, which passes beneath the eye, growing wider by degrees, and finishes in a kind of crescent or gorget, of half an inch or more in width, on the fore part of the neck; beneath this, to the vent, the colour is dull green, except on the middle of the belly, where there is a transverse bright-green band: the back is black, having both a copper and purple gloss, in different lights; wings deep black; beneath them the feathers are downy, but do not exceed at all in length, as in the other birds of paradise. The tail is of an enormous length, and consists of twelve feathers of unequal lengths, the two middle ones being near twenty-two inches long, and the outer one only five inches; the colour of all of them much the same as the hack of the bird. It inhabits the islands of the Indian Ocean. Extreme length, from the tip of the bill to the end of the tail, twenty-eight inches. It is represented, from Latham, at fig. 3.

7. *Paradisea leucoptra*, the white-winged bird of paradise: black; crown shining copper; quill-feathers white, edged with black on the outside; tail wedged. Length twenty-five inches; bill black, hardly curved; feathers on the chin long; tail very long, two middle feathers twenty, the rest seven, inches long.

8. *Paradisea superba*, the superb bird of paradise: slightly crested with gold-green; upper part of the throat violet, silky; wings black; under parts lively green. The predominant colour of the plumage of this bird is a rich velvet black, decorated under the neck with reflections of deep violet. Its head, breast, and the hind part of its neck, are brilliant, with the variable shades of a fine gold-green; the rest is entirely black, not even excepting the bill. It seems to want the filaments of the tail; but in other respects it resembles these birds, not only in its general shape, and in that of its bill, but is also related by the identity of climate, by the richness of its colours, and a certain superabundance of luxuriancy of feathers which is peculiar to the birds of paradise; for there are two small tufts of black feathers which cover the nostrils, and two other bunches of the same colour, but much longer, and directed to the opposite extremity. These rise on the shoulders, and spreading more or less over the back, but always bent backwards, form a sort of wings, which extend almost to the extremity of the true, when these are closed: these feathers are of unequal lengths, and those of the anterior surface of the neck and sides of the breast are very long and narrow. It inhabits New Guinea; and is about ten inches long.

9. *Paradisea furecata*, the furcated bird of paradise: black; under the wings a downy tuft; feathers in the middle of the belly like a forked tail, shining green. Described from an incomplete specimen in the late Leverian Museum.

10. *Paradisea aurea*, the golden bird of paradise. If we adopt the filaments as the generic character of the birds of paradise, the present is intitled to be ranged at their head; for, instead of two, it has six, and of these not one rises on the back, but all of them take their origin from the head, three on each side: they are half a foot long, and reflect backwards; they have no webs but

at their extremity for the space of six lines, and these are black and pretty long. Besides these filaments, this bird has two properties which belong to the bird of paradise; luxuriancy of feathers, and richness of colours.

The luxuriancy of feathers consists; 1. In a sort of tuft composed of stiff narrow feathers, and which rises at the base of the upper mandible. 2. In the length of the feathers of the belly and of the abdomen, which is four inches or more; one part of these feathers, extending directly, conceals the under-side of the tail, while another part, rising obliquely on each side, covers the upper surface of the tail as far as the third of its length; and all of them correspond to the subalar feathers of the greater bird of paradise.

With regard to the plumage, the most brilliant colours appear on the neck; behind, it is gold-green and bronze-violet; before, topaz-gold reflections, which wanton in all the shades of green, and derive new lustre from the contrast with the darkness of the contiguous parts; for the head is black, changing into a deep violet; and the rest of the body is brown, inclining to black, and with reflections of the same deep violet.

The bill of this bird is nearly the same as in the other birds of paradise; the only difference is, that its upper ridge is angular and sharp, while in most of the other kinds it is rounded. Nothing can be said with respect to the feet and legs, because they were extirpated in the subject from which this description is drawn; a practice which, as we have remarked, is usual with the Indian hunters or merchants. It inhabits New Guinea; and is about the size of a turtle-dove.

11. *Paradisea viridis*, the blue-green bird of paradise. If this bird has not the luxuriant plumage of the rest of the paradise tribe, it has at least the rich colours and the peculiar softness of texture. Its head is covered with a beautiful blue velvet, changing into green, and exhibiting the reflections of the beryl. The neck is clothed with a longer shag, but which dazzles with the same colours, except that, each feather being of a shining black in the middle, of a green changing into blue only at the edges, there result waving shades, which play still more than those of the head. The back, the rump, the tail, and the belly, are blue, like polished steel, and with very brilliant reflections. The small velvet feathers on the forehead project forward as far as the nostrils, which are deeper than in the preceding kinds. The bill is also longer and thicker; but it is of the same shape, and its edges are scalloped in the same manner near the point. It inhabits New Guinea, and is sixteen inches long.

12. *Paradisea alba*, the white bird of paradise. This is entirely white, and is the rarest of all the species. It is found in the Papuan islands.

β A variety, which is black on the fore-part, and white on the hind-part.

PARADIS'ACAL, *adj.* [from *paradise*.] Suited to paradise; making paradise.—The ancients express the situation of *paradisical* earth in reference to the sea. *Burnet's Th. of the Earth*.—Such a mediocrity of heat would be so far from exalting the earth to a more happy and *paradisical* state, that it would turn it to a barren wilderness. *Woodward's Nat. Hist.*—The summer is a kind of heaven, when we wander in a kind of *paradisical* scene, among groves and gardens; but at this season we are like our poor first parents, turned out of that agreeable though solitary life, and forced to look about for more people to help to bear our labours, to get into warmer houses, and hive together in cities. *Pope*.

PARADIS'IAN, or **PARADISE'AN**, *adj.* *Paradisical*. *Not now in use*.—Life's grapes, those *paradisical* clusters. *J. Hall's Poems*.—What the heathen poets recount of the happiness of the golden age, sprung from some tradition they received of the *paradisian* fare. *Evelyn*.

PAR'ADOS, *f.* in military affairs, an elevation of earth which is effected behind fortified places, to secure them from

from any sudden attack that may be made in reverse. *Parapet* and *parados* come from terms signifying, "in the front" or "in the rear" of any thing. *James's Mil. Dict.*

PAR'ADOX, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρά*, against, and *δόξα*, opinion.] A tenet or proposition seemingly absurd, because contrary to received opinion; but yet true in effect. —The Copernican system is a *paradox* to the common people; but the learned are all agreed as to its truth. *Chambers*. —'Tis an unnatural *paradox* in the doctrine of causes, that evil should proceed from goodness. *Holyday*.

You undergo too strict a *paradox*,
Striving to make an ugly deed look fair. *Shakespeare*.

PARADOX'AL, *adj.* Paradoxical. *Phillips*.

PARADOXI, or **PARADOXOL'OGI**, *f.* among the ancients were a kind of mimes, or buffoons, who diverted the people with their drolling. They were also called *ordinarii*, for this reason apparently, that, as they spoke without study or preparation, they were always ready. They had other denominations, as *niaticologi*, or tellers of children's tales; and *aretalogi*, of *ἀρετή*, virtue, because they talked much of their own rare talents and qualifications.

PARADOX'IAL, *adj.* Having the nature of a paradox; seemingly contradictory; inclined to new or unpopular opinions. *Ash*.

PARADOX'ICAL, *adj.* Having the nature of a paradox. —Strange it is, how the curiosity of men that have been active in the instruction of beasts, among those many *paradoxical* and unheard of imitations, should not attempt to make one speak. *Brown's Vulg. Errors*. —Included to new tenets, or notions contrary to received opinions.

PARADOX'ICALLY, *adv.* In a paradoxical manner; in a manner contrary to received opinions. —If their vanity of appearing singular puts them upon advancing paradoxes, and proving them as *paradoxically*, they are usually laughed at. *Collier on Pride*.

PARADOX'ICALNESS, *f.* State of being paradoxical.

PARADOXOL'OGY, *f.* The use of paradoxes. —Perpend the difficulty, which obscurity or unavoidable *paradoxology* must put upon the attempter. *Brown*.

PARADROME, *f.* [Greek.] A gallery or passage without any covering over head.

PARAGANA. See **PERGUNNA**.

PARAGAUDÆ, *f.* among the Romans, a sort of wreaths, either wholly of gold, or of silk adorned with gold, which were interwoven in garments, and not sewed to them. The garment was sometimes of one colour, in which was woven one paragauda; others were of two colours, and had two paragaudæ; and some had three colours, and three paragaudæ. They were worn both by men and women.

PARAGE, *f.* [*paragium*, Lat.] In law, an equality of blood or dignity; but more especially of land, in the partition of an inheritance between coheirs.

Parage is more properly used, in ancient customs, for an equality of condition among nobles, or persons holding nobly. Thus, when a fief is divided among brothers; in this case, the younger hold their part of the elder by *parage*; i.e. without any homage or service.

The Customary of Normandy defines tenure by *parage* to be, when, a noble fief being divided among daughters, the eldest does homage to the chief lord for all the rest, and the youngest hold their parts of the rest by *parage*, i.e. without any homage or fealty.

PARAGO'GE, *f.* [Greek.] A figure whereby a letter or syllable is added at the end of a word, without adding any thing to the sense of it; as *vast*, *vastly*. *Johnson*. —This is an unfortunate example or illustration, because the affix *ly* changes the adjective into an adverb. We find in Latin *mirari* for *mirari*, *dicier* for *dier*, &c. and this *er* is often added to passive deponent verbs in the infinitive, (from which the *er*, a very common ending of

French verbs, took its origin.) We have also *potestur* for *potest*, and others; but few true paralogical instances are to be found in modern languages. The old definition in the following distich is correct:

A *paragoge* adds unto the end,
Yet not the sense, but measure, to amend.

And in fact, the *er* above mentioned is never used but in poetry, to obtain a syllable where it is wanted. Plautus and Terence yield many examples; and we have some in Virgil, &c. *Gleanings in Etymology*, MS.

PARAGOG'IC, or **PARAGOGICAL**, *adj.* Belonging to the grammatical figure called *paragoge*.

PARAGOG'ICALLY, *adv.* In a paralogical manner.

PAR'AGON, *f.* [*paragon*, from *parage*, equality, old Fr. *paragone*, Ital.] This word crept from Italian into French, and we received it from the latter. It comes originally perhaps from two Greek words, *παρά* and *ἀγων*, above contest; a *paragon*, *παράγων*, being a thing incontestably excellent, a pattern, a model. —Tunis was never graced before with such a *paragon* to their queen. *Shakespeare's Tempest*.

An angel! or, if not,
An earthly *paragon*. *Shakespeare*.

Companion; fellow. —Alone he rode without his *paragon*. *Spenser*. —Emulation:

Bards tell of many women valorous,
Which have full many feats adventurous
Perform'd, in *paragone* of proudest men. *Spenser*.

A match for trial of excellence:
Minerva did the challenge not refuse;
But deign'd with her the *paragon* to make. *Spenser*.

Then did he set her by that snowy one,
Like the true faint beside the image set,
Of both their beauties to make *paragone*,
And trial, whether should the honour get. *Spenser*.

To PAR'AGON, *v. a.* To compare; to parallel; to mention in competition. —The picture of Pamela, in little form, he wore in a tablet, purposing to *paragon* the little one with Artessia's length, not doubting but even, in that little quantity, the excellency of that would shine through the weakness of the other. *Sidney*.

I'll give thee bloody teeth,
If thou with Cæsar *paragon* again
My man of men. *Shakespeare*.

To equal; to be equal to:
We will wear our mortal state with her,
Catharine our queen, before the primeest creature
That's *paragon'd* i' th' world. *Shakespeare's Hen. VIII*.

To PAR'AGON, *v. n.* To pretend equality or comparison. —He should convert his eyes to see the beauty of Dorothea, and he should see that few or none could for feature *paragon* with her. *Shelton's Don Quixote*.

PAR'AGON, one of the largest of the Calamianes Islands, in the Eastern Indian Sea.

PARAGONG'. See **PARO**.

PARAGOR'IC. See **PARAGORIC**.

PAR'AGRAM, *f.* [Greek.] A kind of play upon words. *Not now in use*. —Aristotle, in the eleventh chapter of his book of rhetoric, describes two or three kinds of puns, which he calls *paragrams*. *Addison's Spect.* N° 61.

PAR'AGRAPH, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρά*, through, and *γραφα*, to write.] A distinct part or division of a chapter or section, sometimes marked thus ¶. —Of his last *paragraph*, I have transcribed the most important parts. *Swift*.

To PAR'AGRAPH, *v. a.* To divide into paragraphs.

PARAGRAPHICAL, *adj.* Having distinct sections; disposed in proper paragraphs.

PARAGRAPH'ICALLY, *adv.* By paragraphs; with distinct breaks or divisions.

PARAGUA'RI,

PARAGUA'RI, a town of Brasil, on the river of the Amazons: 230 miles west of Fort Rio Negro. Lat. 3. 10. S. lon. 65. 56. W.

PARAGUA'Y, [q.d. Kingly Stream.] A river of South America, which rises about lon. 58. W. between the 5th and 6th degrees of S. latitude. Its course is almost due south, till it joins the Plata in lat. 28. S. lon. 60. 36. W.

PARAGUA'Y, a province of South America, in the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres called the *Government of Paraguay*. Paraguay was first discovered by Sebastian Cabot, who, coming to the river Plata in the year 1526, sailed up the Parana in some small barks, and thence entered that of Paraguay. He was succeeded, in 1536, by Juan de Ayalas, to whom Don Pedro de Mendoza, the first governor of Buenos Ayres, had given a commission, together with a body of troops, military stores, and other necessities; and afterwards, by his orders, Juan de Salinas founded the city of Nuestra Senhora de la Assumption, the capital of the province. But the discovery of the whole, and consequently the conquest of the people who inhabited it, being still imperfect, it was prosecuted by Alvaro Nunez, surnamed *Cabeza de Baca*, or "Cow-head," whose eminent services, on the death of Mendoza, procured for him the government of Buenos Ayres. The only settlements, in the whole extent of this government, are the city of Assumption, Villa Rica, and some other towns inhabited by converted Indians, who were once entirely under the administration of the Jesuits. The province is distinguished by its fertility; and, though it produces none of the precious metals, it is the most opulent in the new viceroyalty, on account of its various vegetable productions, and the prodigious herds of horses, mules, cattle, and sheep, which enliven its extensive plains. The northern parts, however, of Paraguay have been little explored, as the settlements of the Jesuits were chiefly in the southern skirts, and among the adjacent Abipons and Guaranis.

It was in the year 1580 that the Jesuits were first admitted into these fertile regions, where they afterwards, in the reign of Philip III. founded the famous Missions, which in Europe have been known under the name of *Paraguay*, but in America *Uruguay*, from the river of that name on which they were situated. Actuated by motives of religion and of interest, they were diligent and zealous in the service assigned them of converting the Indians to the Catholic faith; and by a gradual progress their labours were attended with very considerable success. The Jesuit missionaries had previously stipulated with the court of Spain, that, for the more effectual accomplishment of their purposes in converting and civilizing the Indians, they should be independent of the governors of the province, and that they should annually receive from the royal treasure 60,000 piastres for defraying the expenses of cultivation; on condition that, as colonies were formed and the lands cultivated, the Indians should pay yearly a piastre per head to the king, from the age of eighteen to sixty. The Jesuits, thus encouraged, embarked in the execution of their enterprise with singular resolution and ardour; and, notwithstanding the difficulties with which they had to contend, succeeded in civilizing the barbarous Indians, introducing among them useful and polite arts, and forming them into a state of mutual affection and amity, of profitable labour and domestic comfort. Their missions extended over a country which contained about 200 leagues north and south, and about 150 east and west; and the number of inhabitants was about 300,000.

The country was divided into parishes, and each parish was under the direction of two Jesuits, who officiated, the one as rector, and the other as curate. The establishment was supported at an expense, which, comprehending the magnificent structure and ornaments of the churches, was not very considerable; as the Indians supported them-

selves by their own labour. The products of the ground and cattle belonged to the Jesuits, who provided instruments of various trades, for glaſs, knives, needles, chaplets of beads, gunpowder, and muskets. Their annual revenues consisted in cotton, tallow, leather, honey, and more especially *mate*, or herb of Paraguay, (see *ILEX vomitoria*.) monopolized by the society, and yielding, according to the statement of Dr. Robertson in his History of America, 100,000l. annually. The whole system of administration, planned and conducted by the Jesuits, was so formed as to keep the Indians in perfect subordination to the rectors; whilst they were provided with means of instruction in various departments of science, such as music, painting, sculpture, and architecture, and also of manufactures and trade; and at the same time their attention was directed to the regular performance of religious ceremonies and duties. See the article *JESUIT*, vol. x. p. 787, 8. and, for a more particular account of the management of the Jesuits in the government of this country, see the *Gentleman's Magazine* for Jan. 1753.

While the society of Jesuits were thus employed in extending its missions and establishing its authority, their designs and labours were suddenly terminated by the Spanish court, which, in 1767, decreed their expulsion throughout its widely-spread dominions. When their effects in this province were confiscated, it was expected that large sums of hoarded money would have been found; but these, in their whole amount, were very trifling. Their magazines indeed, were furnished with all sorts of merchandize, consisting of the products of the country, and of goods imported from Europe; the number of their slaves was also very considerable, inasmuch, that at Cordova alone they reckoned 3500.

PARAGUA'Y, or PALAWAN, the most westerly of the Philippine islands, about 180 miles in length, and 21 in breadth: 190 miles east-north-east of Mindanao. Lat. 8. 12. to 11. 31. N. lon. 117. 21. to 119. 40. E.

PARAGUR', a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Gohud; in ruins: twenty-five miles south of Narwa.

PAR'AH, a town of Bengal: ten miles west of Rogonattpour. Lat. 23. 30. N. lon. 86. 39. E.

PAR'AH, *f.* A corn-measure in the East Indies. At Madras, the parah should measure 3750 cubic inches, and weigh 148lbs. avoirdupois of fresh spring-water. When grain is sold by weight, 115lbs. are reckoned for the parah.

PARAIBA, or PARA-IBA, a town of Brasil, and capital of a province or captaincy of the same name, which it derives from that of a river, on the south bank of which it is situated, about ten miles from the sea; the river being navigable above the town for ships loaded with 600 or 700 hogheads of sugar. The harbour is large, but rather dangerous on account of the sand-banks. The town has many stately houses, decorated with marble pillars, besides large warehouses and magazines for the accommodation of merchants; and the mouth of the river is defended by three forts. The Portuguese, who took possession of this town and territory in 1584, after having expelled the French, have increased its buildings, planted sugar-canes, and erected sugar-mills. The whole territory is fertile in sugar-canes; and abounds in Brasil-wood, cattle, tobacco, cotton, &c. It is sixty miles north of Pernambuco. Lat. 7. 15. S. lon. 34. 3. W.

PARAIBA DE SUL', a river of Brasil, which runs into the Atlantic in lat. 7. 15. S.—There is another river in the south, of the same appellation.

PAR'AKIN, a town of Servia: thirty-two miles north-north-west of Nissa, and sixty-eight east-south-east of Belgrade.

PARALAPUT'TY, a town of Hindoostan, in Mysore: ten miles from Sankeridugam.

PARALEP'SIS, *f.* [Greek.] An omission; the act of passing over.

PARALIAS, *f.* in botany. See *EUPHORBIA*.

PARALIPOM'ENA, *f.* [from the Gr. παραλειπω, I pass by.] A supplement of things omitted and forgotten

in some preceding work, or treatise. In the canon of Scripture, there are two books of Paralipomena, called in the English version Chronicles; being a supplement to the four books of Kings, the two first of which are also called books of Samuel.—Quintus Calabar has a work, entitled the *Paralipomena* of Homer. *Chambers*.

PARALIP'SIS, *f.* [Greek.] A figure in rhetoric in which we affect to pass over what nevertheless we particularly mention.

PARALLACTIC, or PARALLACTICAL, *adj.* [from *parallax*.] Relating to parallax.

PAR'ALLAX, *f.* [*παράλλαξις*, Gr.] An arc of the heavens intercepted between the true place of a star and its apparent place. The true place of a star is that point of the heavens in which it would be seen by an eye placed in the centre of the earth: the apparent place is that point of the heavens in which the star appears to an eye on the surface of the earth. See the article ASTRONOMY, vol. ii. p. 415, 16.—Light moves from the sun to us in about seven or eight minutes time, which distance is about 70,000,000 English miles, supposing the horizontal *parallax* of the sun to be about twelve seconds. *Newton's Optics*.

By what strange *parallax* or optic skill
Of vision multiply'd.

Milton's P. R.

PARALLAX, is also used to denote the change of place in any object arising from viewing it obliquely with respect to another object. Thus the minute-hand of a watch is said to have a parallax when it is viewed obliquely; and the difference between the instants shown by it, when viewed directly and obliquely, is the quantity of parallax in time.

PAR'ALLEL, *adj.* [from the Gr. *παρα*, by the side, and *αλλος*, another.] Extended in the same direction; always preserving the same distance.—Distorting the order and theory of causes perpendicular to their effects, he draws them aside unto things whereto they run *parallel*, and their proper motions would never meet together. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*—Having the same tendency.—When honour runs *parallel* with the laws of God and our country, it cannot be too much cherished; but, when the dictates of honour are contrary to those of religion and equity, they are the great depravations of human nature. *Addison*.—Continuing the resemblance through many particulars; equal; like.—The foundation-principle of peripateticism is exactly *parallel* to an acknowledged nothing. *Glanville*.—I shall observe something *parallel* to the wooing and wedding suit in the behaviour of persons of figure. *Addison*.—In the *parallel* place before quoted. *Leffie*.—Compare the words and phrases in one place of an author, with the same in other places of the same author, which are generally called *parallel* places. *Watts*.

PAR'ALLEL, *f.* Line continuing its course, and still remaining at the same distance from another line:

Who made the spider *parallels* design,
Sure as De Moivre, without rule or line?

Pope.

Direction conformable to that of another line:

Disensions, like small streams, are first begun;
Scarce seen they rise, but gather as they run;
So lines, that from their *parallel* decline,
More they proceed, the more they still disjoin.

Garth.

Resemblance; conformity continued through many particulars; likeness:

*Twixt earthly females and the moon
All *parallels* exactly run.

Swift's Miscell.

Comparison made.—A reader cannot be more rationally entertained, than by comparing and drawing a *parallel* between his own private character and that of other persons. *Addison*.—Any thing resembling another.—Thou ungrateful brute, if thou wouldst find thy *parallel*, go to hell, which is both the region and the emblem of ingratitude. *South's Sermons*.

For works like these, let deathless journals tell,
None but thyself can be thy *parallel*.

Pope.

PARALLELS, or *Parallel Circles*, in geography, called also *Parallels of Latitude*, are smaller circles of the sphere, conceived to be drawn from west to east through all the points of the meridian; commencing from the equator, to which they are parallel, and terminating with the poles. They are called parallels of latitude, because all places lying under the same parallel have the same latitude.

Parallels of Declination, in astronomy, are the same with parallels of latitude in geography.

PARALLEL SAILING. See the article NAVIGATION, vol. xvi. p. 624.

PARALLEL SPHERE, that situation of the sphere in which the equator coincides with the horizon, and the poles with the zenith and nadir. In this sphere, all the parallels of the equator become parallels of the horizon; consequently no stars ever rise or set, but all turn round in circles parallel to the horizon; and the sun, when in the equinoctial, wheels round the horizon the whole day. After his rising to the elevated pole, he never sets for six months; and, after his entering again on the other side of the line, he never rises for six months longer. This position of the sphere is their's who live under the poles, if any such there be; their sun being never above $23^{\circ} 30'$ high.

To PAR'ALLEL, *v. a.* To place, so as always to keep the same direction with another line.—The Azores having a middle situation between these continents and that vast tract of America, the needle seemeth equally distracted by both, and, diverting unto neither, doth *parallel* and place itself upon the true meridian. *Brown*.—To keep in the same direction; to level.—The loyal sufferers abroad became subjected to the worst effect of banishment, and even there expelled and driven from their flights; so *paralleling* in their exigencies the most immediate objects of that monster's fury. *Fell*.

His life is *parallel'd*

Ev'n with the stroke and line of his great justice. *Shakesp.*

To correspond to.—That he stretched out the north over the empty places, seems to *parallel* the expression of David, he stretched out the earth upon the waters. *Burnet*.—To be equal to; to resemble through many particulars.—In the fire, the destruction was so swift, sudden, vast, and miserable, as nothing can *parallel* in story. *Dryden*. To compare.—I *paralleled*, more than once, our idea of substance, with the Indian philosopher's he-knew-not-what, which supported the tortoise. *Locke*.

PARALLEL'ABLE, *adj.* That may be equalled.—Our duty is seconded with such an advantage, as is not *parallelable* in all the world beside. *Bp. Hall's Remains*.

PAR'ALLELESS, *adj.* Not to be paralleled; matchless:

Is she not *paralleless*? is not her breath
Sweet as Arabian winds when fruits are ripe?

Beaumont and Fletcher.

PAR'ALLELISM, *f.* The quality of a parallel, or that which denominates it such: or it is that whereby two things (e. g. lines, rays, or the like,) become equidistant from one another. State of being parallel.—Resemblance; comparison.—From a close *parallelism* of thought and incident, it is clear that either Browne's pastoral imitates Fletcher's play, or the play the pastoral. *Warton's Notes on Milton*.

PARALLELISM of the EARTH'S AXIS, in astronomy, is that invariable situation of the earth's axis, in its progress through its orbit, whereby it still looks nearly to the same point of the heavens, viz. towards the pole-star; so that, if a line be drawn parallel to its axis while in any one position, the axis, in all other positions or parts of the orbit, will always be nearly parallel to the same line. This parallelism is the necessary result of the earth's double

double motion; the one round the sun, the other round its own axis. It is to this parallelism that we owe the vicissitudes of seasons, and the inequality of day and night.—Speaking of the *parallelism* of the axis of the earth, I demand, whether it be better to have the axis of the earth steady and perpetually parallel to itself, or to have it carelessly tumble this way and that way? *Ray on the Creation.*

PAR'ALLELLY, *adv.* With parallelism.—The bony matter of the teeth consists of a number of layers which are disposed *parallelly* in respect to the pulp and to each other. *Scott's Outlines of Anatomy.*

PARALLELOGRAM, *f.* [from the Gr. *παράλληλος*, parallel, and *γραμμή*, a figure.] A quadrangular plain figure whose opposite sides are parallel and equal; an oblong.—We may have a clear idea of the area of a *parallelogram*, without knowing what relation it bears to the area of a triangle. *Watts's Logic.*

PARALLELOGRAM'MIC, or PARALLELOGRAMICAL, *adj.* Having the properties of a parallelogram.

PARALLELOPIPED *f.* [from *parallel*, and *πυς*, Gr. foot.] A solid figure contained under six parallelograms, the opposites of which are equal and parallel; or it is a prism, whose base is a parallelogram: it is always triple to a pyramid of the same base and height. *Harris.*—Two prisms, alike in shape, I tied so, that, their axes and opposite sides being parallel, they composed a *paralleloiped*. *Newton's Optics.*—Crystals that hold lead are yellowish, and of a cubic or *paralleloiped* figure. *Woodward.*

PARALLELOPIPED, *adj.* Belonging to a prism whose base is a parallelogram.

PARALLELOPLEURON, *f.* [from *parallel*, and *πλευρον*, a side.] A term used by some writers for an imperfect parallelogram, or a kind of trapezium, having unequal angles and sides, but which observe a certain regularity and proportion.

To PARALOGISE, *v. n.* [from *paralogy*.] To argue sophistically. *Scott.*

PARALOGISM, *f.* [from *paralogy*.] A false argument.—If a syllogism agree with the rules given for the construction of it, it is called a true argument; if it disagree with these rules, it is a *paralogism*, or false argument. *Watts.*

PARALOGY, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρα*, against, and *λογος*, reason.] False reasoning.—That Methuselah was the longest liver of all the posterity of Adam, we quietly believe; but that he must needs be so, is perhaps below *paralogy* to deny. *Brown.*

To PAR'ALYSE, *v. a.* [from *paralysis*.] To strike as it were with the palsy; to render useless. A modern word.

Or has taxation chill'd the aguish land,
And *paralys'd* Britannia's bounteous hand;
London Cries, or Pictures of Tumult, &c. 1805.

PARALYSIS, *f.* [Greek.] A palsy.

PARALYTIC, *f.* One struck by a palsy.—The *paralytic* was with much labour let down through the roof to our Saviour's cure. *Bp. Hall's Rem.*—If a nerve be cut or freightly bound, that goes to any muscle, that muscle shall immediately lose its motion; which is the case of *paralytics*. *Derham.*

PARALYTIC, or PARALYTICAL, *adj.* Palsied; inclined to palsy.—The difficulties of breathing and swallowing, without any tumour, after long diseases, proceed commonly from a resolution or *paralytical* disposition of the parts. *Arbuthnot.*

Nought shall it profit, that the charming fair,
Angelic, softest work of heaven, draws near
To the cold shaking *paralytic* hand,
Senseless of beauty.

Prior.

PARAMARIBOO', a town of South America, and capital of Surinam, situated on the west coast of the Surinam river, and about eighteen miles from the sea, with a good harbour. The number of houses is about 1400,

chiefly built of timber, and 5000 inhabitants. It contains two churches, and two Jewish synagogues. The streets are all perfectly straight, and lined with trees, such as oranges, lemons, shaddocks, and tamarinds. Lat. 5. 48. N. lon. 55. 11. W.

PARAM'BAH, a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: seventeen miles east of Bahar.

PARAMECIUM, *f.* in helminthology, a genus of vermes of the order infusoria, or worms generated in infusions. Generic characters—Body very simple, pellucid, flat, oblong; invisible to the naked eye. There are eight species, five of which have been slightly noticed under the article ANIMALCULE, vol. i. p. 720.

1. *Paramecia aurelia*: compressed, longitudinally plaited towards the fore part, behind it is acute. This, says Mr. Adams, is rather a large animalculum, four times longer than broad; the fore part is obtuse, transparent, and apparently without intestines; the hind part is filled with molecules of various sizes. The fold that goes from the middle to the apex is a striking characteristic of the species, forming a kind of triangular aperture, and giving it somewhat the appearance of a gimblet. Its motion is rectilinear, reeling, or staggering, and generally vehement. This species is frequently found in ditch-water, and in infusions, cohering lengthwise; the lateral edges of both bodies appear bright. They may sometimes be seen lying on one another alternately, at others adhering by the middle. They will live many months in the same water, without its being renewed.

2. *Paramecium chrysalis*: has been described and figured under the article HELMINTHOLOGY, vol. ix. p. 362.

3. *Paramecium oviferum*: depressed, with large oval molecules within: the body is oval, pellucid, with black grains towards one end. This is represented, magnified, from Adams's Hist. of the Microscope, on the preceding engraving of PARADISEA, at fig. 4.

4. *Paramecium marginatum*: depressed, grey, with a double margin. It is one of the largest of the genus; flat, elliptical, and in every part filled with molecules, except at the lower end, where there is a pellucid vesicle. It is surrounded by a broad double margin; and, at the moment of its expiring, a bright spiral intestine is observable. See fig. 5 of the same plate.

5. *Paramecium caudatum*: pointed at both ends; the middle broader, and filled with molecules. It is found in waters among duck-weed; its motion is very slow.

6. *Paramecium anceps*: tail two-edged, head obtuse. The motion of this animalculum is very slow. It is found in the water in which the plant hydrocharis is produced.

7. *Paramecium acutum*: tail two-edged; head acute; inhabits stagnant water; is slow in its motions, but continually agitating its tail.

8. *Paramecium versutum*. This species, mentioned by Adams, but not by Gmelin, is cylindrical; the lower part thick, and both ends very obtuse. It has an oblong green gelatinous body, filled with molecules; the lower part is thick, the fore part is smaller, both ends are obtuse, and they may be seen to propagate by division. It is found in ditches.

PAR'AMENT, *f.* [French.] An ornament for an altar; robes of state. *Chaucer.*—A hunting term; the red flesh under the skin of a deer.—In masonry, a uniform course of stones.

PARA'MES, a town of New Jersey: fifteen miles north of Newark.

PARAMESE or PARAMESOS, *f.* in the ancient music, the ninth chord or sound in the scale. The word is Greek, and signifies "next to the middle;" its situation, in the first state of the scale, being next above the *meze*, or middle chord, which answers to *a-la-mi-re* of Guido's scale.

The same word is used by some to express the ring-finger, that next the middle.

PARAMESWA'RA, a name given to the Hindoo deity.

deity Siva. Hindoos of some sects give this name exclusively to Brahmā, the supreme ruler: others apply it to the deity whom they more particularly worship. In one of the Puranas, Lechemi is invoked under the name of Paramaishwarya-rupini, meaning "with the countenance of Parameshwara."

PARAMETER, *f.* A constant right line in each of the three conic sections; called also *latus rectum*.—In the parabola, the rectangle of the *parameter*, and an abscissa, is equal to the square of the correspondent semi-ordinate; in an ellipsis and hyperbola, the *parameter* is a third proportional to a conjugate, and transverse axis. *Chambers*.—See CONIC SECTIONS.

PARAMITHIA, a town of Greece, in Albania, with about 9000 inhabitants, according to Dr. Holland.

PARAMO (Luiz de), a native of Borox, in the diocese of Toledo, archdeacon and canon of Leon, and afterwards inquisitor in Sicily, is author of a most extraordinary work, entitled "De Origine et Progressu Officii Sanctæ Inquisitionis, ejusque Dignitate et Utilitate," which was undertaken under the patronage of D. Gaspar de Quiroga, then archbishop of Toledo, and inquisitor-general; and which was pronounced by Nicholas Antonio to be a work full of various learning. It was printed in folio at Madrid in 1598, and afterwards at Antwerp in 1614; and a copy of the first edition is in Dr. Williams's Library in Red-cross-street, London. Mr. Southey, in the General Biography, has given an analysis of this book, from whose account we shall give a few extracts, to show the inquisitor's mode of reasoning.

Paramo begins by proving God to have been the first inquisitor, who convicts Adam and Eve of heresy, infidelity, apostasy, and blasphemy. God cited Adam, otherwise the process would have been null. On Adam's appearance, he made *inquisition* into the crime. The man accused his wife, and then the judge questioned her: he did not examine the serpent, because of his obstinacy. The examinations were secret and separate, that there might be no collusive lying. He calls no witnesses; and affirms that conscience and confession are as a thousand witnesses, and save the judge all the trouble, except that of condemning. The whole, he says, was done secretly, that it might be a precedent for the holy office; and so closely does this holy office observe the precedent, that they make the dress of penitent offenders after the very pattern of the clothes which God made for Adam and Eve, and confiscate all the property of a heretic, because Adam and Eve were turned out of paradise. The author then goes on to show that Abraham was an inquisitor; so were David and Solomon. Zimri, who slew his master, was of the holy office; so was Elijah. Elisha and Jehu also are among the heroes of persecution; and Nebuchadnezzar most unexpectedly proves to be an inquisitor also. Under the Gospel, Christ was the first inquisitor: for the lice who devoured Herod, and the rulers who spoiled the Jews, only executed the sentences of death and confiscation which he had pronounced. James and John thought the Samaritans should be destroyed by fire: "here," says Paramo, "is the natural and ordained punishment of heretics! fire! the Samaritans were the heretics of those days, and all the apostles were lawful inquisitors!"

Such is his theory: let us now pass on to the practice; and here Paramo must be admitted to be an unexceptionable authority. He was an inquisitor himself; he wrote under the auspices of the inquisitor-general; and his book, with all the passports of the inquisition affixed to it, was printed at Madrid. The great work of desolation began at Guadaloupe in 1485. One heretical monk, and fifty-two Judaizers, as they are called, of both sexes, were then burnt alive, with the bodies of six-and-forty dug from their graves, and the effigies of twenty-five, who had happily effected their escape. How many were doomed to lighter punishment is not stated; they are said to have been innumerable. The lightest of them

was to wear a dress which was a warning to all Catholics to shun them; to be, both they and *their posterity for ever*, excluded from all offices of trust and honour, and prohibited from all ornaments and even neatness of dress, on pain of death. This was the lightest punishment. All professed Jews were ordered to leave the kingdom within a month: at the expiration of that time strict search was made, and about two thousand burnt in different parts of the country, to diffuse terror. As the inquisitors were exercising this office under the immediate eye of their great goddess of Guadaloupe, they were very desirous that she should testify her approbation by a miracle. Dr. Francisco Sancho de la Fuente, one of the three presidents, recorded sixty which were vouchsafed upon this occasion, and then desisted from the vain attempt at keeping pace with them. By the year 1520, above four thousand persons had been burnt alive in the diocese of Seville, and above thirty thousand deplored of all that they had, and condemned to perpetual infamy, they and their children after them, from generation to generation, for ever and ever! The whole number of persons in that diocese executed, made infamous, and driven into exile, exceeded 100,000; and in the city of Seville three thousand houses were left desolate.

A third of the confiscated property went to the royal treasury, a third to the extraordinary expenses of the faith (among which it is to be presumed fuel was included), and a third to the inquisition. "Instigated by the devil, there were some," he says, "who remonstrated with Hernando, and more particularly with Isabel, upon the ruin and desolation which they were bringing upon their kingdom; Isabel replied, that the destruction of heresy was more important than all other considerations." Appeals were made to the avarice of these worthy colleagues in catholicism and empire, and large sums offered for toleration or individual immunity. Torquemada, the grand inquisitor, was fearful how this might influence them; he entered the palace, and, taking a crucifix from under his habit, exclaimed, "Behold the image of our crucified Redeemer, whom Judas sold to his enemies for thirty pieces of silver: if ye approve that bargain, sell him now for a higher price; I abdicate my office! this shall not be imputed to me! you shall render the account of your bargain to God!"

Paramo himself was one of the most savage practical inquisitors that ever existed. He says, that in the course of a hundred and fifty years, the inquisition had burnt 30,000 witches: and he claims great part of the merit for himself, saying he had punished very many of them.

PARAMO'RES, a small island in the Atlantic, near the coast of Virginia. Lat. 37. 36. N. lon. 75. 44. W.

PARAMONDRA. See PYROMACHUS.

PAR'AMOUNT, *adj.* [*par* and *monter*, Fr.] Superior; having the highest jurisdiction: as, lord *paramount*, the chief of the feignory: with *to*.—Leagues within the state are ever pernicious to monarchies; for they raise an obligation, *paramount* to obligation of sovereignty, and make the king, *tanquam unus ex nobis*. *Bacon*.—The dogmatist's opinioned assurance is *paramount* to argument. *Glanville*.—Mankind, seeing the apostles possessed of a power plainly *paramount* to the powers of all the known beings, whether angels or demons, could not question their being inspired by God. *West on the Resurrection*.—Eminent; of the highest order.—John-a-Chamber was hanged upon a gibbet raised a stage higher in the midst of a square gallows, as a traitor *paramount*; and a number of his chief accomplices were hanged upon the lower story round him. *Bacon*.

PAR'AMOUNT, *f.* The chief:

In order came the grand infernal peers;
Midst came their mighty *paramount*.

Milton.

PARAMOUNT, in our law, signifies "the supreme lord of the fee, of lands, tenements, and hereditaments." There may be a tenant to a lord who holdeth himself of

of another lord; in respect whereof the former lord is called *lord mesne*, and the latter *lord paramount*. All honours, which have manors under them, have the lord paramount. But even the term lord paramount is only comparative; for, as one may be great, compared to a less; and little, being compared with a greater; so none truly seems to be lord paramount but the king, who is patron paramount to all the benefices in England.

PARAMOUR, *f.* [*par* and *amour*, Fr. "*Par amour*, I loved her." Chaucer, C. T. ver. 1157. This is an old expression. See Froissart, c. 196. "*Il aime adonc par amours*, et depuis espousa, madame Yfabelle de Juilliers." And Boccace, Decam. x. 7. *Per amore amiate*. From hence *paramour*, or *paramours*, in one word, was used vulgarly to signify love. *Thyrcyhit*.—These are the quotations of Mr. Todd in his edition of Johnson's Dictionary. But our Etymological Gleaner remarks, that the expression in Chaucer, although it appears very pretty, is by no means correct French. "*Je l'aimai par amour*," without any adjective, would have been pleonastic; but "*Je l'aimai d'amour pur, de pur amour*," would have been good French. Let us then suppose that *par amour* may have been corrupted into *paramour*; or (as the words are not explained at the head of the article) that *paramour* may signify, "my equal in love;" *par-in-amore*, Ital.] A lover or wooer.—She doted upon their *paramours*. *Ezek.* xxiii. 20.

A lovely bevy of fair ladies sat,
Courtied of many a jolly *paramour*.

Spenser.

A mistress:

Shall I believe

That unsubstantial death is amorous,
And that the lean abhorred monster keeps
Thee here in dark to be his *paramour*?

Shakespeare.

A rival:

And ever, when he came in companie
Where Calidore was present, he would loure
And byte his lip, and even for jealousy
Was readie oft his owne hart to devoure,
Impatient of any *paramoure*.

Spenser.

PARAMOUSI'R, or POROMASHIR, the second of the Kurile or Kurilskoi islands; between which and Shoontshu the strait is but two versts broad. It extends from north-east to south-west, and is twice as large as Shoontshu, and, according to Capt. Cook, is the largest of the Kuriles under the dominion of Russia. The land is very high; and, when visited by Cook's navigators, in his Third Voyage, Oct. 13, 1779, it was entirely covered with snow. It is richly furnished with roots and minerals, but destitute of wood. Here is no scarcity of red foxes, wolves, and all kind of mice. Mr. King places the south end of this island in lat. 49. 58. N. and the north end in lat. 50. 46. lon. 156. 14. E.

PARAMUT'TY, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic: ten miles south-west of Coveriporum.

PARAN, [Heb. beauty.] A tract in Arabia the Stony, between the south of Canaan and the eastern gulf of the Red Sea; or rather it extended, when taken at large, as far as Sinai. *Deut.* xxxiii. 2. *Hab.* iii. 3. It is said, that part of it next Sinai abounded with bushes; but in the main, it was, and still is, a frightful desert. As for the houses, they were generally holes dug in the earth; but there was a city called Paran in it, whence Hadad took his guides to conduct him to Egypt. *1 Kings*, xi. 18. Dr. Shaw thinks its extent from Kadesh-barnea on the north, to Sinai, was about 110 miles; but it seems to have extended to the north-east of Kadesh, as David lurked in it when he was near Maon and south Carmel, (*1 Sam.* xxv. 2.) and perhaps it was the inhabitants of this part of it that Chedorlaomer ravaged before he attacked the Sodomites, (*Gen.* xiv. 6.) In the wilderness of Paran, probably to the south-west of Beer-sheba, Ishmael and his mother Hagar took up their residence, (*Gen.* xxi. 21.)

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and hence the Ishmaelites dispersed themselves into the regions about. There seems to have been another place called *Paran* on the east of Jordan. *Deut.* i. 1.

PARA'NA, a town on the west coast of the island of Samar. Lat. 11. 54. N. lon. 124. 48. W.

PARA'NA, a town of Brasil, on the coast of the island of Marajo. Lat. 6. 12. S. lon. 51. 36. W.

PARA'NA, the longest and most considerable stream of the Rio de la Plata, which rises in the grand mineral mountains of Brasil, in 19° south lat. and bending south then west till it receives the Iba Parana, after which it bends south-west till it is joined by the Paraguay; while the conjunct rivers are still called *Parana* by the natives, and *Rio de la Plata* by the Spaniards. Yet the length of the Paraguay, according to the map of La Crux, does not yield above half a degree to that of the Parana; and the straightness of its course gives it the appearance of the principal river. The grand cataract of the Parana is in lat. 24°, not far from the ruined town of Cuayra; but is rather a series of rapids, for a space of 12 leagues, amidst rocks of tremendous and singular forms. Dobrizhoffer asserts that the Parana is the chief stream, which receives the Paraguay and Uruguay. The inundations are chiefly in December and January, rising about five or six yards above the islets. This noble river is studded with numerous islands; and Spanish vessels navigate to the town of Assumption, about 400 leagues from the sea. On the shores are often found goods, inclosing crystals; but the natural history of the Parana is almost as obscure as that of the true Maranon. The breadth of the estuary is such, that the land cannot be discovered from a ship in the middle of the stream. *Pinkerton*.

PARANAGUA, a river of Brasil, which runs into the Atlantic in lat. 25. 30. S.

PARANAMERIN, a river of Brasil, which runs into the Atlantic in lat. 2. 50. S. lon. 42. 46. W.

PARANAPANE'MA, a river of Paraguay, which runs into the Parana.

PARANETE, *f.* in the ancient music, was a name sometimes used to signify the next note or chord to the *nete*, or last note of a tetrachord. Hence it might be called the penultimate chord. It was otherwise, and more properly, called the *lichanos*, or index.

PARANOMASIA, *f.* A figure that occurs when two words, very near in sound, but different in sense, respect each other in the same sentence. This is usually called a pun.

PARANOO', a river of Malacca, which runs into the sea in lat. 4. 40. N. lon. 103. 25. E.

PARAN'TES, a town of France, in the department of the Landes: thirty-three miles north of Tartas.

PAR'ANYMPH, *f.* [Greek.] Among the ancients, the person who waited on the bridegroom, and directed the nuptial solemnities; called also *promubus*, and *auspex*, because the ceremony began with taking auspices.—As the *paranymp* only officiated on the bridegroom; on the part of the bride a woman officiated, who was called *promuba*. The Jews had likewise a kind of *paranymp*s, which the Talmud and rabbins call *חַבְדִּים*, *shushchebim*, q. d. "companions of the spouse." *Chambers*.—Contrary to the above, and other authorities of great respectability, Dr. Johnson defines *paranymp*, a bridegroom; one who leads the bride to her marriage:

The Timnian bride

Had not so soon preferr'd

Thy *paranymp*, worthless to thee compar'd,

Successor in thy bed.

Milton's S. A.

One who countenances or supports another.—Sin hath got a *paranymp* and a solicitor, a warrant and an advocate. *Bp. Taylor's Worthy Communicant*.

PAR'APEGM, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρεα*, with, and *πηνυμι*, to prove.] A brazen table fixed to a pillar, on which laws and proclamations were anciently engraved. Also a table set up publicly, containing an

account of the rising and setting of the stars, eclipses of the sun and moon, the seasons of the year, &c. whence astrologers give this name to the tables on which they draw figures according to their art. *Phillips*.—Our forefathers, observing the course of the sun, and marking certain mutations to happen in his progress through the zodiac, set them down in their *paraepems*, or astronomical canons. *Brown's Vul. Err.*

PARAPEG'MATA, *f.* The tables on which the astrologers draw their figures.

PAR'APET, *f.* [from the Ital. *parare*, to guard, and *petto*, the breast.] A wall breast-high. See **FORTIFICATION**.—There was a wall or *parapet* of teeth set in our mouth to restrain the petulance of our words. *B. Jonson*.

PAR'APH, *f.* A particular character, knot, or flourish, which people habituate themselves to make always in the same manner at the end of their name, to prevent their signature from being counterfeited.—The *paraph* of the kings of France used to be a grate, which the secretaries always place before their own, in all letters, &c. *Chambers*.

PARAPHERNALIA, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρά*, besides, and *φερν*, dower.] Goods which a wife brings her husband besides her dower, and which are still to remain at her disposal exclusive of her husband, unless there is some provision made to the contrary in the marriage-contract. Some of our English civilians define the paraphernalia to be such goods as a wife challengeth over and above her dower or jointure, after the husband's death; as furniture for her chamber, wearing-apparel, and jewels, which are not to be put into the inventory of her husband's goods. A French civilian calls paraphernalia the moveables, linen, and other female necessities, which are adjudged to a wife in prejudice of the creditors, when she renounces the succession of her husband.—In one particular instance the wife may acquire a property in some of her husband's goods, which shall remain to her after his death, and shall not go to his executors. These are called her *paraphernalia*; which is a term borrowed from the civil law, and is derived from the Greek language, signifying something over and above her dower. Our law uses it to signify the apparel and ornaments of the wife, suitable to her rank and degree: the jewels of a peeress, usually worn by her, have been held to be *paraphernalia*. *Blackstone*.

PARAPHIMO'SIS, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρά*, back, and *φίμω*, to bridle.] A disorder of the penis, in which the prepuce is drawn backward, behind the glans, and cannot be brought forward again. The complaint is the very reverse of *phymosis*, which is attended with a contraction of the opening of the prepuce, so that the glans cannot be uncovered. Both these diseases are mostly the consequence of an inflammatory thickening of the prepuce, arising from the irritation of gonorrhœa, a chancre, or simple excoriations.—*Paraphimosis* very frequently follows *phymosis*, by the thickened prepuce being very improperly drawn back behind the glans. *Chambers*.—See the article **SURGERY**.

PARAPHO'NIA, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρά*, and *φωνή*, the voice.] A depraved sound of the voice in speaking. See **PATHOLOGY**.

PARAPHONIA, in music, is that species of concord which results from different sounds, as the fifth and fourth: and thus it differs from *homophonia*, which is produced by the same sounds, as in the unison; and from *antiphonia*, or the replication of the same sounds, as in the octave.

PARAPH'ORA, *f.* A word used by the ancients to express a slight kind of delirium, or light-headedness, in a fever: some have made it to signify a delirium in general.

PAR'APHRASE, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρά*, with, and *φρασ*, a speech.] A loose interpretation; an explanation in many words.—In *paraphrase*, or translation with latitude, the author's words are not so strictly followed as his sense, and that too amplified, but not altered: such is Mr. Waller's translation of Virgil's fourth *Æneid*. *Dryden*.—Colomesius looks on Erasmus's *Paraphrase* on the New Testament as so extraordinary a work, that he makes no

scruple to declare, he thinks the author to have been divinely inspired when he penned it. *Chambers*.

PARAPHRASE, Chaldee. See **TARGUM**.

To PAR'APHRASE, *v. a.* To interpret with laxity of expression; to translate loosely; to explain in many words.—I could find in my heart, nay I can scarce hold from reading and *paraphrasing* the whole chapter to you: but for brevity's sake, and on promise that you will at your leisure survey it, I will omit to insist on it. *Hammond*.—We are put to construe and *paraphrase* our own words, to free ourselves from the ignorance and malice of our adversaries. *Stillington*.

To PAR'APHRASE, *v. n.* To make a paraphrase.—Where translation is impracticable, they may *paraphrase*.—But it is intolerable, that, under pretence of *paraphrasing* and translating, a way should be suffered of treating authors to a manifest disadvantage. *Felton on the Classics*.

What needs he *paraphrase* on what we mean?

We were at worst but wanton; he's obscene. *Dryden*.

PAR'APHRAST, *f.* A lax interpreter; one who explains in many words.—The fittest for public audience are such as, following a middle course between the rigor of literal translators and the liberty of *paraphrasts*, do, with great shortness and plainness, deliver the meaning. *Hooker*.

PARAPHRASTIC, or **PARAPHRASTICAL**, *adj.* Lax in interpretation; not literal; not verbal.—It is the genius, nay, the very essence, of oriental poetry, to be so very *paraphrastic* in itself, as not to admit of further dilatation in any modern version. *Mason on Ch. Music*.

PARAPHRASTICALLY, *adv.* In a paraphrastic manner.—Touching translations, it is to be observed, that every language hath certain idioms, proverbs, and peculiar expressions, of its own, which are not rendible in any other, but *paraphrastically*. *Howell*.—Chapman, in his translation of Homer, professes to have done it somewhat *paraphrastically*, and that on set purpose. *Dryden*.

PARAPHRENI'TIS, or **PARAPHRENSIS**, *f.* [not derived, it would appear, from *φρη*, the mind, and therefore synonymous with *phrenitis*, or phrensy; but from *φρεν*, præcordia; and it is therefore synonymous with **DIAPHRAGMITIS**.] An inflammation of the diaphragm. The symptoms are a violent fever, a most exquisite pain increased upon *inspiration*, by which it is distinguished from a pleurisy, in which the greatest pain is in *expiration*. *Arbuthnot*.

PARAPHROS'YNE, *f.* in the writings of some physicians, a slight and transitory derangement of the intellect, or non-febrile delirium, especially the temporary delirium occasioned by intoxicating and narcotic substances, such as spirituous liquors, opium, stramonium, hyoscyamus, hemp or bang, nightshade, hemlock, the betel-leaf, &c.

PARAPI'TI. See **MADEIRA RIVER**.

PARAPLE'GIA, or **PARAPLEX'IA**, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρά*, through, and *πλησσω*, I strike.] A palsy affecting the whole body below the neck. See **PALSY**, p. 302.

PARAQUI'TO, *f.* A little parrot:

Come, come, you *paraquito*, answer me

Directly to this question that I ask. *Shakespeare*.

PARARYTH'MUS, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρά*, besides, and *ρυθμός*, a number.] A pulse not suitable to the age of a person.

PAR'ASANG, or **FARSANG**, *f.* [*parasang*, low Lat. *parafange*, Fr. *παράσαγγης*, Gr.] A Persian measure of length.—Since the mind is not able to frame an idea of any space without parts, instead thereof it makes use of the common measures, which, by familiar use, in each country, have imprinted themselves on the memory; as inches and feet, or cubits and *parasangs*. *Locke*.—To see so much difference betwixt words and deeds, so many *parasangs* betwixt tongue and heart! *Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy*.

This measure has been different at different times, and in

in different places; being usually thirty, sometimes forty, and sometimes sixty, stadia or furlongs. Cafaubon cites a fragment of the architect Julian, who says, that the most common measure of the parasang, in his time; was forty stadia; and, reckoning each stadium at 125 geometrical paces, they would hereby avoid fractions in the computation of distances; 40 stadia, of 125 paces each, making 5000 Roman paces.

The parasang, at a mean, (says major Rennell,) was little short of $3\frac{1}{2}$ British miles. The parasanga of Xenophon was no more than 3 Roman miles, or 2.78 British. Herodotus and Xenophon say, that the parasanga consisted of 30 stadia; and, as these may be supposed to have been of the Grecian itinerary standard, the parasanga would be equal to 2.9 British miles, or $\frac{3}{4}$ only longer than that of Anabasis. *Renuell's Illustration of the Expedition of Cyrus.*

PARASAO'LI, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Jyenagur: fifteen miles north-north-east of Jyepour, and eighty-five west of Agra. Lat. 27. 10. N. lon. 76. 48. E.

PARASCE'NIUM, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρα*, beyond, and *σκηνη*, a scene.] The back part of the stage in the Grecian and Roman theatres, whither the actors withdrew to drefs and undrefs. The Romans more frequently called it *postscenium*.

PARASCE'VE, [Greek.] The sixth day of the last week of Lent, popularly called Good Friday. St. John says, our Saviour was crucified on the parasceve of the Passover, i.e. on the eve or day of preparation of the Passover: for Isidore and Papias observe, that the word in the original Greek signifies *preparation*, and was applied among the Jews to Friday, because on that day they used to prepare what was necessary for the celebration of the Sabbath. Exod. xv. 23. xxxv. 2, 3. Hence, what our translation of the New Testament renders "preparation of the sabbath," M. Simon and some others call *parasceve*.—It was the *preparation*; that is, the day before the sabbath. *Mark* xv. 42.—It was the *parasceve*, which is, the sabbath-eve. *Ibid.* *Rhemish Translation*.—And hence the word is used to signify any solemn preparation.—Why rather, being entering into that presence, where I shall wake continually and never sleep more, do I not interpret my continual waking here to be a *parasceve* and a preparation to that. *Domne's Devot.* 1624.

PARASCEUAS'TIC, *adj.* Preparatory.—Touching the Latin and Greek, and those other learned languages, they are the *parasceuashtick* part of learning. *Corah's Doom*, 1672.

PAR'ASCHE, *f.* [from *פָּרַשׁ*, Heb. to divide.] A name which the Jews give to that portion of the Pentateuch which they read every sabbath. They divide their five books of the Law, not into chapters, as we do, but into fifty-four parts, which they call *parasche*; and thus go through the whole in a year. To these they have added some verses of the Prophets, which they made use of under the persecution of Antiochus Epiphanes, when they were prohibited the use of the Law.

PARASCHY'DES, *f.* A word used by chirurgical writers to express the splinters of fractured bones, or the fragments of bones corroded by sharp humours.

PARASE'LENE, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρα*, near, and *σεληνη*, moon.] A mock-moon; a meteor encompassing or adjacent to the moon, in form of a luminous ring; in which are sometimes observed one, sometimes two, apparent images of the moon.—The *paraselenes* are formed after the same manner as the *parhelias*, or mock-suns, by reflections of the moon from zones of dense vapours that happen to be collected in the sky. *Chambers*.

PARASE'MON, *f.* [Greek.] Among the ancients, a sign painted or carved on the prow of ships, by which they were distinguished from one another. The sign was commonly the figure or picture of some animal, as the bull, lion, &c. or of any other thing, as a mountain, tree, flower, &c.

PAR'ASITE, *f.* [Fr. from *parasitus*, Lat.] One that

frequents rich tables, and earns his welcome by flattery. —Diogenes, when mice came about him as he was eating, said, I see that even Diogenes nourisheth *parasites*. *Bacon*.

Most smiling, smooth, detested, *parasites*,
Courteous destroyers, affable wolves, meek bears. *Shakefp.*

PARASITE, among the Greeks, was originally a very reputable title; the parasites being a kind of priests, at least ministers of the gods, in the same manner as the *epulones* were at Rome. They took care of the sacred corn, or the corn destined for the service of the temples and the gods, viz. sacrifices, feasts, &c. hence their name, from *παρα*, near, and *σιτος*, corn. They had even the intendance over sacrifices; and took care that they were duly performed. At Athens there was a kind of college of twelve parasites; each people of Attica furnishing one, who was always chosen out of the best families. Polybius adds, that a parasite was also an honourable title among the ancient Gauls, and was given to their poets.

PARASITE'UM, *f.* Among the ancients, a granary or place where the sacred corn, destined for religious purposes, was preserved. See PARASITE.

PARASIT'IC, or PARASITICAL, *adj.* Flattering; wheedling.—Some *parasitick* preachers have dared to call those martyrs, who died fighting against me. *King Charles*.—Applied to plants, which live on others, being produced upon the trunks, branches, or roots, of other plants; and which, in some instances, will not take their growth in the ground; as in the cases of mistletoe, various mosses, and the fungus tribe in general, but not always.—Ivy is a *parasitic* plant. *Miller*.

PARASIT'ICALLY, *adv.* In a flattering manner.—The courtiers also, to applaud the fact, *parasitically* made him their common mark. *Sir T. Herbert's Trav.*

PARASIT'ICALNESS, *f.* The state or quality of being parasitical. *Scott*.

PAR'ASITISM, *f.* The behaviour of a parasite.—Their high notion, we rather believe, falls as low as court *parasitism*; supposing all men to be servants but the king. *Milton's Obs. on the Articles of Peace*.

PARA'SO, a town of France, in the department of Golo, (or Isle of Corfica,) and chief place of a canton, in the district of Calvi. The canton contains 2471 inhabitants.

PARASO'L, *f.* [French.] A small canopy or umbrella carried over the head, to shelter from rain and the heat of the sun. *Dr. Johnson*.—Mr. Mason, after his manner, sneers at Dr. Johnson for confounding the *parasol* with the *umbrella*; informing us, that umbrellas against rain are of different materials and size from mere parasols, the use of which (according to their name) is only against the sun. This is true enough of the little female ornament of modern times; but Mr. Mason knew nothing of the old *parasol*, (for he also could find no instance of the word,) which was called an *umbrella*, and was of a reasonable *umbrella* size, we may judge from the following example; though certainly its use may have been intended to guard against the sun. *Todd*.—While the world is all on fire around them, they journey through that torrid zone, with their mighty *parasol*, or umbrella, over their heads, and are all the while in the shade. *Abp. Sancreft's Sermons*.—*Parasol* is from the French *parer*, to guard against, and *sol*, *soleil*, the sun. The opposite is *parapluie*, a shelter against rain; though the latter word is not yet received among us, since our *parapluie* is called an *umbrella*, or little shade. *MS. Gleanings in Etymology*.

PARASO'LE (Leonardo,) whose proper name was NORSINI, but who assumed that of Parasole, from its being the family-name of his wife, was born at Rome in the year 1570, and died in the same city at the age of sixty. He was an engraver on wood of some merit, and was much employed by A. Tempesta. At the command of pope Sixtus V. he engraved the plants, &c. for the Herbal of Caistor Durante, the physician of that pontiff.

The

The figures in Norfani's engravings, after Tempesta, are correctly drawn, and executed in a finished style, for that mode of art.

Isabella Parafole, the wife of Leonardo, was a woman of great ingenuity; and composed a book of patterns for lace and embroidery, the prints of which she engraved on wood. She likewise did a great number of plants for a Herbal of Prince Cesi, of Aquasparta.

Bernardo Norfani, their son, likewise engraved on wood; he had also begun to make some progress in painting, when he died at an early age.

Jermunica Parafole, a lady of the same family, equally distinguished herself by engraving on wood; and there is by her hand a large print of the Battle of the Centaurs, from Tempesta; it is coarsely executed, though with much spirit.

PARASOPIAS, in ancient geography, a country of Greece, in Thessaly, between Asophus and Sparchius, and above Heraclea. *Strabo*.

PARASTATA, *f.* in ancient architecture, a kind of pier, or piedroit, serving as a defence of support to a column or arch. Evelyn makes the parastata the same with pilaster; Barbaro, and others, the same with anta; and Daviler, the same with piedroit.

PARASTATA, in anatomy. See that article.

PARASU RAMA, in Hindoo mythology, is one of the ten grand incarnations of their deity Vishnu. On this occasion he was born the son of a pious Brahman named Jamadagni, and his wife Runega. This avatara, or incarnation, is said to have taken place in Agra, for the purpose of relieving mankind from a military government which had become insupportably oppressive. Parasu Rama fought twenty battles with one of the oppressive rajas, slew him, and extirpated the race. After a life spent in mighty and holy deeds, Rama gave his whole property in alms, and retired to the Kokan, or Concan, the low country between Surat and the Southern Cape, though not the whole extent of this tract, where the Hindoos say he is still living. In pictures, this Rama (for there are three of this name whose exploits form the subject of the Ramayana) is usually represented two-armed, holding a battle axe and a lotus, combating his twenty-armed foe Raja Diruj. The epithet *parasu*, distinguishingly prefixed to the name of this hero, means a sword, and denotes his warlike character. Some authorities say that Rama was educated by Siva; and, going one day to pay his respects on Kailasa, he was prevented from entering by Genefa, or Pollear, whom he knew not. Enraged at his insolence, he wrenched a scimeter from his hand, and cut off his head, and was hence furnished *Parasu*, "the cutter-off." See POLLEAR and RAMA.

PARASYNEX'IS, *f.* [Greek.] In the civil law, a conventicle, or unlawful meeting.

PARATECA, a town of Brasil, on the Francisco: 240 miles south-west of St. Salvador.

PARATELLA, town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Condapilly: five miles north of Condapilly.

PARATHESIS, *f.* in the Greek church, the prayer which the bishop rehearses to the catechumens, stretching his hands over them to give them benediction; and which they receive, bowing their heads under his hands.

PARATHESIS, in grammar, signifies apposition; or a figure whereby two or more substantives are put in the same case.

PARATHREMA, *f.* [from *παρεα*, and *αρθρον*, a joint.] In surgery, a luxation or dislocation. Also a tumour caused by a protrusion of parts; a rupture, or hernia.

PARATIANÆ, in ancient geography, a town of Africa, in Mauritania Cafariensis, on the route from Lemna to Hippona, between Ruscades and Calucitena, according to the Itin. of Antonine.

PARATILMUS, *f.* [Greek; of *παρειλλαιν*, to tear, or pluck up.] In the ancient Greek jurisprudence, a name given to a sort of punishment imposed on adulterers who were poor, and unable to pay the common penalty. It

consisted either in making them run a horse-radish up the anus, or in tearing up by the roots the hair about the private parts.

PARATINGA. See XINGU.

PARATITLES, *f.* Short notes, or summaries of the titles of the Digest and Code; which have been made by several lawyers, in order to compare and examine the connexion of the several parts with one another.—We have *Paratitles* of Cujas, of Maran, &c. Chassaneus has a comment on the *Paratitles* of Cujas. *Chambers*.

PARATOLA, a town of Bengal: eight miles south-west from Islamabad.

PARATOUNKA, an offshoot of Kamitchatka, on a river which runs into the Avatcha: ten miles west of St. Peter and St. Paul.

PARATURE, *f.* [from the Lat. *paratus*, made ready.] A preparation. *Cole*.

PARAVAIL, *adj.* [Fr. *per* and *avayer*, to dismiss.] An epithet for the lowest tenant of a fee.—The king was styled lord paramount; A was both tenant and lord, or was a mesne lord; and B was called tenant *paravail*, or the lowest tenant; being he who is supposed to make *avail* or profit of the land. *Blackstone*.—Let the pope no longer count himself lord paramount over the princes of the world, no longer hold kings as his servants *paravail*. *Hooker's Disc. of Justification*, 1612.

PARAVANGAH, two small islands near the coast of Bengal. Lat. 22. 50. N. lon. 89. 35. E.

PARAVANI, a town of Turkish Armenia: fifty miles east-south-east of Akalzikh.

PARAVAUNT, *adv.* [*par avant*, Fr.] Publicly; in front. *Obsolete*.

That fair one,

That in the midst was placed *paravaunt*,
Was she to whom that shepherd pip'd alone. *Spencer*.

PARAUTE, a town of South America, in the province of Venezuela, on lake Maracaybo: eighty miles south of Venezuela.

PARAWA', a town of India, on the route from Agra to Oujein; fourteen miles and a half north-west from Soofneer. The soil in its vicinity is black and spongy, like most of Malava or Malwa, but little cultivated. The district dependent on this town yields one lack of rupees annually. *Asiatic Researches*, vol. vi.

PARA'Y LE MONIAL, a town of France, in the department of the Saône and Loire, near the river Bourbince: six miles west of Charolles, and sixteen east-south-east of Bourbon Lancy. Lat. 46. 27. N. lon. 4. 12. E.

PARAZONIUM, *f.* among medalists, a sceptre rounded at the two ends in form of a truncheon, or commander's staff; or a kind of poignard, or short sword, represented as worn at the girdle, on several ancient medals.—Antiquaries are much divided on the explication of the *parazonium*; as, indeed, the form and manner of bearing it are very different. It is sometimes thrown across the shoulders in manner of a quiver. *Chambers*.

PARBOSENA, in ancient geography, a town of Asia, in the environs of Cappadocia, upon the route from Tavia to Sebaste, between Sibora and Carniana, according to the Itinerary of Antonine.

PAR'BAR, *f.* [Hebrew.] A gate or building belonging to the temple. *Ath*.

To PAR'BOIL, *v. a.* [*parbouillir*, Fr. from the Lat. *parum*, a little, and *bullire*, to boil.] To half-boil; to boil in part, or slightly.—*Parboil* two large capons upon a soft fire, by the space of an hour, till, in effect, all the blood be gone. *Bacon*.

From the sea into the ship we turn,
Like *parboil'd* wretches on the coals to burn. *Donne*.

To PAR'BREAK, *v. n.* [*Bræken*, Teut. to vomit; *bræcke*, nausea: *par* seems to be an arbitrary prefix.] To vomit. *Obsolete*.

And virulently disgorged,
As though ye wold *parbreak*

Skelton's Poems.

TO PAR'BREAK, *v. a.* To eject from the stomach.—If thou findest honey, eate so much as is sufficient for thee, lest thou be over full, and *parbreake* it out agayne. *Prov. xxv. 16.* (edit. 1569.)

PAR'BREAK, *f.* Vomit.—Her filthy *parbreak* all the place defiled has. *Spenser.*

PAR'CE, in mythology, powerful goddesses who presided over the birth and the life of mankind. They were three in number, Clotho, Lachesis, and Atropos, daughters of Nox and Erebus, according to Hesiod, or of Jupiter and Themis, according to the same poet in another poem. Some make them daughters of the sea. Clotho, the youngest of the sisters, presided over the moment in which we are born, and held a distaff in her hand; Lachesis spun out all the events and actions of our life; and Atropos, the eldest of the three, cut the thread of human life with a pair of scissors. Their different functions are well expressed in this ancient verse: *Clotho colum retinet, Lachesis nit, et Atropos occidit.*

The name of the Parcae, according to Varro, is derived à *partu* or *parturiendo*, because they presided over the birth of men; but by Servius it is explained *quod nemini parant*, because they spare nobody. Their power was great and extensive. Some suppose that they were subjected to none of the gods but Jupiter; while others support, that even Jupiter himself was obedient to their commands; and indeed we see the father of the gods in Homer's Iliad unwilling to let Patroclus perish, yet obliged by the superior power of the Fates to abandon him to his destiny. According to the more received opinions, they were the arbiters of the life and death of mankind; and whatever good or evil befalls us in this world, immediately proceeds from the Fates, or Parcae. Some make them ministers of the king of hell, and represent them as sitting at the foot of his throne; others represent them as placed on radiant thrones, amidst the celestial spheres, clothed in robes spangled with stars, and wearing crowns on their heads. According to Pausanias, the names of the Parcae were different from those already mentioned. The most ancient of all, as the geographer observes, was Venus Urania, who presided over the birth of men; the second was Fortune; Ilithya was the third. To these some add a fourth, Proserpina, who often disputes with Atropos the right of cutting the thread of human life.

The worship of the Parcae was fully established in some cities of Greece; and, though mankind were well convinced that they were inexorable, and that it was impossible to mitigate them, yet they were eager to show a proper respect for their divinity, by raising them temples and statues. They received the same worship as the Furies; and their votaries yearly sacrificed to them black sheep, during which solemnity the priests were obliged to wear garlands of flowers. The Parcae were generally represented as three old women, with chaplets made of wool, and interwoven with the flowers of the narcissus. They were covered with a white robe, and a fillet of the same colour, bound with chaplets. One of them held a distaff, another the spindle, and the third was armed with scissors, with which she cut the thread which her sisters had spun. Their dress is differently represented by some authors. Clotho appears in a variegated robe, and on her head is a crown of seven stars. She holds a distaff in her hand reaching from heaven to earth. The robe which Lachesis wore was variegated with a great number of stars; and near her were placed a variety of spindles. Atropos was clothed in black; she held scissors in her hand, with clues of thread of different sizes, according to the length and shortness of the lives whose destinies they seemed to contain.

PAR'CAS, a town of Wallachia: sixteen miles south of Brancovani.

PARCAY', a town of France, in the department of the Mayne and Loire: twelve miles south-east of Baugé, and fourteen north-east of Saumur.

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PARCE', a town of France, in the department of the Ille and Vilaine: four miles south of Fougères.

PARCE' a town of France, in the department of the Sarte: six miles east of Sablé, and eighteen south-west of Le Mans.

PAR'CEL, *f.* [*parcelle*, Fr. *particula*, Lat.] A small bundle; a part of the whole; a part taken separately.—With what face could such a great man have begged such a *parcel* of the crown-lands; one a vast sum of money, another the forfeited estate? *Davenant*.—I have known pensions given to particular persons, any one of which, if divided into smaller *parcels*, and distributed to those who distinguished themselves by wit or learning, would answer the end. *Swift*.

I drew from her a prayer of earnest heart,
That I would all my pilgrimage delate,
Whereof by *parcels* she had something heard. *Shakesp.*

An inventory, thus importing
The several *parcels* of his plate, his treasure,
Rich stuffs, and ornaments of household. *Shakespeare.*

A quantity or mass.—What can be rationally conceived in so transparent a substance as water for the production of these colours, besides the various sizes of its fluid and globular *parcels*. *Newton*.—A number of persons: in contempt:

This youthful *parcel*
Of noble batchelors stand at my bestowing. *Shakesp.*

Any number or quantity: in contempt.—They came to this conclusion; that, unless they could, by a *parcel* of fair words and pretences, engage them into a confederacy, there was no good to be done. *L'Estrange*.

TO PAR'CEL, *v. a.* To divide into portions; with *out*.—If they allot and *parcel out* several perfections to several deities, do they not, by this, assert contradictions, making deity only to such a measure perfect? whereas a deity implies perfection beyond all measure. *South*.

Those ghostly kings would *parcel out* my power,
And all the fatness of my land devour. *Dryden*.

To make up into a mass.—What a wounding shame, that mine own servant should *parcel* the sum of my disgraces by addition of his envy! *Shakespeare*.—To strengthen by laying on a strip of canvass; a sea-term.

PAR'CELLING, *f.* In ship-building, long narrow slips of canvas payed or dipt in soft tar, which are bound round the surface of ropes in spiral turns, as smoothly as possible, before it is *servel*, that the rope may not be uneven, or full of ridges, and to further preserve it from the injuries of weather, &c.

PARCELLING a *Seam*, is laying a slip of canvas, prepared as above, over the seam, first paying under it, and then over it, with soft tar or melted pitch. This should be always performed when seams are covered by the cheeks of the heads, &c. or, what is better, covered with sheet copper.

PAR'CEL-MAKER, *f.* One of the two officers in the exchequer who make up the accounts of the escheator.

PAR'CELOR a mountain of Asia, on the coast of Salengore, near the Straits of Malacca. Lat. 2. 45. N. lon. 101. 29. E.

PAR'CENER, *f.* [quasi *parceller*, i. e. rem in *parcellas* dividens. *Cowel*.] A *parcener* is according to the course of the common law, or according to custom.—Where a person seized in fee-simple (or fee-tail) dies, and his next heirs are two or more females, his daughters, sisters, aunts, cousins, or their representatives; in this case they shall all inherit by *common law*; and these coheirs are then called *coparceners*; or, for brevity, *parceners* only. *Parceners* by particular custom are where lands descend, as in gavelkind, to all the males in equal degree, as sons, brother, uncles, &c. In either of these cases, all the *parceners* put together make but one heir. *Blackstone*.

Parceners are so called, says Littleton, because they
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may be constrained to make *partition*, of which there are several kinds. The properties of parceners are, in some respects, like those of *joint-tenants*, as they have the same unities of interest, title, and possession. They may sue and be sued jointly for matters relating to their own lands, (Co. Litt. 164,) and the entry of one of them shall, in some cases, enure as the entry of them all. (Ibid. 188, 243.) They cannot have an action of trespass against each other; but herein they differ from joint-tenants, that they are also excluded from maintaining an action of waste; (2 Inst. 403,) for co-parceners could at all times put a stop to any waste by writ of partition, but till the statute of Henry VIII. joint-tenants had no such power. Parceners also differ materially from joint-tenants in other points. 1. They always claim by descent, whereas joint-tenants always claim by purchase. 2. There is no unity of time necessary to an estate in co-parcenary. 3. Parceners, though they have an unity, have not entirety, of interest. See *JOINT-TENANT*.

PAR'CENERY, *f.* The tenure of lands by co-parceners.

To PARCH, *v. a.* [from *περιζαειν*, says Junius; from *percoquo*, says Skinner; neither of them seems satisfied with their conjecture: perhaps from *perustus*, burnt, to *perust*, to parch; or perhaps from *parchment*, the effect of fire upon parchment being almost proverbial.] To burn slightly and superficially; to scorch; to dry up.—Without this circular motion of our earth, one hemisphere would be condemned to perpetual cold and darkness, the other continually roasted and *parched* by the sun-beams. *Ray*.

I'm stupify'd with sorrow, past relief
Of tears; *parch'd* up and wither'd with my grief. *Dryden*.

To PARCH, *v. n.* To be scorched.—If, to prevent the acrospiring, it be thrown thin, many corns will dry and *parch* into barley. *Mortimer*.

We were better *parch* in Africk sun,
Than in the pride and salt scorn of his eyes. *Shakespeare*.

PAR'CHEDNESS, *f.* State of being dried up.—A barren heath, that feeds neither cow nor horse; neither sheep nor shepherd is to be seen there; but only a waste silent solitude, and one uniform *parchedness* and vacuity. *More's Conj. Cubb.* 1653.

PAR'CHIM, a town of the duchy of Mecklenburg, on the Elda, which divides it into New and Old Town, in each of which is a church. It has several times suffered by fire. The number of souls is about 3000: thirty-four miles south of Wismar, and fifty-five east of Lauenburg. Lat. 53. 28. N. lon. 11. 55. E.

PAR'CHMENT, *f.* [*pergamena*, Lat.] Sheep or goats skin prepared after a peculiar manner, which renders it proper for several uses; particularly for writing on, for the covering of books, &c.—Is not this a lamentable thing, that the skin of an innocent lamb should be made *parchment*; that *parchment*, being scribbled o'er, should undo a man? *Shakespeare's Hen. VI.*—In the coffin, that had the books, they were found as fresh as if newly written, being written in *parchment*, and covered with watch-candles of wax. *Bacon*.

Like flying shades before the clouds we shew,
We shrink like *parchment* in consuming flame. *Dryden*.

The word *pergamena*, the ancient name of this manufacture, is said to have been taken from the city of Pergamos, to Eumenes, king whereof, its invention is usually ascribed; though, in reality, that prince appears rather to have been the improver than the inventor of parchment; for the Persians of old, according to Diodorus, wrote all their records on skins; and the ancient Ionians, as we are told by Herodotus, made use of sheep-skins and goat-skins in writing, many ages before Eumenes's time. Nor need we doubt, that such skins were prepared and dressed for that purpose, after a manner not unlike that of our parchment, though probably not so artificially.

Dr. Prideaux is a strenuous advocate for the antiquity

of parchment; and he imagines that the authentic copy of the law which Hilkiah found in the Temple, and sent to king Josiah, was formed of this material; because no other used for writing, parchment excepted, could be of so durable a nature as to last from the time of Moses till that period, i. e. 830 years. But it has been replied to this argument, that the Egyptians wrote on linen those things which they designed for long duration; and those who have examined mummies with attention, assure us, that the characters so written continue to this day. It is not, therefore, improbable, that a copy of the law of Moses, written after this manner, might have lasted 830 years. Besides, it is not very likely that those skins which were used, according to the testimony of Diodorus and Herodotus, by the Persians and Romans for writing, long before the time of Eumenes, were dressed like parchment. They must have been prepared in a much ruder manner, and have little resembled the parchment of which Eumenes is said to be the inventor; because, if it had been found out before, it would have rendered the want of the Egyptian papyrus no inconvenience to that prince. Such skins might do for records, and for some occasional writings, but would have been by no means proper for books. Hence some writers have concluded, that parchment was a later invention than the Egyptian paper.

MANUFACTURE OF PARCHMENT.—The manufacture of parchment is begun by the skinner, and finished by the parchment-maker properly so called.

1. The skin having been stript of its wool, and having passed the lime-pit, (after the manner described under the article *LEATHER*,) the skinner stretches it on a kind of frame, consisting of four pieces of wood, mortised into each other at the four angles, and perforated lengthways, from distance to distance, with holes furnished with wooden pins, that may be turned at pleasure, like those of a violin. To stretch the skin on this frame, they make little holes all round it, and through every two holes draw a little skewer; to this skewer they tie a small piece of packthread, and tie that over the pins; so that, coming to turn the pins equally, the skin is strained tight every way, like that of a drum.

The skin being thus sufficiently stretched on the frame, the flesh is pared off with a sharp instrument for that purpose; this done, it is moistened with a rag; and a kind of white stone, or chalk, reduced to a fine dust, is strewed over it: then, with a large pumice-stone, flat at bottom, much after the manner of a muller for grinding colours, they rub over the skin as if about to grind the chalk; and thus they scour off the remains of the flesh. Then they go over it again with the iron instrument; again moisten it as before, and again rub it with a pumice-stone without any chalk underneath; this smoothenes and softens the flesh-side very considerably. They then drain it again, by passing over it the iron instrument as before.

The flesh-side being thus drained, they pass the iron on the wool or hair side; then stretch it tight on the frame, by means of the pins, and go over the flesh-side again with the iron; this finishes its draining; and, the more the skin is drained, the whiter it always becomes. They now throw on more chalk, sweeping it over with a piece of lamb-skin that has the wool on; this smoothenes it still farther, and gives it a white down or knap. It is now left to dry. and when dried it is taken off the frame, by cutting it round.

2. The skin, thus far prepared by the skinner, is taken out of his hands by the parchment-maker, who first scrapes or pares it dry on the *summer* with an iron instrument like that used by the skinner, only finer and sharper; with this, worked with the arm from top to bottom of the skin, he takes away about one-half of its thickness. The skin thus equally pared on both sides, they pass the pumice-stone over both sides, to smoothen it. This last preparation is performed on a kind of form or bench covered with a sack stuffed with flocks; and it leaves the parchment in a condition for writing on.

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The paring of the skin dry on the summer is the most difficult preparation in the whole process of parchment-making; for which reason, the skinners seldom dare meddle with it, but usually leave it to those more experienced in it; the summer, whereon it is performed, is a calf-skin well-stretched on a frame, serving as a support to the skin, which is fastened a-top of it with a wooden instrument, that has a notch cut in it. Lastly, that the iron knife may pass the easier between the summer and the skin to be pared, they put another skin, which they call the counter-summer. The parings, thus taken off the skin, are used in making glue, size, &c.

That called *virgin parchment* is somewhat thinner and finer than the rest; and is most proper for certain purposes, as fans, &c. it is made of the skin of an abortive lamb, or kid.

What we call *vellum*, is only parchment made of the skins of abortive calves, or at least of sucking-calves; it is finer, whiter, and smoother, than the common parchment; but it is prepared in the same manner as that, except that it is not passed through the lime-pit.

To make Coloured Parchment.—Wash the parchment in cold ley, till it come clear from it; then squeeze out the liquor as much as possible; and, if you would have it of a fine green colour, take distilled verdigris, ground with vinegar, and add a little sap-green to it; temper it neither too thick nor too thin; then soak your parchment in this colour thoroughly a whole night; rinse it afterwards in water, strain it immediately on a frame, and set it to dry; take clear varnish, lay it on both sides, set it in the sun to dry; after this cut the parchment out of the frame into leaves, as large as you please, and lay them in a book under press, to keep them fine and straight. The effect of this parchment is to make a small letter, when put over it, appear as big again; and it is a great preserver of the eyes, especially to those that read much by candle-light. The varnish must be prepared of linseed-oil, and boiled with frankincense, mastic, and sandarac.

If you would have the parchment of a clear, transparent, and white, colour, only wash, strain, and varnish it, as above. If you would colour it yellow, steep your parchment, after it has been washed, in a yellow liquid, made of saffron; for which purpose, tie saffron in a thin linen rag, hang it in a weak ley, and warm it over a slow fire; and, when you see the ley tinged yellow, it is fit for use.

For a transparent Red.—Take brazil, as much as you will: put it into a hot ley, which is clear, and not too strong, and it will tincture the ley of a fine red; then pour to it about half an egg-shell full of clean wine; draw the parchment through the colour; and, when it is as deep as you would have it, strain it as before.

For a Blue.—Take Lombard indigo, grind it with vinegar on a stone, and mix sal-ammoniac among it, to the quantity of a pea; with this wet your parchment, and proceed as has been directed for the green.

For a Violet or Purple.—Temper two-thirds of the above red, and one-third of the blue, and use it as before directed.

For a Black.—Take Roman alum, beat it into powder, and boil it in rain-water to a fourth part; add Roman vitriol, or atrament, with some Roman galls, and boil them together: with this stain your parchment twice or three times over; and, when dry, lay the Spanish varnish over it.

With these transparent parchments you may make curious bindings. One sort, used at Rome, is made thus: Lay the board or pasteboard over with leaf-gold, leaf-silver, staniel, metal-leaves, &c. then binding the parchment over it, it will give it an uncommon lustre and beauty.

Dr. Lewis informs us, that, in order to render the ink durable on parchment, a thick piece of it should be steeped in water, with some oak-bark, for three or four days, and then pressed smooth and dried. When the surface of this parchment was pared off, and the internal part written

upon, the characters continued of a good black, while those made with the same ink, on unprepared parchment, were changed into a yellowish-brown. Vellum may also be treated in the same manner.

It is said, that writing upon parchment decayed by time, may be recovered, and rendered legible, by dipping the obliterated parchment into a vessel of cold water, fresh drawn from the well; let it be taken out in about a minute, and pressed between two papers, in order to prevent its crumpling up in drying. As soon as it is moderately dry, if it be not legible, repeat the operation two or three times.

Old skins of parchment or vellum may be converted into leather. See the article LEATHER, vol. xii. p. 423.

PAR'CHMENT-MAKER, f. He who dresses parchment.

PARCHOOR, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Guntoor: eighteen miles south of Guntoor.

PAR'CHWITZ, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Liegnitz, and capital of a prefecture; containing two Lutheran churches, and a Roman-catholic chapel. Here is a manufacture of cloth: ten miles north-east of Liegnitz, and twelve west of Wohlau. Lat. 51.15. N. lon. 16.20. E.

PARCIEUX (Anthony des), a French mathematician, and member of the Academy of Sciences, was born in the diocese of Uzes in 1703. He taught the mathematics at Paris with great reputation, and died there in 1768. His works are, 1. A Treatise of Trigonometry. 2. Essays on the Probability of the Duration of Life. 3. Memoirs on the Practicability of bringing to Paris the Water of the River d'Yvette. Of the tables of M. des Parcieux on the probability of life, great use has been made by the writers on the doctrine of annuities.

He had a nephew of the same name, who was educated at the college of Navarre at Paris, where he studied mathematics and philosophy, and, at the age of twenty-four, gave public lectures. In 1779 he began a course of experimental philosophy, in the military school of Brienne; after which, he occupied the philosophical professorship at the Lyceum in Paris, where he died in 1798. He wrote an elementary book on Geometrical and Astronomical Calculations; and in his youth he is said to have composed a tragedy, entitled *Ozorio*.

PAR'CITY, f. [*parcitas*, Lat.] Spargingness. *Not in use.*
PAR'CO FRAC'TO, or **POUND-BREACH, f.** in law, a writ which lies against him who violently breaks open a pound, and takes out beasts thence, which, for some trespass done, were lawfully impounded.

PARCO'L, or **PARCOU'L**, a lake of Thibet, twenty-five miles in circumference. Lat. 43.22. N. lon. 92.42. E.

PAR'COS, a town of Peru, in the diocese of Guamanga: twenty-five miles north-east of Guancavelica.

PARCOU', a town of France, in the department of the Lower Charente: twelve miles east of Montlieu.

PARCO'W, a town of Austrian Poland, in Galica: thirty-six miles north-north-east of Lublin.

PARD, or **PAR'DALE, f.** [*pard*, Sax. *pardus*, *pardalis*, Lat.] The *Felis pardus*, or panther. In poetry, any of the spotted beasts.—The *pardale* swift, and the tyger cruel. *Spenser's F. Q.*

As fox to lambs, as wolf to heifer's calf;

As *pard* to hind, or stepdame to her son. *Shakespeare.*

PARDAILLO'N, a town of France, in the department of the Lot and Garonne: five miles west of Lauzun, and twelve north of Marmande.

PARDALIAN'CHES, f. in botany. See *DORONICUM*.

PARDANTHUS, f. in botany. See *IXIA Chinenfis*.

PARDIES (Ignatius-Gaston), a French Jesuit, an ingenious mathematician and philosopher, was the son of a counsellor of the parliament of Pau in Bearn, where he was born, in the year 1636. He entered the society of Jesuits when he was about the age of sixteen; and pursued his studies with so much diligence and success, that he

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was appointed tutor in polite literature, and composed many pieces in prose and verse, distinguished by delicacy of thought and elegance of style, when he had scarcely arrived at the age of manhood. His genius, however, chiefly inclined him to philosophical and mathematical studies, to which he devoted himself with the greatest ardour, reading the most valuable authors in those sciences, ancient and modern; so that in a short time he made himself master of the Peripatetic and Cartesian philosophy, and taught them both with great reputation. After having displayed his skill in the speculative sciences, with great reputation, in different provinces, he was called to Paris, to be professor of rhetoric in the college of Louis the Great. Here he also taught the mathematics, and acquired so much fame by his lectures and publications, that his acquaintance was sought for by all the learned men of the metropolis, and the highest expectations were formed from his future labours. Unhappily, the sanguine hopes of his friends were blasted by his premature death in 1673, when he was only thirty-seven years of age. This event is attributed to a malignant disorder which he caught, while zealously discharging the duties of preacher and confessor at the Bicêtre during the festival of Easter. He wrote with neatness and conciseness, and in a style sufficiently pure, if we except a few provincial expressions. His principal productions are, 1. *Horologium thaumaticum duplex*, 1662, 4to. 2. *Dissertatio de Motu et Natura Cometarum*, 1665, 8vo. 3. *A Discourse on local Movement*, 1670, 12mo. 4. *Elements of Geometry*, 1670, 12mo. which have been translated into several languages, and into English by Dr. Harris. 5. *A Discourse concerning the Knowledge of Beasts*, 1672, 12mo. 6. *Statistics, or the Science of moving Forces*, 1673, 12mo. 7. *Description and Explanation of two Machines for facilitating the Construction of Sundials*, 1673, 12mo. 8. *Observations on the Movement of Light*. 9. *Globi Cælestis in Tabula plana redacti Descriptio*; published after the author's death, in 1675, folio, &c. The greatest part of his works was printed in a collected form at the Hague, in 1691, 12mo. and again at Lyons, in 1725. The author also had a dispute with sir Isaac Newton, concerning his New Theory of Light and Colours, in 1672; and his letters are inserted in the Philosophical Transactions for that year. *Hutton's Math. Dictionary*.

PAR'DO, a river of Paraguay, which runs into the Parana.

PAR'DO (El), a town of Spain, in New Castile, where the king has a palace: seven miles north of Madrid.

PAR'DO, or PARDAO, *f.* A silver coin, and money of account, at Goa.

To PAR'DON, *v. a.* [*pardonner*, Fr.] To excuse an offender:

When I beheld you in Cilicia,
An enemy to Rome, I pardon'd you. *Dryden.*

To forgive a crime.—I will pardon all their iniquities. *Jer.* xxxiii. 8.

Forgiveness to the injur'd does belong,
But they ne'er pardon who commit the wrong. *Dryden.*

To remit a penalty:

That thou may'st see the difference of our spirit,
I pardon thee thy life before thou ask it. *Shakespeare.*

Pardon me, is a word of civil denial or slight apology.—Sir, *pardon me*; it is a letter from my brother. *Shakefp.*

PAR'DON, *f.* [*French.*] Forgiveness of an offender.—Forgiveness of a crime.—He that pleaseth great men shall get pardon for iniquity. *Eccly.* xx. 27.

What better can we do than prostrate fall
Before him reverent, and there confess
Humbly our faults, and pardon beg with tears
Watering the ground? *Milton's P. L.*

Remission of penalty.—Forgiveness received.—A man may be safe as to his condition, but, in the mean time, dark and doubtful as to his apprehensions; secure in his pardon, but miserable in the ignorance of it; and so, passing all his days in the disconsolate uneasy vicissitudes of hopes and fears, at length go out of the world, not knowing whither he goes. *South's Sermons.*—Warrant of forgiveness, or exemption from punishment:

The battle done, and they within our power,
Shall never see his pardon. *Shakespeare's K. L.*

"Law (says Beccaria) cannot be framed on principles of compassion to guilt; yet justice, by the constitution of England, is bound to be administered in mercy: this is promised by the king in his coronation-oath; and it is that act of his government which is the most personal, and most entirely his own."

There are three swords carried before the king at his coronation, besides the sword of state; the first of which, named *curtana*, belonged to Edward the Confessor, and has been used at the public inaugurations of our princes ever since. The length of the blade is now 32 inches; originally it was much longer; but it has been broken off at the point, to betoken mercy, justly reckoned the brightest prerogative of the sovereign. Edward III. when he was crowned, on the 1st of February, 1327, was the first of our kings who, in the exertion of that prerogative, proclaimed a GENERAL PARDON, which has been since practised by succeeding monarchs.

This power of pardoning offences is inseparably incident to, and is the most amiable prerogative of, the crown. Anciently the right of pardoning offences, within certain districts, was claimed by lords, who had *jura regalia* by ancient grants from the crown, or by prescription. But by stat. 27 Hen. VIII. c. 24. it was enacted, "that no person shall have power to pardon any treasons or felonies, nor any accessories, nor outlawries; but that the king shall have the authority thereof, united to the crown of this realm, as of right it appertaineth."

Judge Blackstone observes, that this is one of the great advantages of monarchy in general, above any other form of government; that there is a magistrate, who has it in his power to extend mercy, whatever he thinks it is deserved; holding a court of equity in his own breast, to soften the rigour of the general laws, in such criminal cases as merit exemption from punishment. Some theorists, however, maintain, that pardons should be excluded in a perfect legislation, where punishments are mild, but certain; because the clemency of the prince seems to be a tacit disapprobation of the laws. But the exclusion of pardons must necessarily introduce a very dangerous power in the judge or jury, that of construing the criminal law by the spirit instead of the letter; (see Beccaria, ch. 4. and 46.) or else it must be holden, what no man will seriously avow, that the situation and circumstances of the offender, though they alter not the essence of the crime, ought to make no distinction in the punishment. In democracies, however, this power of pardon can never subsist; for there nothing higher is acknowledged than the magistrate who administers the laws; and it would be impolitic for the power of judging and of pardoning to centre in one and the same person. This, as Montesquieu observes, (*Sp. of Laws*, book vi. c. 5.) would oblige him very often to contradict himself, to make and unmake his decisions: it would tend to confound all ideas of right among the mass of the people; as they would find it difficult to tell, whether a prisoner were discharged by his innocence, or obtained a pardon through favour. In monarchies, the king acts in a superior sphere; and, though he regulates the whole government as the first mover, yet he does not appear in any of the disagreeable or invidious parts of it. Whenever the nation sees him personally engaged, it is only in works of legislation, magnificence, or compassion. To him, therefore, the people

people look up as the fountain merely of bounty and grace; and these repeated acts of goodness, proceeding immediately from himself, endear the sovereign to his subjects, and contribute more than any thing to root in their hearts that filial affection and personal loyalty, which are the sure establishment of a prince. In the exercise of this prerogative, however, the sovereign should be directed by a sound discretion and impartial judgment, and also by wise and upright counsellors; and the occasions for the exercise of it should be rendered as few and unfrequent as possible, by mitigating the severity of our criminal laws, and lessening their number, and making the penalties annexed to the violation of them more definite and certain.

A pardon may be pleaded in arrest of judgment; in which case it has the same advantage as when pleaded upon arraignment; viz. the saving the attainder, and of course the corruption of blood, which nothing can restore but parliament, when a pardon is not pleaded till after sentence. And certainly, on all accounts, when a man hath obtained a pardon, he is in the right to plead it as soon as possible.

The king may pardon all offences merely against the crown, or the public; excepting, 1. That, to preserve the liberty of the subject, the committing any man to prison out of the realm is, by the habeas-corpus act, made a præmunire, unpardonable even by the king. Nor, 2. Can the king pardon, where private justice is principally concerned in the prosecution of offenders: *Non potest rex gratiam facere cum injuria et damno aliorum*. Therefore, in appeals of all kinds (which are the suit, not of the king, but of the party injured), the prosecutor may release; but the king cannot pardon. Neither can he pardon a common nuisance while it remains unredressed, or so as to prevent an abatement of it; though afterwards he may remit the fine: because, though the prosecution is vested in the king to avoid the multiplicity of suits, yet (during its continuance) this offence favours more of the nature of a private injury to each individual in the neighbourhood, than of a public wrong. Neither, lastly, can the king pardon an offence against a popular or penal statute, after information brought: for thereby the informer hath acquired a private property in his part of the penalty.

3. There is also a restriction of a peculiar nature, that affects the prerogative of pardoning, in the case of parliamentary impeachments, viz. that the king's pardon cannot be pleaded to any such impeachment, so as to impede the inquiry, and stop the prosecution of great and notorious offenders. Therefore, when, in the reign of Charles II. the earl of Danby was impeached by the house of commons of high-treason and other misdemeanors, and pleaded the king's pardon in bar of the same, the commons alleged, "That there was no precedent that ever any pardon was granted to any person impeached by the commons of high-treason, or other high crimes, depending the impeachment;" and thereupon resolved, "That the pardon so pleaded was illegal and void, and ought not to be allowed in bar of the impeachment of the commons of England:" for which resolution they assigned this reason to the house of lords, "That the setting up a pardon to be a bar of an impeachment defeats the whole use and effect of impeachments: for, should this point be admitted, or stand doubted, it would totally discourage the exhibiting any for the future; whereby the chief institution for the preservation of the government would be destroyed." Soon after the Revolution, the commons renewed the same claim, and voted, "That a pardon is not pleadable in bar of an impeachment." And at length, it was enacted by the act of settlement, 12 and 13 W. III. c. 2. "That no pardon under the great seal of England shall be pleadable to an impeachment by the commons in parliament." But, after the impeachment has been solemnly heard and determined, it is not understood that the king's royal grace is farther restrained or abridged: for, after the impeachment and attainder of the six rebel

lords, 1715, three of them were from time to time reprieved by the crown, and at length received the benefit of the king's most gracious pardon. The effect of such pardon by the king, is to make the offender a new man; to acquit him of all corporal penalties and forfeitures annexed to that offence for which he obtains his pardon; and not so much to restore his former, as to give him a new credit and capacity. But nothing can restore or purify the blood when once corrupted, if the pardon be not allowed till after attainder, but the high and transcendent power of parliament. Yet, if a person attainted receive the king's pardon, and afterwards hath a son, that son may be heir to his father; because the father, being made a new man, might transmit new inheritable blood; though, had he been born before the pardon, he could never have inherited at all.

As to the manner of pardoning, it must be under the great seal; and it is a general rule, that, wherever it may be reasonably presumed the king is deceived, the pardon is void; so that any suppression of truth, or suggestion of falsehood, in a charter of pardon, will vitiate the whole; for the king was misinformed. 3 Inst. 238. Generally, words have also a very imperfect effect in pardons. A pardon of all felonies will not pardon a conviction or attainder of felony, but these must be particularly mentioned. 2 Hawk. P. C. 383. Nor will a pardon of felonies include piracy, which is not punishable at the common law. 1 Hawk. P. C. 94. It is also enacted by 13 Ric. II. st. 2. c. 1. that no pardon for treason, murder, or rape, shall be allowed, unless the offence be particularly specified; and in murder it shall be expressed, whether it was committed by lying in wait, assault, or malice prepense. Upon which Coke observes, that it was not the intention of the parliament that the king should ever pardon murder under these aggravations; and therefore they prudently laid the pardon under these restrictions, because they did not conceive it possible that the king would ever excuse an offence by name, which was attended with such high aggravations. 3 Inst. 236. And it is remarkable enough, that there is no precedent of a pardon in the register for any other homicide than that which happens *se defendendo*, or *per infortunium*; to which two species the king's pardon was expressly confined by the stats. 2 Ed. III. c. 2. and 14 Ed. III. c. 15. which declare that no pardon of homicide shall be granted, but only where the king may do it *by the oath of his crown*; that is to say, where a man slayeth another in his own defence, or by misfortune. But the stat. 13 Ric. II. st. 2. c. 1. enlarges by implication the royal power; provided the king is not deceived in the intended object of his mercy.

The fees, paid upon each pardon granted under the great seal, amount, according to a return made to parliament in the year 1818, to no less a sum than 50l. 17s. 8d.

A pardon may be conditional; that is, the king may extend his mercy upon what terms he pleases; and may annex to his bounty a condition either precedent or subsequent, on the performance whereof the validity of the pardon will depend; and this by the common law. 2 Hawk. P. C. c. 37. Which prerogative is daily exerted in the pardon of felons; on condition of being confined to hard labour for a stated time; or of transportation to some foreign country for life, or for a term of years. We shall conclude this article by inserting the form of one of these conditional pardons.

L. S. GEORGE P. R.

In the name and on the behalf of his Majesty.

Whereas William Mann and John Newman were, at a Session holden at the Old Bailey in October last, tried and convicted, the said William Mann of house-breaking, and the said John Newman of the like offence, and had sentence of death passed upon them for the same; We, in consideration of some favourable circumstances humbly represented unto us in their behalf, are graciously pleased to extend our grace and mercy unto them, and to grant them our pardon for their said crimes, on condition of

their being delivered over to the Philanthropic Society for Reform. Our will and pleasure therefore is, that you cause them, the said William Mann and John Newman, to be forthwith delivered over to the said Society; and that they be inserted for their said crimes, on the said condition, in our first and next General Pardon that shall come out for the Poor Convicts in Newgate; and for so doing this shall be your warrant.

Given at our Court, at Carlton House, the Seventh day of March, 1811, in the Fifty-first Year of our Reign.

To our Trusty and well-beloved our Justices of Gaol Delivery for the City of London, and County of Middlesex, the Sheriffs of the said City and County, and all others whom it may concern.	By the Command of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent, in the name and on behalf of his Majesty.
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R. RYDER.

PARDON, in the canon law, extends beyond the affairs of this world, being an indulgence which the pope grants to supposed penitents, for remission of the pains of purgatory, which they have merited for the punishment of their sins:

There might you see
Indulgences, dispensers, pardons, bulls,
The sport of winds.

Milton's P. L.

PAR'DONABLE, *adj.* Venial; excusable.—A blind man sitting in the chimney-corner is *pardonable* enough, but sitting at the helm he is intolerable. *South*.—What English readers, unacquainted with Greek or Latin, will believe me, when we confess we derive all that is *pardonable* in us from ancient fountains? *Dryden*.

PAR'DONABLENESS, *f.* Venialness; susceptibility of pardon.—Saint John's word is, All sin is transgression of the law; Saint Paul's, The wages of sin is death. Put these two together, and this conceit of the natural *pardonableness* of sin vanishes away. *Bp. Hall*.

PAR'DONABLY, *adv.* Venially; excusably.—I may judge when I write more or less *pardonably*. *Dryden*.

PAR'DONER, *f.* One who forgives another:

This is his pardon, purchas'd by such sin,
For which the *pardon*er himself is in. *Shakespeare*.

One of those who carried about the pope's indulgencies, and sold them.—To avoide this great travayle, it shall be best for you to saye, as the *pardoners* did by their pardons, and as your purgatorie-priefts saye, No penye, no paternoster! *Confut. of N. Shaxtan*. 1546.

Of his craft fro Berwick unto Ware,
Ne was there swiche another *pardonere*. *Chaucer*.

PAR'DOS, or POMPENAY', a town of Africa, in the district of Anta, on the Gold Coast.

PARDOUX, (St.) a town of France, in the department of the Two Seves: five miles south-south-west of Partenay.

PARDOUX LA RIVIÈRE, (St.) a town of France, in the department of the Dordogne, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Nontron: four miles south-east of Nontron. It contains 1273 inhabitants.

PAR'DUBITZ, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Chrudim, on the Elbe, fortified and well built. Here is a manufacture of knives and sword-blades: five miles north of Chrudim, and fifty-five east of Prague. Lat. 49. 55. N. lon. 15. 40. E.

PARDU'RABLE, *adj.* Everlasting. *Chaucer*.

To PARE, *v. a.* [may be deduced from the Lat. *parem facere*, as we do in cutting off the exceeding parts of a thing, to make it fit another; *ungues pares facere*, to pare the nails: or, as Skinner says, from the French phrase *parer les ongles*, to dress the horse's hoofs when they are shaved by the farrier: thus we first said "Pare your nails;" and from thence transferred the word to general use.] To cut off extremities of the surface; to cut away by little and little; to diminish.—If *pare* be used before

the thing diminished, it is followed immediately by its accusative; if it precedes the thing taken away, or agrees in the passive voice with the thing taken away, as a nominative, it then requires a particle, as *away*, *off*. *John-son*.—'Twere well if she would *pare* her nails. *Pope*.—The king began to *pare* a little the privilege of clergy, ordaining that clerks convict should be burned in the hand. *Bacon's Hen. VII.*—The Creed of Athanasius, and that sacred Hymn of Glory, than which nothing doth sound more heavenly in the ears of faithful men, are now reckoned as superfluities, which we must in any case *pare away*, lest we cloy God with too much service. *Hooker*.—Whoever will partake of God's secrets, must first look into his own; he must *pare off* whatsoever is amiss, and not without holiness approach to the holiest of all holies. *Bp. Taylor*.

Pick out of tales the mirth, but not the sin;
He *pares* his apple that will cleanly feed. *Herbert*.

I have not alone
Employ'd you where high profits might come home;
But *par'd* my present havings to bestow
My bounties upon you. *Shakespeare's Hen. VIII.*

The lion, mov'd with pity, did endure
To have his princely paws all *par'd away*. *Shakespeare*.

PARÉ (Ambrose), a French surgeon of eminence, was born at Laval, in the district of the Maine, in the year 1509. He commenced the study of his profession early in life, and practised it with great zeal both in hospitals and in the army. Subsequently his reputation rose very high; and he was appointed surgeon in ordinary to king Henry II. in 1552; and he held the same office under the succeeding kings, Francis II. Charles IX. and Henry III. To Charles IX. especially he is said to have conferred great professional benefits, especially on one occasion, when some formidable symptoms had been produced by the accidental wound of a tendon in venesection, which he speedily removed. His services appear to have been amply acknowledged by the king; for, as Paré was a Huguenot, he would have been included in the horrible massacre of St. Bartholomew's, had not the king sent for him on the preceding night, and ordered him not to leave the royal chamber. After having been long esteemed as the first surgeon of his time, and beloved for his private virtues, he died in the year 1590, at the age of eighty-one.

Paré was not a man of learning, and was even obliged to request a physician to make a French translation of some of the books of Galen, which he wished to consult. Nevertheless there is an affectation of much learned reference, and numerous quotations from the ancients, in his writings, which have added nothing to his reputation. There is some justice in the remark of Van Hoorne, that Paré would have done better, if he had limited his publication to a small volume, containing only the records of his own observation and experience. He must be considered, however, as a man of original mind, and a real improver of his art; and as having greatly facilitated and extended the application of several principles of practice, which, according to his own acknowledgment, he derived from the Italian writers and practitioners. Though he did not invent, he greatly promoted, the practice of tying divided arteries, which he effected by drawing them out naked, and passing a ligature over them. He was the author of a great improvement in the treatment of gun-shot wounds, by adopting a lenient method, and rejecting irritants and cauterizations, which were employed by his contemporaries. He was also a bold and successful operator; and records many instructive cases, in which he displayed all the resources of an enlightened surgeon. He did not, however, greatly excel in anatomy, though he had practised dissections; and was chiefly a borrower from the works of Vesalius in this department of science, though not without some observations of his own.

Paré

Paré was the author of some works which were universally read, and translated into most of the languages of Europe. His first treatise, "*Manière de traiter les Playes faites par Harquebuses, Fleches, &c.*" was published at Paris in 1545, and again in 1552 and 1564. He afterwards laboured strenuously to put his brethren in possession of a body of surgical science in their native tongue; and in 1561 published the first edition of his works, in folio. Numerous editions were afterwards printed at Paris, and also at Lyons; and his pupil Guillemeau, who was surgeon to Charles IX. and Henry IV. translated these works into Latin. This translation has been frequently reprinted at various places, with the title of "*Ambrosii Paræi Opera, novis iconibus elegantissimis illustrata, et Latinitate donata.*" This volume contains twenty-six treatises; and there is no branch of surgery which is not touched upon in the collection. *Monthly Mag.* for Oct. 1814.

PARÉ (Philip and Daniel). See PAREUS.

PARECA'LA, a province of the island of Luçon, fertile, and rich in mines of gold and precious stones. About 7000 Indians pay tribute to the Spaniards.

PARECHAM'PA, a town of Bootan: five miles north of Tasasudon.

PARE'CHIA, a small town of the island of Paros, built on the ruins of the ancient Paros, on the west coast of the island, facing Antiparos; but it presents no idea of the ancient city, unless by the beautiful ruins, which are employed equally without reserve and without taste in its construction. Off Parechia, the sea forms a bight and a harbour, whose entrance is difficult, on account of the shoals by which it is obstructed on the opposite coast. Lat. 37. 5. N. lon. 25. 10. E.

PARE'DES, a town of Spain, in Asturia: twenty-five miles north-west of Oviedo.

PARE'DES, a town of Spain in the province of Leon: thirteen miles north-west of Leon.

PARE'DES, a town of Spain, in New Castile: eight miles north of Sigüenza.

PAREDE'DES, a town of Portugal, in Estramadura: twelve miles north-west of Leyria.

PARE'DON DEL ESTE, a small island near the north coast of Cuba. Lat. 22. 16. N. lon. 77. 50. W.

PARE'DON DEL MEDIOS, a small island near the north coast of Cuba. Lat. 22. 16. N. lon. 78. 6. W.

PARE'DRI, *f.* [Greek.] Among the Athenians, when the archon, basileus, or polemarchus, by reason of their youth, happened not to be so well skilled in the laws and customs of their country as might have been wished, it was customary for each of them to make choice of two persons of age, gravity, and reputation, to sit with them upon the bench, and direct them as there was occasion. These assessors were called *paredri*, and were obliged to undergo the same probation in the senate-house and public forum with the other magistrates; and, like them too, to give an account how they had behaved themselves in their respective trusts, when their office was expired.

PARE'DRIA, *f.* A term used by Hippocrates to express an association of two or more diseases in the same patient, making what we call a complicated illness.

PAREGOR'IC, *adj.* [Greek.] Having the power in medicine to comfort, mollify, and assuage.

PAREGOR'IC, *f.* A medical preparation which comforts and assuages; an anodyne.—Tar-water is of admirable use in fevers; being at the same time the surest, safest, and most effectual, both *paregorick* and cordial. *Bp. Berkeley's Sermons.*

PARE'JA (Juan de), a Mestizo, (a Spanish name given to those who are born of a Spanish father, and a mother a native Indian,) whose love for the art of painting was such, that, though the slave of Velasquez, and employed by him to prepare his colours, and attend upon him, yet he contrived in secret to obtain very considerable proficiency in the art. He died at the age of sixty, in 1670.

PARE'ID, a town of France, in the department of the Meuse: twelve miles east of Verdun, and six fourth-fourth-east of Estain.

PARE'IRA, *f.* in botany. See CISSAMPELOS.

PAREL'CON, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρελκυω*, to draw out.] A figure in grammar, in which a letter or syllable is added to the end of a word.

PAREL'LA, a town of France, in the department of the Dora: four miles south-south-west of Ivrea, and twenty north of Turin.

PARELLO'NES, a cluster of small islands in the Spanish main, near the coast of Darien. Lat. 9. 37. N. lon. 79. 30. W.

PAREL'LUS, *f.* in botany. See LICHEN.

PARE'MBOLE, *f.* [Greek.] A figure in rhetoric, wherein something relating to the subject is inserted in the middle of a period. All the difference between the parembolè and parenthesis, according to Vossius, is, that the former relates to the subject in hand, whereas the latter is foreign to it. An example of each we have in Virgil; and first of the parembolè:

Æneas (neque enim patrius consistere mentem

Passus amor) rapidum ad naves præmitit Achatem.

The following is an instance of the parenthesis:

———— ipseque suos jam morte sub ægrâ

(*Di meliora piis, erroremque hostibus illum*)

Discissor nudis laniabant dentibus artus.

PAREMP'TOSIS, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρά*, with, and *εμππτωσις*, a falling between.] A figure in grammar, in which a letter or syllable is thrown into the middle of a word. The fall of the blood from the heart into the great artery.

PARENCEPH'ALOS, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρά*, near, and *κεφαλή*, the head.] The cerebellum.

PARENCHY'MA, *f.* [Greek.] In anatomy, is applied to the substance of glands, and denotes that part of them which constitutes the peculiarity of the organ, the basis, which would remain if the vessels and nerves were removed. It is often used more generally, for any kind of spongy or porous flesh, as that of which the lungs and heart are composed, and through which the blood is strained for its better fermentation and perfection. And hence Dr. Grew gives the name parenchyma to the pith or pulp, or that inner part of a fruit or plant, through which the juice is supposed to be distributed.

PARENCHYM'ATOUS, or PAREN'CHYMOUS, *adj.* Relating to the parenchyma; spongy.—Ten thousand seeds of the plant hart's-tongue hardly make the bulk of a pepper-corn. Now the covers and true body of each seed, the *parenchymatous* and ligneous parts of both moderately multiplied, afford an hundred thousand millions of formed atoms in the space of a pepper-corn. *Grew.*—The lungs, and all the other *parenchymous* parts of the bowels. *Smith on Old Age.*—Those parts, formerly reckoned *parenchymatous*, are now found to be bundles of exceedingly small threads. *Cheyne.*

PARENESIS, *f.* [Greek.] Persuasion; exhortation.

PARENET'IC, or PARENETICAL, *adj.* [*παραινετικός*, Gr.] Hortatory; encouraging.—In an epistle *paranetical* to the pope himself, S. Bernard might have leave to use allusions, and after his manner to be liberal of all that the see of Rome challenged. *Bp. Bedell's Letters.*

PARENET'IC, *f.* A masterly or authoritative admonition. *Cole.*

PA'RENT, *f.* [Fr. from *parens*, Lat.] A father or mother.—His custom was, during the warmer season of the year, to spend an hour before evening-prayer in catechising; whereat the *parents* and older sort were wont to be present. *Fell.*—All true virtues are to honour true religion as their *parent*, and all well-ordered commonweales to love her as their chiefest stay. *Hooker.*

In vain on the dissembled mother's tongue
Had cunning art and sly persuasion hung;

And

And real care in vain, and native love,
In the true *parent's* panting breast had strove. *Prior.*
As public *parent* of the state,
My justice, and thy crime, requires thy fate. *Dryden.*

THE DUTIES OF PARENTS to legitimate children consist in three particulars; their maintenance, their protection, and their education.

1. The duty of parents to provide for the *maintenance* of their children, is a principle of natural law; an obligation, says Puffendorff, laid on them not only by nature herself, but by their own proper act, in bringing them into the world; for they would be in the highest manner injurious to their issue, if they only gave their children life, that they might afterwards see them perish. By begetting them, therefore, they have entered into a voluntary obligation, to endeavour, as far as in them lies, that the life which they have bestowed shall be supported and preserved. And thus the children will have a perfect right of receiving maintenance from their parents. And the president Montesquieu has a very just observation upon this head, that the establishment of marriage, in all civilized states, is built on this natural obligation of the *father* to provide for his children; for that ascertains and makes known the person who is bound to fulfil this obligation; whereas, in promiscuous and illicit conjunctions, the father is unknown; and the mother finds a thousand obstacles in her way; shame, remorse, the constraint of her sex, and the rigour of laws, that stifle her inclinations to perform this duty; and besides, she generally wants ability.

The municipal laws of all well-regulated states have taken care to enforce this duty; though Providence has done it more effectually than any laws, by implanting in the breast of every parent that natural *φύσις*, or insuperable degree of affection, which not even the deformity of person or mind, not even the wickedness, ingratitude, and rebellion, of children, can totally suppress or extinguish.

The civil law obliges the parent to provide maintenance for his child; and, if he refuse, *juxta de ea re cognoscet*. Nay, it carries this matter so far, that it will not suffer a parent, at his death, totally to disinherit his child, without expressly giving his reason for so doing; and there are fourteen such reasons reckoned up, which may justify such disinherison. If the parent alleged no reason, or a bad or a false one, the child might set the will aside, *tanquam testamentum inofficiosum*, as a testament contrary to the natural duty of the parent.

It is also a principle of law, that there is an obligation on every man to provide for those descended from his loins; and the manner in which this obligation shall be performed, is thus pointed out. The father and mother, grandfather and grandmother, of poor impotent persons, shall maintain them at their own charges, if of sufficient ability, according as the quarter-sessions shall direct; and, if a parent runs away, and leaves his children, the churchwardens and overseers of the parish shall seize his rents, goods, and chattels, and dispose of them towards their relief. By the interpretations which the courts of law have made upon these statutes, if a mother or grandmother marries again, and was before such second marriage of sufficient ability to keep the child, the husband shall be charged to maintain it; for this, being a debt of her's when single, shall, like others, extend to charge the husband. But, at her death, the relation being dissolved, the husband is under no farther obligation.

No person is bound to provide a maintenance for his issue, unless where the children are impotent and unable to work, either through infancy, disease, or accident; and then is only obliged to find them with *necessaries*, the penalty on refusal being no more than 20s. a month. For the policy of our laws, which are ever watchful to promote industry, did not mean to compel a father to maintain his idle and lazy children in ease and indolence; but

thought it unjust to oblige the parent, against his will, to provide them with superfluities, and other indulgencies of fortune; imagining they might trust to the impulse of nature, if the children were deserving of such favours. Yet, as nothing is so apt to stifle the calls of nature as religious bigotry, it is enacted, that if any popish parent shall refuse to allow his protestant child a fitting maintenance, with a view to compel him to change his religion, the lord chancellor shall, by order of court, constrain him to do what is just and reasonable. But this did not extend to persons of another religion of no less bitterness and bigotry than the popish; and therefore, in the very next year, we find an instance of a Jew of immense riches, whose only daughter having embraced Christianity, he turned her out of doors; and, on her application for relief, it was held she was entitled to none. But this gave occasion to another statute, which ordains, that if Jewish parents refuse to allow their protestant children a fitting maintenance, suitable to the fortune of the parent, the lord chancellor, on complaint, may make such order therein as he shall see proper.

Our law has made no provision to prevent the disinheriting of children by will; leaving every man's property in his own disposal, upon a principle of liberty in this as well as every other action; though perhaps it had not been amiss if the parent had been bound to leave them at the least a necessary subsistence. Indeed, among persons of any rank or fortune, a competence is generally provided for younger children, and the bulk of the estate settled upon the eldest, by the marriage-articles. Heirs also, and children, are favourites of our courts of justice, and cannot be disinherited by any dubious or ambiguous words; there being required the utmost certainty of the testator's intentions to take away the right of an heir.

2. From the duty of maintenance we may easily pass to that of *protection*; which is also a natural duty, but rather permitted than enjoined by any municipal laws; nature, in this respect, working so strongly as to need rather a check than a spur. A parent may, by our laws, maintain and uphold his children in their law-suits, without being guilty of the legal crime of maintaining quarrels. A parent may also justify an assault and battery in defence of the persons of his children; nay, where a man's son was beaten by another boy, and the father went near a mile to find him, and there revenged his son's quarrel by beating the other boy, of which beating he afterwards unfortunately died; it was not held to be murder, but manslaughter merely. Such indulgence does the law show to the frailty of human nature, and the workings of parental affection.

3. The last duty of parents to their children is that of giving them an *education* suitable to their station in life: a duty pointed out by reason, and of far the greatest importance of any. For, as Puffendorff very well observes, it is not easy to imagine or allow, that a parent has conferred any considerable benefit upon his child by bringing him into the world, if he afterwards entirely neglects his culture and education, and suffers him to grow up like a mere beast, to lead a life useless to others and shameful to himself. Yet the municipal laws of most countries seem to be defective in this point, by not constraining the parent to bestow a proper education upon his children. Our laws, though their defects in this particular cannot be denied, have in one instance made a wise provision for breeding up the rising generation; since the poor and laborious part of the community, when past the age of nurture, are taken out of the hands of their parents, by the statutes for apprenticing poor children; and are placed out by the public in such a manner as may render their abilities, in their several stations, of the greatest advantage to the commonwealth. (See the article APPRENTICE.) The rich indeed are left at their own option, whether they will breed up their children to be ornaments or disgraces to their family. Yet in one case, that of religion, they are under peculiar restrictions;

tions; for it is provided that, if any person sends any child under his government beyond the seas, either to prevent its good education in England, or in order to enter into, or reside in, any popish college, or to be instructed, persuaded, or strengthened, in the popish religion; in such case, besides the disabilities incurred by the child so sent, the parent or person sending shall forfeit real, which shall go to the sole use and benefit of him that shall discover the offence. And if any parent, or other, shall send or convey any person beyond sea, to enter into, or be resident in, or trained up in, any priory, abbey, nunnery, popish university, college or school, or house of Jesuits or priests, or in any private popish family, in order to be instructed, persuaded, or confirmed, in the popish religion; or shall contribute any thing towards their maintenance when abroad by any pretext whatever; the person both sending and sent shall be disabled to sue in law or equity, or to be executor or administrator to any person, or to enjoy any legacy or deed of gift, or to bear any office in the realm; and shall forfeit all his goods and chattels, and likewise all his real estate for life.

Mr. Walker (Sermons preached at Nottingham) has the following excellent and elegant effusion upon this important part of the duties of parents.

"Many have only narrow and contracted views of the importance of the parental character. They contemplate it only in the interested relation which attaches them to their offspring, and subserving the designs of Providence in obeying the instinct which it has given them; they view not the wide range of public good to which Providence assigns the individual acting of every parent to minister. In a wise education, whether we have it in view or not, we are doing the best service to our country and to human kind. For the ultimate end of all our attention to our children is to fit them for acting their part on the great theatre of the world with credit to themselves, and satisfaction to their fellows; to answer to the demands of every relation in which they may stand; to do the duties of a virtuous citizen, to sustain the honour of human nature. Without some pains to cultivate the minds of the young, to season them with the principles, and practise them in the habits, of wisdom and sound morality, what is to be expected from them but ignorance and profligacy? which, though it may not immediately appear in the form of an unpolished barbarism, yet is capable of greater enormities, of a more unprincipled conduct; and, by dissolving all the bonds by which a well-civilized community is held together, ends at length in the very rudeness and barbarism of our savage ancestors, from which we think ourselves to be the best secured. The selfish dissipation which diffuses itself through a luxurious community, appears as its last character, in the horrid form of indifference to children; and thus every succeeding generation becomes worse than the preceding, till ignorance as well as vice predominates; and then all traces of the manly and Christian character are done away; the love of country, with all its generous train of virtues, appears no more on the active stage; and all the fountains of human happiness, and all the sublimer ends of human life, are annihilated.

"Capacity both for knowledge, virtue, and happiness, is the gift of God; education, habit, and exercise, bring forth this capacity; and constitute all the difference that is found between man and man. However rich the soil, without culture it is luxuriant only in weeds. The inequality which appears so striking in the characters of men, is more owing to education than to any natural difference; at least with respect to moral character, which is the great object that I have in view. I never yet beheld that mind, as it comes from the hand of its Creator, which the management of the parent might not train to virtue, and to usefulness; and even in the view of mere knowledge and wisdom, the difference which education produces is vast and astonishing. It is this which opens and illumines the human mind, which en-

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larges and strengthens all its natural powers; which, setting it, as it were, on a rising ground, gives it the most extensive and commanding view of the world of God, of human life, and of human nature. This unlocks all its secret treasures; brings into exercise all its native force and dormant virtue; and, compared with the untutored and uncivilized mind, exhibits it like a god. In fine, it is education that works so many wonders in man; that polishes our manners, stamps a worth and dignity on our views, forms to wise and good conduct, leads to happiness, and constitutes the grand difference in the human species. The wild Indian, the rude Tartar, and the gross African, have the same erect gait, the same commodious form, the same senses, and most probably the same capacities of mind, with the exalted European; but how low in the scale of humanity has the want of instruction and institution placed them? In every thing which is the true glory of man, in the useful and elegant arts of life, in the protecting forms of civil polity, in the intercourses of social life, in the higher walks of virtue and religion, they appear not as creatures of the same species; we hardly own them as fellows. If then you wish your children to come forward into life in the higher style of human nature; to be, in all grace and dignity and usefulness of character, the European, the Briton, the Christian; to pass from a life of honour here to a life of exalted reward hereafter; be all the parent to them, in instruction, discipline, example; and, as you have not betrayed the most glorious trust which the Creator can confide into your hands, you may go into the presence of your Lord, and wait his audit, with the virtuous hope of his approbation: *Well done! good and faithful servant; thou hast been faithful over the charge which I committed to thy care: enter thou into the joy of thy Lord.*"

The RIGHTS of PARENTS, or their power over their children, result from their duties; this authority being given them, partly to enable them more effectually to perform their duty, and partly as a recompense for their care and trouble in the faithful discharge of it. And upon this score the municipal laws of some nations have given a much larger authority to the parents than others. The ancient Roman laws gave the father a power of life and death over his children; upon this principle, that he who gave had also the power of taking away. But the rigour of these laws was softened by subsequent constitutions; so that we find a father banished by the emperor Hadrian for killing his son, as though he had committed a very heinous crime; upon this maxim, that *Pater potestas in pietate debet, non in atrocitate, consistere*. But still they maintained to the last a very large and absolute authority: for a son could not acquire any property of his own during the life of his father; but all his acquisitions belonged to the father, or at least the profits of them for his life.

The power of a parent by the English law is much more moderate; but still sufficient to keep the child in order and obedience. He may lawfully correct his child, being under age, in a reasonable manner: for this is for the benefit of his education. The consent or concurrence of the parent to the marriage of his child under age, was also directed by our ancient law to be obtained; but now it is absolutely necessary, for without it the contract is void. And this also is another means which the law has put into the parent's hands, in order the better to discharge his duty; first, of protecting his children from the snares of artful and designing persons; and next of settling them properly in life, by preventing the ill consequences of too early and precipitate marriages. A father has no other power over his son's estate than as his trustee or guardian; for, though he may receive the profits during the child's minority, yet he must account for them when he comes of age. He may indeed have the benefit of his children's labour while they live with him, and are maintained by him; but this is no more than he is entitled to from his apprentices or servants. The legal

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power

power of a father (for a *mother*, as such, is entitled to no power, but only to reverence and respect); the power of a father, we say, over the persons of his children, ceases at the age of twenty-one; for they are then enfranchised by arriving at years of discretion, or that point which the law has established (as some must necessarily be established) when the empire of the father, or other guardian, gives place to the empire of reason. Yet, till that age arrives, this empire of the father continues even after his death; for he may by his will appoint a guardian to his children. He may also delegate part of his parental authority, during his life, to the tutor or schoolmaster of his child; who is then *in loco parentis*, and has such a portion of the power of the parent committed to his charge, viz. that of restraint and correction, as may be necessary to answer the purposes for which he is employed.

With respect to the power of parents and the duty of children, much may be said. There are, however, scarcely any instances where both are oftener abused than with respect to marriage. This, as it is the most important event in the civil life either of a man or woman, so it is often rendered peculiarly unfortunate, by precipitate folly and want of duty in children; and as often through the unreasonable severity of parents. As a child is bound not to give unreasonable offence to a parent in the choice of a partner; so neither ought the parent to impose any improper or arbitrary restraint upon the child.

The power of a parent in China is very great; for a father, while living, has the power of an absolute despotic tyrant, and after his death is worshipped as a god. Let a son become ever so rich, and a father ever so poor, there is no submission, no point of obedience, that the latter cannot command, or that the former can refuse. The father is absolute master, not only of his son's estate, but also of his concubines and children, who, whenever they displease him, he may sell to strangers. If a father accuses his son before a mandarin, there needs no proof of his guilt; for they cannot believe that any father can be so unnatural as to bring a false accusation against his own son. But, should a son be so insolent as to mock his father, or arrive at such a pitch of wickedness as to strike him, all the province where this shameful act of violence is committed is alarmed; it even becomes the concern of the whole empire; the emperor himself judges the criminal. All the mandarins near the place are turned out of their posts, especially those of the town where he lived, for having been so negligent in their instructions; and all the neighbours are reprimanded for neglecting, by former punishments, to put a stop to the wickedness of the criminal before it arrived at such flagitiousness. As to the unhappy wretch himself, they cut him into a thousand pieces, burn his bones, level his house to the ground, and even those houses that stand near it, and set up monuments and memorials of the horrid deed. See the article CHINA, vol. iv. p. 452.

The emperor of China, who is one of the most powerful and despotic monarchs upon earth, pays the greatest attention to his mother. An instance of this Pere Amyot relates as having happened at Pekin, A.D. 1752, when the emperor's mother entered her 60th year, which, among the Chinese, is accounted a very remarkable period. Groser likewise particularly describes the homage the emperor pays his mother every new-year's day in the palace, at which ceremony all the great officers of his court assist.

In the Gentleman's Magazine for 1750, we have the following case of conscience. "A person has his own parents and his own children living, both parties equally indigent, both equally incapable of assisting themselves, and both equally earnest in calling upon him for relief. Things are so circumstanced that he can possibly assist but one party, and not both. *Query*, Which party has the greatest claim to his assistance, and to which is he obliged, by all ties human and divine, to give the preference?"

One solves this difficulty, by informing us of a pretty print done at Rome, representing a young woman suckling her aged father, on which the following lines are quoted:

My child and father vital nurture crave,
Parental, filial, fondness both would save;
But, if a nurdling only one can live,
I choose to save the life I cannot give.

Here we find the preference given to the parent; and another correspondent gives the same decision in these words: "The obligations arising from nature and natural affection, seem to be in this case reciprocal and equipollent; the child is as strongly attracted to the parent, as the parent to the child. But, will not filial gratitude operate and decide in favour of the parent? Does not the person, either mediately or immediately, owe his present power and abilities to relieve, to his parent? and are not they on that account best entitled to relief? Does not the fifth commandment declare more strongly in favour of the parents, than any other divine precept does in favour of the children? If a person had an opportunity given him of delivering either his parent or his child (but not both) from certain death, I dare say the voice of nature and of mankind would applaud him that saved his parent, and condemn him that should prefer his child. There is more of selfishness in preferring the child; and to save the parent seems to me to be much the more generous, noble, and exalted, conduct. It is indeed, upon the whole, a melancholy alternative; but, if both parties continue importunate, and neither will relinquish their claims in favour of the other, I say relieve the parent."

There are two correspondents, however, who think differently, and their reasons are as follow: "A person's children have the greatest claim to his assistance; and he is obliged by all ties to prefer them, in that respect, to his parents. It is true, when a man's parents are in want, they have a claim to his assistance; but that claim is not equal to that which his children have. His parents he has of necessity: his children, of choice. It is his duty, before he beget children, to consider how he is to provide for them; and, by being wilfully the cause of their existence, he comes under such an obligation to provide for their comfortable subsistence, as must be stronger than any obligation of that kind he can be under to persons with whom his connexion is involuntary. But nature and reason point it out as the duty of all parents to provide for their children; but not *vice versa*. If a man's parents happen to be indigent, and he himself able, he is bound to maintain them out of respect and gratitude; but his obligation to provide for his children is a debt of strict justice; and therefore ought to be preferred." "I find (says the author of the last answer) that all your correspondents agree, that the life of the parent is to be preserved. It is very certain, that the relation between me and my child is exactly equal to that which is between me and my parent; and therefore relation cannot decide in favour of the one or the other: I must then be determined by a different consideration; and I know of none more weighty than the following. If I preserve the life of my child, I am instrumental in giving life to all his descendants, which may, perhaps, be very numerous; but if I preserve the life of my parent, I preserve a single life only, and that a short one. I therefore say, *Relieve the child*. But it is thought that the voice of nature will applaud the person who preserves the parent: if so, nature must applaud a rule which she herself does not observe: it is natural for old men to die before young ones. Besides, the command, *Be fruitful and multiply, and replenish the earth*, may be opposed to the fifth commandment."

It is hoped that such conflicting cases seldom, if ever, occur; but our own opinion is with the last set of reasoners: we certainly think that a person, particularly if a mother, is bound to prefer the child to the parent. We hope

hope that none of our readers will ever be in the painful situation of being obliged to decide.

PARENT, a town of Prussia, in Pomerelia: ten miles north of Marienburg.

PARENT (Anthony), a respectable French mathematician, was born at Paris in 1666. He was adopted, when only three years of age, by a maternal uncle, the curé of Leves near Chartres, who was a worthy divine and able naturalist, and undertook himself to educate his nephew in the elements of learning. Under his instructions young Parent was well grounded in the principles of piety, to which he continued steadily attached through life; and he was encouraged and assisted in the early propensity which he discovered to the study of the mathematics. Such books in this science as fell in his way, he perused with great eagerness; and it was his custom, as he read them, to write remarks in the margins. Pursuing this practice, when he was only thirteen years of age, he had filled a number of books with a kind of commentary, which excited no little surprise in able masters. At the age of fourteen, he was sent to board with a tutor in rhetoric at Chartres; and, while he was pursuing this course, he accidentally met with a dodecaedron, upon every face of which was delineated a fun-dial, excepting the lowest, upon which it stood. Struck as it were instantaneously with the curiosity of these dials, he attempted to draw one himself; but, as he possessed a book which taught only the practical part, without the theory, it was not till after his master had explained to him the doctrine of the sphere, that he was able to understand how the projection of the circles of the sphere formed fun-dials. He now undertook to write a treatise "upon Gnomonics;" which, it must be acknowledged, was rude and unpolished enough. However, imperfect as it was, it had the merit of being his own invention; as was, likewise, a book "on Geometry," in the same taste, which he wrote about the same time at Beauvais.

When he had finished his course of rhetoric, his relations sent for him to Paris, with a view to his studying the law, which had been his father's profession. Out of compliance with their wishes, he went through a course in that faculty; but no sooner was it completed, than he betook himself, with increased ardour, to those pursuits which accorded best with his genius and inclination. That he might meet with no interruption in his favourite studies, he shut himself up in the college of Dormans, where, with good books, and an income of not more than two hundred livres, he lived contented, seldom stirring from his retreat but when he went to the college-royal, to attend the lectures of M. de la Hire, or M. Sauveur. As soon as he thought himself capable of teaching others, he took pupils; and, fortification being a branch of study which the war had brought into particular notice, he frequently had occasion to teach that science. After some time, he began to entertain scruples about undertaking to teach a subject of which he had no practical knowledge, and communicated them to M. Sauveur. Upon this, that friend recommended him to the marquis d'Alegré, who fortunately at that time wanted the assistance of an able mathematician, and engaged M. Parent in his suite. With this officer our author made two campaigns, during which he had sufficient opportunities to inform himself respecting the nature of fortified places, approaches, &c. of which he drew a number of plans, though he had never been instructed in the art of drawing.

Upon his return to Paris, M. Parent spent his time in a continual application to the study of natural philosophy, and all the branches of the mathematics, both speculative and practical, to which he added that of anatomy, botany, and chemistry: his genius and indefatigable industry enabling him to surmount the difficulties attendant on the acquisition of any science. In the year 1699, M. Fillau des Billettes, having been admitted a member of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, with the title of their mechanician, nominated M. Parent for his *élève*, or disciple, who

particularly excelled in that branch of mathematics. Soon after his admission into the society, it was discovered, that he directed his attention to all the subjects that came before them, and that he was competent to the investigation of every topic which was recommended to their notice. But this extent of ability and compass of knowledge which he possessed, joined to a natural warmth and impetuosity of temper, excited a spirit of contradiction in him, which he indulged upon all occasions; sometimes to a degree of precipitancy that was highly culpable, and too often but with little regard to decency. It is true, indeed, that some fiery spirits showed the same behaviour towards him, to which he gave the first provocation; and the papers which he brought to the academy were often treated with much severity. To such attacks he laid himself open in his best pieces, by a want of perspicuity and method which greatly detracted from their value, and was the cause why his works never met with a circulation proportioned to the excellence of the matter contained in them. In the year 1716, the king established a new regulation for the academy, by which the class of élèves was suppressed, as it created a distinction that seemed to put too great an inequality between the members. On this occasion M. Parent was made an *adjunct*, or assistant member, of the class of geometry; though he enjoyed this appointment only for a very short time, being cut off by the small-pox in the same year, when he was about the age of fifty. Notwithstanding his contentious and irritable disposition, and a forbidding austerity and roughness of manners by which he was distinguished, he is said to have possessed great goodness of heart; and, though his fortune was very limited, he devoted a considerable share of it to acts of beneficence and charity. Besides leaving many works behind him in manuscript, he published, 3. Elements of Mechanics and natural Philosophy, 1700, 12mo. 4. Mathematical and Physical Researches; a kind of Journal, which first appeared in 1705, in 12mo. and afterwards greatly augmented in 1712, in 3 vols. 4to. 5. A theoretico-practical Treatise on Arithmetic, 1714, 8vo. He was also the author of a multitude of papers in the different French Journals, and, in the volumes of the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences, from the year 1700 to 1714, several papers in almost every volume, upon a great variety of mathematical subjects. *Fontenelle's Eloge in the Hist. of the Acad. of Sciences. Hutton's Math. Dict.*

PA'RENTAGE, *f.* Extraction; birth; condition with respect to the rank of parents.—We find him not only boasting of his *parentage*, as an Israelite at large, but particularizing his descent from Benjamin. *Atterbury.*

A gentleman of noble *parentage*,
Of fair demeanour, youthful, and nobly allied. *Shakspeare.*

PAREN'TAL, *adj.* Becoming parents; pertaining to parents.—Young ladies, on whom *parental* controul sits heavily, give a man of intrigue room to think, that they want to be parents. *Richardson's Clarissa.*

PARENTA'LIA, *f.* in antiquity, funeral obsequies, or the last duties paid by children to their deceased parents.

PARENTALIA is also used for a sacrifice or solemn service offered annually to the manes of the dead.

PARENTATION, *f.* [from *parento*, Lat.] Something done or said in honour of the dead.—Some other ceremonies were practised, which differed not much from those used in *parentations*. *Potter's Antiq. of Greece.*

Let fortune this new *parentation* make
For hated Carthage's dire spirits' sake;
Let bloody Hannibal, and Punick ghosts,
Of this sad Roman expiation boast. *May's Lucan.*

PAREN'TELA. *De parentela se tollere*, in ancient customs, signified a renunciation of one's kindred and family. This was done in open court, before the judge, and in the presence of twelve men, who made oath, that they

they believed it was done for a just cause. We read of it in the laws of Henry I. After such abjuration, the person was incapable of inheriting any thing from any of his relations, &c.

PARENTHESIS, *f.* [Greek; of *παρὰ*, between, and *εἰς*, position; *q. d.* putting between.] Intercalary words inserted in a discourse, which interrupt the sense or thread, but which seem necessary for the fuller understanding of the subject. The proper characteristic of a parenthesis is, that it may be either taken in, or left out, the sense and grammar remaining entire. In speaking, parentheses are to be pronounced in a different tone; and in writing they are inclosed thus (), to distinguish them from the rest of the discourse. The character itself, whereby they are distinguished, is also called a parenthesis. The long *parenthesis* which so frequently occurs in the old writers, to the great embarrassment and perplexity of their meaning, has fallen much into disuse. It has been remarked that the *parenthesis* occurs in no place of Johnson's writings. Authors have shortened their sentences, which, in some of the best writers of the seventeenth and the beginning of the last century, were extended to an almost immeasurable length; and they have stated their sentiments to much more advantage, by separating their ideas from each other, and expressing them with greater exactness. Whether, however, this circumstance may not argue a want of fertility of ideas, and a tardiness of conception, might be a subject of inquiry; and it must, however, be allowed, that the practice of writing in short sentences has a tendency to give language a disjointed appearance; and detracts from roundness of period, and dignity of composition; but it certainly contributes materially to perspicuity. *Modern Preceptor*.

Thou shalt be seen

(Though with some short *parenthesis* between)
High on the throne of wit.

Dryden.

PARENTHETIC, or **PARENTHETICAL**, *adj.* Pertaining to a parenthesis.—This is a *parenthetical* observation of Moses himself. *Dr. Hales on Deut. xxxii. 31.*—Using parentheses.—If Pope's temper had not led him to personality, the observation of Cleland, (whom he describes as a man of sense and of integrity, and, to be very *parenthetic*, who was the Will Honeycomb of the Spectator's club,) in a letter to him, "that all such writings and discourses as touch no man, will mend no man," might have given the bias to his pen. *Tyler's Rhapsody on Pope*.

PARENTHETICALLY, *adv.* In a parenthesis.—This intelligence is certainly mentioned *parenthetically*. *Bryan's Obs. on Script.*

PARENTICIDE, *f.* [from the Lat. *parens*, a parent, and *caedo*, to kill.] One who murders a parent.

PARENTIS DE BOR'N, a town of France, in the department of the Landes, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Mont-de-Marsan: thirty-three miles north of Tartas. The place contains 1440 souls.

PARENTLESS, *adj.* Deprived of parents:

Thy orphans left poore, *parentless*, alone,
The future time's sad miserie to mone. *Mir. for Mag.*

PAREN'ZA, a seaport town of Istria; the see of a bishop. It is a well-built town, situated on a rock, with a harbour for large vessels: thirty-four miles south of Trieste. Lat. 45. 18. N. lon. 13. 40. E.

PAR'ER, *f.* An instrument to cut away the surface:

A hone and a *parer*, like sole of a boot,
To pare away grass, and to raise up the root. *Tusser.*

PARER'GA, *f.* [Gr. of *παρὰ*, with or beside, and *εργον*, work.] A term sometimes used in architecture, for additions, or appendages, made by way of ornament to a principal work. It is sometimes also used in painting, for little pieces, or compartments, on the sides, or in the corners, of the principal pieces. Hence,

PARER'GY, *f.* Something unimportant; something

done by the by.—Scripture being serious, and commonly omitting such *parergies*, it will be unreasonable to condemn all laughter. *Brown.*

PARE'SIS, *f.* [from *παρεῖμι*, Gr. to relax.] The third division, or species, of palsy, (see p. 303.) but by some confined to a palsy of the bladder, attended either with retention of the urine, or involuntary discharge of it.

PARETO'NIUM, *f.* The name of an earth anciently found on the shores of Egypt, Cyrene, and the island of Crete; and used by the ancients in painting. It had its name either from a part of Egypt near which it was gathered, or from the name of a town in that kingdom where it was usually sold. Vitruvius is of the first opinion, and Volaterrus of the other. Of late we have been taught to think it lost; but it is still common on most of the shores of the islands of the Archipelago, though not observed or regarded; and is truly a very heavy and tough clay, of a fine white colour, found in masses of different sizes, generally as soft as the softer clays within the strata; and, by rolling about on the beach in this state, it gathers up the sand, small shells, and other foulnesses, we always find about it. It is most probable, that there are strata of it fine and pure in the cliffs there, and that the sea washes off masses of them in storms and high tides, which are what we find.

PARE'US (David), whose proper name was *Wengler*, a celebrated German divine of the reformed communion, was born at Francoforte in Silesia, in the year 1548. His father, who was the son of a wealthy peasant, after having him educated at a school in his native town, placed him as an apprentice, at first with an apothecary; and afterwards, at the instigation of an ill-humoured second wife, with a shoemaker. This humble situation did not repress the early inclination which young David had discovered for acquiring learning; and at length his father permitted him to follow the bent of his mind. When he was sixteen years of age, therefore, he was sent to Hirschberg, where there was a college, of which Christopher Schilling, a man of considerable learning, was the principal. It was a prevalent custom in those times, among such students as devoted themselves to literary pursuits, to change their family-names for others taken from the Greek language, carrying with them a similar meaning; and of this custom Schilling was an admirer: he, therefore, persuaded our young scholar to take the name of *Pareus*, formed from the Greek word *παρα*, which signifies "the cheek," as *wange*, whence his family name *Wengler* was formed, does in the German. David had not been settled many months at Hirschberg, before he found means to support his expenses, by undertaking the office of private tutor in the family of an honest citizen; and by the handsome presents which he received from one of the principal inhabitants of the place, for writing some verses on the death of his eldest son, and other poems with the subjects of which that gentleman furnished him. In the mean time, Schilling had not only persuaded his pupil to change his name, but had made a convert of him from Lutheranism; in which he had been educated, to the principles of the reformed church, on the subject of the *real presence*; and he succeeded in the same manner with the rest of his scholars. This change in doctrinal sentiment involved both the master and pupil in no little trouble: the former being expelled from his college, at the instigation of the minister of that place; and the latter running the risk of being disinherited by his exasperated father. With great difficulty, when his father's anger was a little cooled, he obtained his permission to go and finish his studies in the Palatinate; but, so trifling was the sum which his father allowed him for his journey, that he was sometimes reduced to the necessity of begging for subsistence on the road; at length, however, he arrived at Amberg, where the elector-palatine, Frederic III. had appointed his master Schilling principal of a new college which he had founded at that place. Soon afterwards, in 1566, he was sent with ten of his schoolfellows to Heidelberg; and they carried

carried with them such effectual recommendations from their common master, that they were all admitted into the College of Wisdom, of which Zachary Ursinus, professor of divinity, was director.

The university of Heidelberg was at this time in a very flourishing condition, and had able professors in all the faculties; of which circumstance Pareus availed himself with the utmost diligence, and made a distinguished proficiency in his acquaintance with the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, languages, philosophy, and divinity. In 1571, when he was about twenty-three years of age, he was admitted to the ministry, and sent to officiate at a village called Schlettenbach, where he was commissioned to introduce the protestant reformed religion. Before the end of the year he was recalled to Heidelberg, and appointed to teach the third class of students; in which employment he acquitted himself with such ability, that after the expiration of two years he was promoted to the second class. After holding this situation six months, he resigned it, to become pastor of Hemsbach in the diocese of Worms, and to establish the reformed religion in that place. Soon after his settlement at Hemsbach he entered into the marriage-state; and his nuptials, which were publicly celebrated in 1574, exhibited a novel sight to the parishioners, who had never before seen a clergyman take to himself a wife. In the year 1577, upon the death of the elector Frederic III. his son Louis, who was a zealous Lutheran, established ministers of that communion throughout his dominions, in the room of the reformed; by which measure Pareus lost his living. On this occasion he retired into the territories of prince John Casimir, brother to that elector, and officiated for three years as minister of Ogerheim near Frankenthal. Afterwards he removed to fill the same office at Winzingen near Neustadt. What rendered the neighbourhood of the latter place the more agreeable and advantageous to him was the circumstance, that prince Casimir had founded a *schola illustris* at that place in 1578, and had settled there all the professors who had been expelled from Heidelberg. In 1583, the elector Louis dying, the sole guardianship of his son Frederic IV. and the administration of the palatinate devolved upon prince Casimir; who restored the reformed ministers, and appointed Pareus second professor in the College of Wisdom at Heidelberg, in the year 1584. Two years afterwards he commenced author, by publishing his "*Methodus Ubiquitarum Controversiarum*." In 1589, he published an edition of the German version of the Bible, at Neustadt, with notes; which drew him into a warm controversy with a Lutheran of Tubingen, named James Andreas. In 1591, Pareus was appointed first professor in the College of Wisdom; and in 1592, counsellor of the ecclesiastical senate. These promotions were followed, in 1593, by his admission, in a most solemn manner, to the degree of doctor of divinity.

Pareus engaged in several controversies with the writers of the Augsburg Confession, particularly in 1596, when he undertook the vindication of Calvin, who was charged with favouring Judaism in his exposition of several passages of scripture. Two years afterwards he was nominated to the chair of divinity-professor for the Old Testament at Heidelberg; and in the year 1602, upon the death of Daniel Tostanus, Pareus succeeded him in the chair of divinity-professor for the New Testament. He had now risen into very high reputation, which was so widely diffused, that it induced numerous students to come and attend his lectures at Heidelberg, from the remotest parts of Hungary and Poland. Having purchased a house in the suburbs of that city, in the year 1607, he erected an apartment in the garden, for a library and study, calling it his *Pareanum*; which name was afterwards given by the city to the whole house. On this house the elector bestowed several privileges and immunities, as a reward of the professor's merits. Here he died in June 1622, when he was nearly seventy-four years of age, and was buried with all the funeral honours which the universities of Germany

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are accustomed to bestow on their most distinguished members.

His works consist of "Commentaries" upon several of the books of Scripture, and numerous critical, didactic, polemic, and miscellaneous, pieces, which were collected together, and published at Frankfort in 1647, in four volumes, folio. He gave so much offence to king James I. of England, by some antimonarchical principles which he advanced in his "Commentary on St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans," that his majesty ordered that work to be burnt by the common hangman; and it was condemned in the most disgraceful manner by the university of Oxford. An answer to it was published by Dr. David Owen, chaplain to the earl of Holderness, under the title of "*Antipareus, five Determinatio de Jure Regio habita Cantabrigiæ in Scholis theologicis*, 19 April 1619, contra Davidem Paræum, cæterosque reformatæ Religionis Antimonarchos," 1632, 8vo. to which a reply was written by the subject of the next article.

PARE'US (John-Philip), son of the preceding, was born in 1576 at Hemsbach, in the diocese of Worms. He studied at Neustadt and Heidelberg; and afterwards, at the expense of the elector-palatine, visited several foreign universities, being generally well received on account of his father's reputation. In 1610 he was made rector of the college at Neustadt, where he continued till the town fell into the hands of the Spaniards in 1622, on which occasion his library was plundered. From the number of his publications he ranks among the most laborious of the German critics and grammarians. He was particularly attached to the comedies of Plautus, and had a furious controversy with Gruter on their account. After having been at the head of various colleges, among which was that of Hanau, he died about 1650. Of the works of this author are, 1. *Lexicon Plautinum*, 1614; an useful vocabulary of the words used by Plautus. 2. *Electa Plautina*, 1601. 3. An edition of Plautus with Commentaries, 1619. 4. *Electa Symmachiana*. 5. *Calligraphia Romana*. 6. *Lexicum Criticum*, 1645. He also wrote some commentaries on Scripture, and some works on theology.

DANIEL PAREUS, son of the preceding, was likewise a learned philologist, and published an edition of the poem of Musæus on the Loves of Hero and Leander; Notes on Quintilian and Lucretius; *Medulla Historiæ Ecclesiasticæ*; and other works. *Gen. Biog.*

PAREWA'H, a town of Hindoostan, in Oude: eight miles north of Bahraitch.

PARFA'IT (Francis), was born at Paris in 1698, of a distinguished family; and died in 1753. His works are, 1. A General History of the French Theatre, 15 vols. 2. A History of the ancient Italian Theatre, 2 vols. 3. A Dictionary of Theatres, 7 vols. 4. Several dramatic pieces that were never acted.

PAR'GA, a town of Albania, on the coast of the Adriatic Sea: twenty-five miles west-north-west of Arta.

The concerns of this little state were brought before the British parliament in the course of the year 1819; and few questions of minor importance have been more generally misrepresented and more completely misunderstood than that which relates to the measures adopted by our government in regard to the restoration of Parga to the Sublime Porte. That there should prevail on the part of our countrymen a strong feeling of regret at the necessity of a measure, which made the inhabitants of a little state abandon for ever their native place, is no more than might be looked for from them, in favour of the weak and unfortunate, without any knowledge of the particular merits of the case: but this amiable bias, however laudable in itself, was grossly abused by a strange perversion of circumstances; and that conduct, which ought to have been viewed as an instance of British liberality, humanity, and consideration for the unfortunate, has, with a singular degree of party-spirit, been tortured into a breach of national faith, and a wanton or thoughtless sacrifice of a meritorious people, to whom we were bound by every tie

of justice and humanity. A plain statement, therefore, of the proceedings respecting Parga, collected from officers on the spot, and from such official documents as have been made public, will, we are confident, convince every unprejudiced mind, that a feeling of kindness for the inhabitants of Parga influenced every measure of the British government; and that the same principle invariably guided the conduct of sir Thomas Maitland, on whom devolved the difficult and delicate task of carrying these measures into execution.

The present town of Parga had no existence before the irruption of the Mahometans into Greece, which happened about the end of the fourteenth century, though it is pretended that its name was taken from some former town called *Hypargos*, on account of its dependance on Argos. According to Miletius, *Paleo-Parga*, or Old Parga, contained a greater number of inhabitants than any other in the Thesprotian division of Epirus; but of this, *etiam perire ruinae*. The history of the present Parganotes, Parguinotes, or Pargiotes, as they are called by different writers, can be traced only to the period of the invasion of Greece by Mahomet II. when the inhabitants of this part of the coast and the neighbouring villages fortified themselves, in the strongest position which their country afforded, against the Turks; and, after the immediate danger had passed away, built the town on the rock where the fort now stands, and surrounded it with a wall. This rock juts into the Ionian Sea, opposite the southern end of Corfu, or the northern extremity of Paxo, and is about 240 feet in height; on its summit stands a building which is usually called the citadel. The town consists of one street, and a few narrow lanes; the houses are extremely poor, but have a pretty appearance, from being perched on the sloping side of a hill. The extent of the territory of Parga is about six miles along the coast, and generally about two in depth; the landscape is beautiful, and affords every-where the most picturesque scenery. With the exception of the rock, it may almost be said to consist of one continued olive-grove, interspersed, however, with gardens, orchards of orange and lime trees, and little cottages, which, with here and there a tall cypress towering above the rest, give a lively variety and a pleasing animation to the picture. The sides of the hills are planted with vineyards, and the open spaces produce a little wheat and Indian corn, sufficient for about four months consumption of the population; the remainder of their grain being partly purchased with the little returns of their oil, oranges, &c. from the Adriatic, and partly from the territories of Ali Pasha. The inhabitants justly boast of the purity and salubrity of the water and air of their country.

The state of hostility which has always prevailed between the Parguinotes and the Turks, has rendered them brave, and has familiarized them to arms and dangers. They are temperate, and commonly attain an advanced age. The men are in general strong and robust, rather above the middle size; their costume is that of the Greek Islanders; it consists of an embroidered jacket, large breeches of blue cloth, and the head is covered with a red skull-cap. They wear mustachios, and are generally armed with a musket, a pair of pistols, a dagger, and a sabre. "The women of Parga are generally handsome; their dress is a jacket of cloth or silk, embroidered, or trimmed with gold, with a long plaited petticoat. The hair is intertwined with a double cord of red silk, and gracefully fastened up behind. When they appear in public, they cover the head with a coloured handkerchief, which conceals the antique elegance of this coiffure. The wives and daughters of the principal inhabitants resort daily to procure water for domestic use, to a fountain (St. Trifon), about a mile from the town. They regard this exercise as a recreation, and it would be difficult to make them renounce so favourite a custom. Few sights can be more picturesque than these groups of women, among groves of olive and orange trees, bearing vases of ele-

gant forms on their heads." This is the description of the Chev. de Boffet; but these happy days are now no more.

At the time above mentioned, the Lion of St. Mark defended the coast and islands of the Adriatic and Archipelago; and the Parganotes, to ensure their escape from the bondage of the Turks, placed themselves, in 1401, under the protection of the Venetians, by whose powerful aid they were enabled by degrees to extend their territory to its present boundary. This tract was, at that time, and till very lately, surrounded by hordes of marauders, held under no rule but that of adventitious circumstances, though nominally subject to Turkey. The valour of the Parganotes concurring with the obvious interest of the Venetians to preserve one well-affected ally in that turbulent neighbourhood, bound the latter to a faithful observance of stipulations, which, in other circumstances, they were accustomed to violate with very little scruple. On the 21st day of March, 1401, the treaty of federation, thus singularly fulfilled, was first subscribed and sworn to between the two states. For the protection of the weaker power, it was agreed that the Venetians should maintain a body of Italian or Sclavonian troops within the walls of Parga; but, to prevent the abuse of a power thus dangerously posted, it was solemnly stipulated, that the Pargiots should govern themselves freely and independently, according to the laws and constitutions of their ancestors, and by judges and magistrates of their own election; that they should not be liable to serve by sea or land, in the militia or galleys of Venice, nor to engage in any war but in defence of their own territory and the Venetian settlements in Albania; that they should pay no taxes nor customs on export or import, and be chargeable only with half the ordinary duties when trading to the ports of Venice. This treaty was again confirmed, with the same solemnities, in August 1447; and observed, to the mutual satisfaction of both parties, till the end of that century. In 1500, in spite of the Venetian assistance, the city was burned by the Turks; and again in 1560. On this last occasion, the inhabitants were massacred or dispersed, and the whole territory laid waste and desolate. The scattered remnant of its people took shelter among the wandering tribes of the neighbouring mountains, but, by little and little, ventured back to their ancient possessions; and, after several years, came at length to rebuild their houses and temples on the spot where their ancestors had fallen. They then sent deputies to Venice to demand their assistance, and the renewal of their ancient alliance; requesting, among other things, that the senate would assist in fortifying their city, and would also lend them a sum of money to enable the poorer part of the citizens to rebuild their habitations. The senate was not only just, but generous. It undertook the whole expense of erecting the fortifications; and, instead of a loan from its treasury, it sent, as a free gift, the requisite materials for the construction of their houses. When the particular points of the embassy were adjusted, a new charter, ratifying and confirming all the former treaties, was regularly signed on the 5th of February, 1571. It was afterwards repeatedly renewed, and was always religiously fulfilled, not only in its letter, but its spirit, till the final extinction of Venice by the ambition of France and Austria in 1797.

At that time the French, after breaking up the Venetian republic, took possession of the Ionian Islands, and, at the same time, of Parga, and four other fortified stations in its neighbourhood; namely, Butrinto, Gomenitza, Vonitza, and Previsa. Parga was situated in the middle of these four places, and was, as it were, the keystone of the whole range. In the following year, when a coalition was formed against France by England, Russia, and the Ottoman Porte, the Ionian Islands surrendered to the allied fleets of Russia and Turkey; and Butrinto, Vonitza, and Previsa, fell into the hands of Ali Pasha, who is said to have committed dreadful slaughter on the

French, and on those Greeks and Albanians who had taken up arms, and joined the enemies of the Porte. Parga, however, supported by a French garrison, held out against the pasha, until the inhabitants found an opportunity of throwing themselves into the power of the Russians, who sent a garrison for their protection.

In 1800 a treaty was concluded at Constantinople between Russia and the Sublime Porte, by which the Seven Islands were erected into an independent republic, under the sovereign protection of Russia; and Butrinto, Parga, Previsa, and Vonitza, were ceded to the Porte in sovereignty for ever, on certain conditions favourable to these four places, and guaranteed to them by Russia. In consequence of this treaty, Abdullah Bey was sent from Constantinople to govern them, and Previsa was immediately evacuated by Ali Pasha. The Parganotes, however, stubbornly refused submission to the Ottoman power until the end of 1800, when, by the persuasion of the Russian ambassador at the Ionian Islands, they consented to receive the bey, and continued, in quiet possession of all their privileges, under the Turkish dominion, for nearly six years.

In 1806 the war broke out between Russia and the Porte; and Veli Pasha, the son of Ali, seized upon Previsa, Vonitza, and Butrinto, by express orders from the Porte; confiscated the possessions of the Russians; planted there several Ottoman families; and drove the Christian inhabitants into the interior. Parga, however, again escaped by calling from Corfu a Russian force for its protection; and when, by the treaty of Tilsit, in 1807, the Ionian Islands were delivered up to France, and Berthier was sent as the governor-general of Corfu, he threw into the place a garrison of three hundred Frenchmen. Ali Pasha, however, having information that the secret instructions of Berthier directed him to occupy the Ionian Islands *alone*, dispatched his effendi to Corfu, to insist on the French troops being withdrawn from Parga; and the general, satisfied of the justice of his demand, informed the Parganotes that he was about to cede the place to the Turkish government, to whom of right it belonged. Had this determination been carried into effect, the Parganotes were aware that they had little mercy to expect. The primates therefore repaired in a body to Corfu, and, throwing themselves at the general's feet, implored his compassion for their unfortunate countrymen, and besought him not to surrender them to certain destruction. Overcome by their earnest intreaties, the general recalled his orders, and permitted the garrison to remain for the protection of the place, which the French continued to hold as an appendage to the Ionian Islands.

In 1814 the star of Napoleon was visibly declining; and Ali, whom the circumstance did not escape, marched an army to the confines of Parga, and took possession of Aja, a village within the limits. In the month of March, when all the Ionian Islands had fallen into the possession of the English, except Corfu, between which and Parga (still in possession of the French) all intercourse had become not only difficult but nearly impracticable; and when the relief of the former place by French reinforcements was rendered almost impossible by the closeness of the blockade; the Parganotes, apprehensive that it was the intention of the French to deliver the fortrefs to Ali, (who, as we mentioned above, had taken possession of Aja,) sent a deputation to the English commandant of the island of Paxo, requesting the assistance of the British troops, and promising to give up the fortrefs to them. The officer in command refused to send a force to take possession of it, until a written declaration was brought from the principal inhabitants, to show there was no treachery. Two frigates, the *Bacchante* and the *Havannah*, then took on-board a detachment of troops to form the garrison; and, on their landing with a party of marines, the French made little or no resistance; and the British troops occupied Parga. But no stipulations whatever were entered into by, or in behalf of, the British go-

vernment, with the Parganotes; no other promises made, no other assurances given, than such as held out to them generally a continuance of security and protection so long as the British flag should fly on their fort; and so far was Gen. Campbell from accepting the offer "to follow the fate of the Seven Islands," with which they concluded their declaration, or from giving any encouragement to the deputation of primates, who subsequently went to Corfu to implore him "that the fate of Parga might be united for ever to that of the Ionian Islands," that he told them in plain terms, (as Sir James Gordon had done before him,) that he could accede to no such condition; but that they might rely on the protection of the British flag, until their fate should be decided at a general peace. It is indeed perfectly obvious that no stipulation of this kind could be made; for Corfu was, at the time, in full possession of France; and no man would or could, under those circumstances, have been absurd enough to determine by implication that the revival of the Septinsular Republic would form a part of the ultimate arrangements of the allied powers.

General Sir James Campbell reported to his government the step which he had taken, and in which he had been guided by the double motive of humanity and policy; of saving these unfortunate people from an unconditional surrender to Ali, and of obtaining a temporary possession of a spot which might assist in the effectual blockade of Corfu. The British government approved of his conduct; and directed him to continue to hold Parga provisionally in possession, as he already did several of the Ionian Islands, "until their final destination should be arranged at the conclusion of a general peace."

At the Congress of Vienna, and at Paris in 1815, the governments of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, after much deliberation, offered to Great Britain the sovereign protection of the Ionian Republic; and in November of the same year, a treaty was signed, by which the Ionian Islands and their dependencies, as described in the treaty of 1800 between Russia and the Ottoman Porte, were placed under the protection of England. By this treaty of 1800, the continental possessions of Parga, Previsa, Vonitza, and Butrinto, were restored in full sovereignty to the Porte, and were no longer to form a part of the Ionian Republic, then placed under the sovereignty of Russia. In reference to it, the islands of Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Santa Maura, Ithaca, Cerigo, and Paxo, with their dependencies, (but to the exclusion by name of the four places above mentioned,) were erected into a free and independent state, under the immediate protection of Great Britain. In the discussion that took place, the treaty of 1800, which had been renewed and confirmed in 1812 by that of Bucharest, between Russia and the Porte, made it incumbent on the allied powers to respect the territorial rights of the Porte to the continental possessions of the late Venetian Republic; and they were excluded from the Septinsular Republic, of which, in fact, they had never constituted a part. Thus, when Great Britain was called, in 1815, to the protection of the Ionian Republic, Parga formed no part of that Republic. Parga, of course, followed the fate of the other three ex-Venetian states, and became, like them, united to the Turkish empire.

It does not follow that, because, in the treaty of Great Britain with the other powers of Europe in 1815, a reference is made to the treaty between Russia and the Porte of 1800, for the purpose (and for no other) of determining the limits of the Ionian Republic, and because Parga had fallen by other means, and by the seeking of the inhabitants, with a view to their own safety, into her provisional occupation; it does not therefore follow, we say, that Great Britain was bound in the most distant manner to interfere, or to see that the conditions which had been stipulated by the Porte with Russia, and which are detailed in the treaty of 1800, should be fulfilled towards the Parganotes. There is no article in the British treaty

treaty of 1815 which confirms, or by which she takes upon herself, the conditions of 1800; they were perfectly foreign to her; they could not have been listened to for a moment; and that treaty was referred to, as we said before, merely as the means of defining the limits of the new territory to be placed under her protection. As far, therefore, as treaties, or engagements, or promises, are concerned, Great Britain might have withdrawn her troops from Parga, and left it open at any time she pleased to the re-occupation of the Ottoman Porte. This would have been, in fact, to deliver over the Parganotes to the unlimited fury of Ali Pasha, in whose territories they are situated, and who was already sufficiently irritated by their repeated refusals to surrender themselves to him.

To avoid a catastrophe so dreadful, the British ambassador was authorized to announce to the Porte, that the British garrison would be withdrawn from Parga so soon as the sultan should give his accession to the new settlement of the Ionian Islands, which circumstances, arising out of the war with France, had compelled the allied sovereigns to determine upon; but not until he had further consented to provide a suitable indemnity for such of the Parganotes as might resolve, from motives of personal security, to remove. But those inhabitants of Parga who might be disposed to remain, were equally the objects of British solicitude. As the treaty was still in force between Russia and the Porte, (which the special conditions thus obtained in favour of such of the Parganotes as chose to withdraw could not be considered as abrogating in any respect,) it was considered that the rights to be claimed under that treaty, by those who should stay behind, ought to be secured to them by the Ottoman Porte. To those rights they were clearly and unequivocally entitled, and to all the privileges thereby granted to them; and it was competent for Russia, at any time, to claim the same for them. The British government, however, not being a direct party to the treaty of 1800, had no such right of interference; she might endeavour to prevail on the Porte to grant them, without being considered as bound by any obligation to watch over their fulfilment: and this step she appears to have taken. Having succeeded Russia in the character of protector of the Ionian Islands, and the immediate countenance of a Russian force being thus lost to the Parganotes, his majesty's minister at the Congress, instead of being ignorant of the state of Parga, or forgetful of the Parganotes, as has been insinuated, appears to have taken the deepest interest in the security of this little community: this is fully proved by the instructions given to the ambassador at Constantinople, to employ his good offices, in concert with the Russian minister, if necessary, to secure to those who might remain all the privileges to which they were solemnly entitled by the treaty in question.

As soon as the negotiations for giving up Parga were concluded at Constantinople, the sultan appointed Hadji Khan Hamed Bey his commissioner to take possession of the place, and at the same time to deliver his accession to the treaty relative to the Ionian Islands. To meet this commissioner, and to arrange matters respecting the valuation of the property, Gen. Maitland nominated Mr. Cartwright, (then British consul at Patras, and now consul-general at Constantinople,) as a person who, from his habits of business and his official situation, appeared to be the best qualified for the delicate and difficult task of steering between two conflicting and dissatisfied parties. Mr. Cartwright proceeded to Ioannina, whence Hamed Bey has written to announce his arrival. To give confidence to the Parganotes, on the approach of the commissioners, the commander-in-chief of the Ionian Islands thought fit to reinforce the garrison to three hundred men.

The persons appointed by the general to make the valuation on the part of the Parganotes were four gentlemen of respectability on the island of Corfu. With singular care, and after long and continued labour, they took an accurate schedule of the property of every individual

within the territory, on which they put the same value that a similar property would be worth on that island. They found the number of houses and cottages to amount to 852; and the number of inhabitants, men, women, and children, to 2700, of which 200 were Albanians; the number of olive-trees was 80,447; of wild olives, 9,486; of orange and citron trees, 23,082; of other fruit trees, 13,012; and of Valonia oaks, 513; besides vineyards and cultivable grounds, all of which were measured. The value of this property, which the Parganotes themselves had stated at 500,000*l.* was estimated by the Corfu commissioners at 280,000*l.* but by those on the part of the sultan at 56,756*l.* only. Here then the two parties were at issue, though not so much as might appear at first sight; the Corfu commissioners having fixed the value as if the property had been at Corfu, and without any deduction for prompt cash-payment; the first of which, it seems, admits of an abatement of one-third part by the rule in force even under the Venetian government, and the latter of one-fourth. These deductions therefore would reduce their valuation to about 140,000*l.* Still, however, the difference was so great between the two valuations as to leave little hopes of coming to any speedy adjustment; but the perseverance of sir Thomas Maitland finally succeeded in obtaining for the Parganotes 150,000*l.* (666,000 dollars,) nearly three times the sum estimated by the officers of the Porte. But here again a difficulty occurred. Hamed Bey had provided the payment in Turkish piastres, a miserably debased coin. Had these been accepted, this vast sum carried into the Ionian Islands, would at once have so depreciated the value, as to cause a very considerable loss to the Parganotes, and detriment to the money-circulation of the Ionian Republic. The voluntary liberality of Hamed Bey, however, smoothed this point of difficulty; and at the expense of 33,000 dollars he procured Spanish and Imperial dollars to the whole amount.

The moment this indemnity was received, the result was publicly proclaimed in specific terms; every inhabitant was explicitly informed of the sum he was to receive, of the amount of the valuation originally made of his respective property, and the diminution in consequence of the subsequent arrangements; and every one was again distinctly told that it was entirely at his own option either to remove or stay. To prevent any mistake, each received a ticket, stating the amount of his individual share; and the result of the whole proceeding was, that, instead of making any objections to the fairness of the valuation, the Parganotes all expressed their satisfaction at what had been done for them, in the strongest and most unequivocal manner. We should have added that, on the delivery of the tickets, each individual was again informed, that he was still perfectly at liberty to remain, or to accept what had been considered as a fair equivalent for the property which he was about to leave. Hamed Bey made known by public proclamation the sentiments of the Porte on this occasion. "I engage," says he, "on behalf of the Sublime Porte, that all those who, from attachment to their beloved country, may remain behind, shall enjoy liberty of every kind, and every thing which regards their religion, without hindrance or molestation, together with every security, and the most profound tranquillity, in all that concerns their condition, their honour, and the respect due to each." They had all, however, made up their minds to quit the place, except one family; and they quitted it accordingly: one of the primates returned the following day, and was kindly received by Hamed Bey, and also by Ali Pasha, who visited the place three days after its evacuation.

On the arrival of the Parganotes at Corfu, it was settled with the Ionian government, that they should be at once, by an act of the legislature, acknowledged as naturalized subjects, and indulged in their anxious wish "to follow the fate of the Ionian Islands;" giving them, at the same time, permission to settle in any of them, without the least restriction

restriction on their free agency, other than the obligation imposed on each individual, that, having once made his choice, he should declare it to the local government of that island on which he had resolved to reside. Every disposition was manifested on the part of the general (now lord high commissioner) to make the situation of the Parganotes comfortable. He offered them lands; to build them a church, a market-place, a court-house, and such other public buildings as might be necessary; to grant the lands on one spot, if they chose it, on which they might erect a *Parga Nova*; and he endeavoured, by many other kind offices, to convince them of the interest which his majesty's government had invariably felt for their present comfort, and their ultimate and permanent advantage. The large sums of money, which many of the families had received, enabled them to enter on a more extensive scale of trade than they had hitherto been able to exercise while cooped up in Parga: some fixed themselves in small shops; others had recourse to the carrying-trade and to fishing; and few or no complaints were heard among them till they came to know, that sir Charles Monck and some other British senators had stated that they were very badly used.

We need hardly observe, that, however satisfied people in their situation might be, it would be too much to expect they should remain so, or continue to think themselves well treated, when they found persons of distinction in the parliament of Great Britain roundly asserting the contrary, and not only deprecating their lot, but wantonly abusing the government for its cruelty and injustice towards them. Without affecting the piling cant of humanity, (so fashionable at the present day,) we can feel what it is for a whole people to abandon a spot to which they had long been rivetted by habit, by affection, by the recollection of pleasures and enjoyments of which they are called upon for ever to take leave; to fly from a country endeared by those early ties and numerous associations which every hill and rock and rivulet has power to awaken; and to leave behind those roofs which have been the scene of the strongest passions which agitate the human mind. There, in truth, are no slight evils; but, when imperious necessity demands the sacrifice, and when every possible assistance is given to alleviate the loss, and to ward off the greater calamity, generosity as well as justice should prevent them from calumniating their benefactors. In justice to the Parganotes, however, it must be added that they were at least resigned to their fate, until they learned the clamour that was raised in their behalf.

At any rate, the degree of compassion which has been excited for the Parganotes is extravagant. If we compare the full and prompt indemnity procured for them, with the slow and scanty pittance granted to that numerous body of American loyalists, to whom we were pledged by every tie that ancient connection and recent devotion and attachment could enforce, we shall find that the balance, we will not say of justice, but of liberality, will preponderate considerably in favour of the former. What indemnification was granted, we would ask, or what stipulations were made, in favour of the great proprietors of any of the French West-India islands ceded at the treaty of Amiens? In what way did we interfere to secure either the persons or properties of the numerous French landholders who adhered to their sovereign or his cause from the tyranny of Bonaparte? But, leaving this, we would gladly learn in what treaty, for a cession of territory, made by any of the powers of Europe, was any other favourable condition ever granted to the inhabitants of that territory, except that of "settling a term, within which those who either belonged to it or were attached to the power who ceded it, should have a right to dispose of their property in the best manner they were able." Parga alone offers an honourable exemption from this rule; and the paying to the inhabitants the absolute value of the property which they voluntarily relinquished, within the short space of four months, in which all their litigations, conflicting titles,

and numerous claims of great variety and complexity, were adjusted, does no less credit to the active and impartial interference of the British government, than to its disinterested consideration for those who confided in its justice and power. And sir Tho. Maitland, the lord high commissioner, or governor, of the Ionian Isles, on opening the legislative session at Corfu, Apr. 8, 1820, observed, "The cession of Parga took place by virtue of treaties to which England has ever been faithful; she had moreover indemnified the Parguinotes, and granted them the rights of citizenship in the Ionian Isles." Several publications have appeared on the subject: our account is taken chiefly from the Quarterly Review, N^o XLV.

PARGAMA'R. See PERGAMAR.

PAR'GAS, a small island in the gulf of Finland, near the coast of Sweden, with a town: Lat. 60. 19. N. lon. 22. 7. E.

PAR'GASITE, *f.* A new mineral recently discovered at the village of Ersby, near Abo, in Finland. It is of a green colour, translucent and transparent. Its crystals are of various sizes, from an inch downward; the form an octohedron, with a rhomboidal base. It is harder than fluor spar, scratches glass, but is scratched by quartz. Specific gravity, 3.11. It melts before the blow-pipe into a mass of a pearly white lustre. The following are given as the proportions of its constituents:

Silex	-	-	42.01
Magnesia	-	-	18.27
Lime and alumina, equal parts			28.36
Oxyds of iron and manganese			4.54
Oxyd of a metal not investigated			0.33
Fluoric acid, water, and loss			5.68
			100.00

PAR'GET, *f.* [perhaps from *paries*, Lat. a wall; having been at first written *pariet*. See Bp. Hall in *To PAR'GET*.] Plaster laid upon roofs of rooms.—Of English tale, the coarser sort is called plaster or *parget*: the finer spæad. *Woodward*.

Gold was the *parget*; and the cieling bright
Did shine all scaly with great plates of gold;
The floor of jasp and emerald was dight. *Spenser*.

Paint.—Scorn'd paintings, *pargit*, and the borrow'd hair.
Drayton.

To PAR'GET, *v. a.* To plaster; to cover with plaster.—If he have bestowed but a little sum in glazing, paving, *parieting*, of God's house, you shall find it in the church-window. *Bp. Hall's Characters*.—A plaster that rather resembles true stone than mortar; with which they not only *parget* the outside of their houses, and trim it with paint after the Morisco manner; but also spread the floors and arches of their room. *Sir T. Herbert's Trav.*—There are not more arts of disguising our corporal blemishes than our moral; and yet, whilst we thus paint and *parget* our own deformities, we cannot allow any the least imperfection of another's to remain undetected. *Gov. of the Tongue*.

To PAR'GET, *v. n.* To lay paint on the face.—She's above fifty too, and *pargets*! *B. Jonson's Epicæne*.

PAR'GETER, *f.* A plasterer. *Barret*.

PAR'GETING, *f.* in building, is used for the plastering of walls; sometimes for the plaster itself.—Pargetting is of various kinds: as, 1. White lime-and-hair mortar laid on bare walls. 2. On bare laths, as in partitioning, and plain cieling. 3. Rendering the insides of walls, or doubling partition-walls. 4. Rough-casting on hearth-laths. 5. Plastering on brick-work, with finishing-mortar, in imitation of stone-work; and the like upon hearth-laths. *Chambers*.

PARGOIRE (St.), a town of France, in the department of the Herault: fourteen miles south-south-east of Lodeve.

PARGO'W, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Gohud: nine miles south-south-west of Kooch.

PAR'HAM, a town of the island of Antigua: five miles west of St. John's.

PARHELION, *f.* [Greek; formed of *παρά*, near, and *ἥλιος*, sun.] A mock-sun, or meteor, being a part of the heavens strongly illuminated by the image of the sun, and appearing like another sun, but often coloured and drawn out to a considerable length, in the form of a tail.—To neglect that supreme resplendency, that shines in God, for these dim representations of it that we so doat on in the creature, is as absurd, as it were for a Persian to offer his sacrifice to a *parhelion*, instead of adoring the sun. *Boyle.*

The apparent size of parhelia is the same as that of the true sun; but they are not always round, nor always so bright as the sun; and, when several appear, some are more bright than others. They are tinged externally with colours like the rainbow, and many of them have a long fiery tail opposite to the sun, but paler towards the extremity. Some parhelia have been observed with two, and others with three, tails. These tails appear for the most part in a white horizontal circle, which generally passes through all the parhelia; and, if it were entire, would go through the centre of the sun. Sometimes there are arcs of smaller circles, concentric to this, touching those coloured circles which surround the sun. They are also tinged with colours, and contain other parhelia. Parhelia are generally situated in the intersections of circles; but Cassini says, that those which he saw in 1683 were on the outside of the coloured circle, though the tails were in the circle that was parallel to the horizon. *Æpinus* apprehends that parhelia with elliptical coronæ are more frequent in the northern regions and those with circular ones in the southern. They have been visible for one, two, three, and four, hours together; and in North America they are said to continue some days, and to be visible from sun-rise to sun-set. When the parhelia disappear, it sometimes rains, or there falls snow in the form of oblong spiculæ, as *Maraldi*, *Weidler*, *Krafft*, and others, have observed; and, because the air in North America abounds with such frozen spiculæ, which are even visible to the eye, according to *Ellis* and *Middleton*, such particles have been thought to be the cause of all coronæ and parhelia.

Aristotle observes, that two were seen in the Bosphorus from morning to evening, though, in general, he observes, they are not seen except when the sun is near the horizon. *Pliny* relates under what consuls this phenomenon was ever seen at Rome. In the year 1629, was seen at Rome, by *Scheiner*, a parhelion of four suns; and the same number was seen by *M. Muschenbroeck* at Utrecht. *Gassendi* says, that in 1635 and 1636 he often saw one mock sun; in 1661, *Hevelius* observed at Dantzic one of seven suns; and in 1666, another was seen at Arles, of six. Phenomena of this kind have also been observed by *M. de la Hire* at Paris in 1689, and by *M. Cassini* in 1693; by *Mr. Grey* in 1700; by *Halley* in 1702; and by *Maraldi* in 1721.

Aristotle (*Meteor. cap. 3.*) was of opinion, that rainbows, halos, and mock suns, were all occasioned by the reflection of the sun-beams in different circumstances, by which an imperfect image of his body was produced, the colour only being exhibited, and not his proper figure. The image, he says, is not single, as in a mirror; for each drop of rain is too small to reflect a visible image; but the conjunction of all the images is visible.

M. Mariotte accounts for the appearance of parhelia from an infinity of little particles of ice floating in the air, which multiply the image of the sun, either by refracting or breaking his rays, and thus making him appear where he is not; or by reflecting them, and serving as mirrors. The known laws of reflection and refraction have given a handle for geometrizing on these phenomena; and *M. Mariotte* has determined the precise figure of the little icicles, and their situation in the air, the size of the coronæ, or circles, which accompany the parhelia, and the colours with which they are painted, by a geometrical calculus.

The hypothesis of *Descartes*, to account for that hori-

zontal circle in which mock suns appear, has less probability than any of his conjectures. He supposes that a great quantity of frozen vapours, crowded together by contrary winds, form a prodigious cylinder, which reflects the light that falls from it on all sides, so as to exhibit that lucid appearance in all the surrounding clouds. *M. Huygens*, on applying his attention to these appearances, was soon sensible that they could not arise from such globules as formed the halos; yet, since parhelia are always attended with halos, he was satisfied that their causes must be much alike. Considering, then, what other figures hail-stones might possibly have besides a spherical one, he could find no other so simple as that of a cylinder; and, indeed, he had often observed, that snow did consist of several slender oblong particles, mixed with those of other shapes; and seeing that small globules were sufficient for the production of halos, he imagined that a great number of small cylinders, floating in the air, might produce similar appearances. He also remembered that *Descartes* had taken notice of certain small columns, or cylinders, which he had seen lying on the ground, the extremities of which were bounded with flat stars, consisting of six rays or points.

The large and white horizontal circle, in the Roman phenomenon, *M. Huygens* supposed to be produced by the reflection of the sun's rays from the outsides of the upright cylinders; since, when the sun shines upon a great number of such cylinders suspended in the air, a white circle must necessarily appear to pass through the sun, parallel to the horizon, and of the same breadth with that of the sun. This he shows very distinctly by a large figure of a cylinder, and by pointing out the progress of the sun's rays reflected from it: for every point of the sun's vertical diameter, as well as his centre, will illuminate a circle of cylinders, of the same apparent height as the illuminating point. It is observable that no thick clouds are seen in the air when these circles appear, but only such as are very thin, and scarcely visible: for, in most of these observations, the sky is said to have been very clear and serene, which very well agrees with this hypothesis; since these minute cylinders must constitute a very thin cloud uniformly extended; through which the sun, and even the blue colour of the sky, may be seen.

He then proceeds to demonstrate his hypothesis, by an accurate consideration of the refraction of the rays of light through the sides of such cylinders as have been described; and he investigates the distance at which the parhelia must appear from the sun; showing that it is so much the greater, as the internal cylinder of snow is thicker in proportion to the whole cylinder; and that this distance must become greater as the sun rises higher; and he subjoins a table of these distances, in proportion to any given altitude of the sun; from which it appears, that if a sufficient number of cylinders be placed one above another, (some of which are melted more and some less,) besides the collateral parhelia next the sun, two or more may appear farther from him, but still in the same white circle; which was also confirmed by the observations of *Hevelius* in 1661, and of *Scheiner* in 1630. It appears also, from the same tables, that, while the cylinders remain in the same situation, as the sun rises higher the intervals between him and the two parhelia will increase, which was the very thing that he himself had observed. But a greater alteration of these intervals may happen, if the cylinders be more melted; and from hence might arise that very remarkable phenomenon, which is said to have appeared in the time of Augustus, when three suns were seen at the same time, all of which were soon contracted into one; which, he observes, would be effected by the warmth of the air melting the snow in the cylinders; by which means both the parhelia would draw nearer to the sun, till they coincided with it; at which time all the cylinders would be melted, and changed into round drops.

M. Muschenbroeck says, that nothing has been advanced concerning the cause of parhelia, more probable than the hypothesis of *M. Huygens*, except that frozen cylinders

ders or spiculæ are always found transparent, and are never opaque at the centre. The coloured arcs that accompany parhelia he thinks to be not at all different from the common coronæ; so that, if there be a quantity of icy spiculæ in a thin fog, the whole of this appearance will be produced, the coronæ being formed in the fog, and the parhelia in the spiculæ. See Huygens's *Dissertation* on this subject in Smith's *Optics*, chap. 11. See also Priestley's *Hist. of Light* p. 613. and Muschenbroeck's *Introduction* vol. ii. 4to.

PARI, or PERI, [Persian.] A good genius, a beautiful species of imaginary creature, neither man nor woman, angel nor devil, but answering, in many respects, to that beneficent little being to whom our ancestors paid so much attention, called the *fairy*; which, from the resemblance of the name, and many other circumstances, was, in all probability, of eastern extraction. The old romances of Arabia and Persia allot them a particular country, called *Jinnistan*, where they live upon perfume alone; and conceive them to be so extremely beautiful, that they call a lovely woman *Parizadah*, "born of The Paris," the name of the second daughter of Darius, whom the Greeks have called *Parjatis*; corrupting in the same manner, Sitarah (a star) into *Statira*, and Roshan (splendor) into *Roxana*. The *devas*, or genii, are another species of ideal beings, but the reverse of the *paris*, being ugly, malignant and perpetually at war with them, and with mankind, whom the *paris* are supposed constantly to protect. These two classes of supernatural creatures form great part of the machinery of eastern poetry, fable, and romance, and give a most fanciful and extended field to luxuriant imaginations. *Richardson's Persian Dict. by Wilkins*.

PARIA, a province of South America, in the government of Caraccas, formerly a part of Spanish Guiana; situated to the east of Cumana, on the north-east coast of the continent of South America. Between it and the island of Trinidad, is a large bay, called the *Gulf of Paria*.

There are few places so salubrious, and yet so fertile, in South America, as the valleys of Cape de Paria. Many tribes of Indians inhabit its coasts. Some French families took refuge there during the first storms of the revolution: a considerable number of French colonists from Trinidad, Tobago, and Grenada, have also settled in the same neighbourhood. At first, the Spanish government gave them a good reception; but the beautiful plantations of cocoa, coffee, cotton, and even sugar-manufactories, which they soon formed, tempted the jealous avarice of some local officers of the government. From 1802, various pretences were invented for getting rid of, and plundering, them. Some were driven out and sent away from the most contemptible motives; among others, M. Inardi, a native of Piedmont; the same who is now secretary to the Congress of Venezuela.

The entrance of the Gulf of Paria presents scenes both varied and magnificent. To the east is that majestic river the Oronoco, compared to which those of Europe are but as rivulets! its waves meeting those of the sea, and incessantly disputing the empire of the gulf. To the west appear, rising from the bosom of the horizon, the mountains of Cumana; and by degrees, on approaching the western coast of Trinidad, you discover numerous valleys and plains enamelled with eternal verdure. On nearing the coast, the navigator's view is charmed by a landscape covered with various plantations, and diversified by meandering rivers and rivulets, which water it. A strange and sometimes grotesque medley of white, copper-colour, and black, men, animate this scene. Whilst the numerous canoes of Caribs and Guaraouns skim the gulf in every direction, the traveller sees and hears the negroes working and singing in cadence; troops of monkeys jumping from tree to tree, and twining themselves while suspended from the branches by their tails: innumerable flocks of magnificent birds enliven the scene, by the beauty and variety of their colours. The shores continually resound with the songs

of some and the screeching of others: at the end of this smiling plain, rises the northern mountains, like an amphitheatre, their summits crowned with the noble trees of the tropics, above which the palm, waving its lofty head, attracts the thunder, and forces the clouds to depose their waters at its feet, from whence, precipitating in cascades and torrents, they form rivulets and streams. *Lavayssé's Description of Venezuela, Trinidad, &c.* 1819.

PARIA, a town of South America, and capital of a district in the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, beginning 210 miles north-west of that city, and about 120 miles in extent. The air is cold, so that the country produces little grain; which is in some measure compensated by the great plenty of all kinds of cattle; and the cheese made here, both from the milk of sheep and cows, is so highly esteemed, that it is sent into every part of Peru. It has also some silver-mines: eighteen miles south of Oruro. Lat. 18. 50. S. lon. 68. 20. W.

PARIA-TUBA, a town of Brasil, in the government of Para, on the river Amazons: thirty-five miles south-west of Pauxis.

PARIAN, *adj.* [from *Paros*.] Belonging to Paros; brought from Paros.

PARIAN CHRONICLE. See ARUNDELIAN MARBLES, vol. ii. p. 245.

PARIAN MARBLE. See the article MARMOR, vol. xiv. p. 389.

PARIA'NA, *f.* [a name of Aublet's, which as Mr. Professor Martyn remarks, seems to have been suggested by the flowers growing in pairs upon the spike.] In botany, a genus of the class monœcia, order polyandria, natural order of graminæ, or grasses. Generic characters. I. Male flowers in whorls, digested into spikes. Calyx: glume one-flowered, two-valved; valves short, acute. Corolla: two-valved, larger than the calyx; valves ovate, acute, one narrower. Stamina: filaments about forty, capillary, inserted into the bottom of the corolla; antheræ linear. II. Female flower solitary in each whorl, fastened to the axis of the spike. Calyx: glume two-valved; valves ovate, concave, acute. Corolla: two-valved, less than the calyx; valves acute, hairy at the tip. Pistillum: germ three-cornered; style long, hairy; stigmas two, villous. Pericarpium: none; corolla investing the seed. Seed one, three-cornered, inclosed.—*Essential Character*. Male flowers in whorls, forming spikes. Calyx two-valved; corolla two-valved, larger than the calyx; filaments forty. Female flowers solitary in each whorl. Calyx two-valved; corolla two-valved, less than the calyx; stigmas two; seed three-cornered, inclosed.

Pariana campestris, the only species. This plant puts forth several straight shoots, or canes, about one or two feet high. At each joint they are garnished with alternate oval weak leaves, striated throughout their whole length, smooth, glossy, greenish above, paler beneath; the foot-stalks are short, and accompanied by a long split sheath in opposite directions on each side the stalk. This sheath envelops the stem from one joint to the other. The stem is terminated by a serrated spike, formed of several ranges of male flowers growing above each other. The female flower is single in the middle of each range. The spike of flowers is about two inches and a half in length. Grows in woods in the isle of Cayenne. The number of filaments, or stamens, is very extraordinary in the natural order of grasses, to which this plant belongs.

PARIARS, a degraded tribe of Hindoos. See the article HINDOOSTAN, vol. x. p. 121, 123.

PARIDSONG, PARIDRONG, or PHARI, a strong town and mountain of Bootan, on the borders of Tibet; forty miles north-west of Tassifudon. Lat. 28. N. lon. 89. 13. E.

The fortrefs of Phari is a strong stone building, situated on high ground; and on the north and west sides of it is an extensive suburb; on the north is a large basin of water; and on the east a bank of earth projected to a considerable distance, and falling with an easy slope from a level with the rampart into the plain. The valley of Phari

Phari is very extensive, being not less than ten miles long and four broad, surrounded on all sides with rocky hills. At the foot of the rocks, on the west border of the plain, is a large brook, flowing towards the south, called Mahatchieu, which is said to have a passage, through the hills of Nepaul into Bengal. This is the station of Phari Lama, a dependant of Teshoo Loomboo, who is here a little potentate, being superintendant of a goombah, or monastery, and governor of a most extensive range of rocks and deserts, which yield verdure only in the mildest season of the year, when his neighbourhood is frequented by large herds of the long-haired bushy-tailed cattle. From his character and station, he has great influence among the herdsmen. The musk-deer, which produces a valuable article of revenue, abounds in the vicinity of these mountains: it is deemed the property of the state, and hunted only by the permission of government; of course a great part of the musk, which is a secretion formed in a little bag, or tumour, resembling a wen, situated at the navel, and found only in the male, passes through the hands of its agents. It is liable to much adulteration; but that which bears the regent's seal may be regarded as genuine. The musk-deer, in the language of Thibet, is called *la*; and the vascular covering of the musk, *la-tcha*. *Turner's Tibet*.

PARISOVAŹ, a town of Croatia: fifteen miles south of Bihacs.

PARIETAL, *f.* [from *paries*, Lat. a wall.] One of the two thin bones in front of the skull.

PARIETAL, *adj.* Belonging to one of the thin bones in the fore part of the skull.—The lower part of the *parietal* and upper part of the temporal bones were fractured. *Sharp's Surgery*.

PARIETARIA, *f.* [so named from *paries*, a wall, in allusion to the place of growth of the most common species, which is uniformly on old ruins, or mouldering, flint walls.] In botany, a genus of the class polygama, order monoecia, natural order of scabridæ, (urticæ, *Juss.*) Generic characters.—I. Hermaphrodite flowers two, contained in a flat six-leaved involucre: the two opposite and outer leaflets larger. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, four-cleft, flat, blunt, the size of the involucre halved. Corolla: none, unless the calyx be called so. Stamina: filaments four, awl-shaped, longer than the flowering perianth and expanding it, permanent; antheræ twin. Pistillum: germ ovate; style filiform, coloured; stigma penciliform, capitate. Pericarpium: none; perianth elongated, larger, bell-shaped, the mouth closed by converging segments. Seed one, ovate. II. Female flower one, between the two hermaphrodites, within the involucre. Calyx: as in the hermaphrodites. Corolla: none. Pistillum: as in the hermaphrodites. Pericarpium: none; perianth thin, involving the fruit. Seed as in the hermaphrodites.—*Essential Character*. Two hermaphrodite flowers and one female flower in a flat six-leaved involucre. Calyx four-cleft; corolla none; seed one, superior elongated. Hermaphrodite: Stamina four. Female: Stamina none. There are ten species.

1. *Parietaria Indica*, or Indian pellitory; leaves lanceolate, stem erect. This resembles our common pellitory, but is more naked. Leaves lanceolate, drawn out to a much longer point, three-nerved, naked. The balls of flowers are smaller, except the bractes, which are awl-shaped, not ovate; styles longer; fruits sessile, grooved. Native of the East Indies.

2. *Parietaria officinalis*, or common pellitory of the wall: leaves lanceolate-ovate, peduncles dichotomous, calyxes two-leaved. Root perennial, somewhat woody, red, fibrous; according to Lightfoot, creeping. Stems several, nearly upright, from nine inches to a foot or more in height, very much branched, round, striated, solid, reddish, pubescent; according to Lightfoot, rough to the touch and adhesive. Leaves alternate, ovate, pointed, tapering towards each extremity, entire at the edge, spreading, pubescent along the edge and on the veins of the under side, on the upper side deep green, shining,

somewhat wrinkled, and having small prominent points scattered over it. Petioles nearly as long as the leaf is broad, pubescent, channelled above. Flowers small, greenish, rough, sessile, growing in balls or clusters in the axils of the leaves; two hermaphrodites and one female in an involucre of seven leaves (six only, according to Linnæus), permanent; the leaves ovate, pointed, flat, hirsute, the hairs glandular at the extremities. The hermaphrodite flowers may be distinguished by the four stamens, which on the shedding of the pollen fly back with elastic force; the filaments are white and wrinkled transversely; the antheræ ovate, obtuse, double; with a white pollen. Germ green, shining, naked; stigma forming a bright scarlet tuft. The female is known by its situation between the two others, and by its want of stamens: the stigma is somewhat larger, and bent a little down. But, to obtain a perfect idea of the manner in which the fructification is carried on in this plant, the flowers should be examined at a very early period of their expansion; we shall then find in each involucre three red stigmas, the two outermost of which belong to hermaphrodite flowers, whose stamens are not yet visible; the middle one, which is largest and most conspicuous, to the female. If a view be taken of the same flowers at the time that the elastic filaments by their sudden expansion are scattering the pollen, the styles and stigmas of the hermaphrodite flowers, visible before, will often be found wanting, and the germ left naked in the centre of the flower: at this period, the segments of the calyx in the same flowers are nearly of the same length as the filaments, the style and stigma of the female flower remain perfect, and the germ is closely surrounded by a green hairy calyx, which never expands. The period of flowering being now over, a considerable alteration takes place in the calyx of the hermaphrodite flowers; each is considerably elongated, becomes more tubular, assumes a redder colour, has its tip pressed down, and soon drops out of the involucre, in which it leaves no appearance of a seed; but, on opening them, a seed will be found at the bottom of each, perfectly similar to that produced by, and inclosed in, the calyx of the female flower, which does not enlarge as the other does, but, partaking more the nature of a capsule, on pressure, divides at top into four parts, and contains a blackish shining seed. The manner in which the flowers shed their pollen is curious: the filaments, on their first appearance, all bend inwards; as soon as the pollen is arrived at a proper state to be discharged, the warmth of the sun, or the least touch from the point of a pin, will make them instantly fly back, and discharge a little cloud of dust. This process is best seen in a morning, when the sun shines on the plant, in July or August: if the plant be large, numbers will be seen exploding at the same instant.

Mr. Miller is singular in asserting that the *Parietaria officinalis* of Linnæus grows naturally in Germany and Holland, but was not in England till the year 1727, when he introduced it. He makes our plant to be the *P. judaica* of Linnæus, and the *P. minor* of Caspar Bauhin. In this opinion, says Curtis, there is the greatest reason to suppose that Mr. Miller is deceived. It frequently happens that the plant which is common in one country is supposed to be the common plant of other countries, without examination. The figures of Dodonæus and Matthioli, from which those of Ger. emac. and Parkinson are copied, are much fuller of leaves than our plant, and the stem is represented with stiff hairs standing out. The description of Pollich agrees very well with our plant.

Parietary, corrupted into pellitory, is now commonly called pellitory of the wall, being found on walls or among rubbish. It is a native of most parts of Europe, except the most northerly; in Sweden it is not found, but it is in Denmark. Curtis remarks, that the same degree of cold (about 31° of Fahrenheit's thermometer) which stripped the mulberry of most of its leaves, destroyed the greatest part of the herbage of this plant.

Parietary

Parietary promises little from its sensible qualities: it has no smell, and its taste is simply herbaceous. Formerly it was accounted emollient; but, not being mucilaginous, this effect ought rather to be ascribed to the warm water. Its character as a diuretic is better known. Matthiolus tells us, that the expressed juice, sweetened with sugar, had a very powerful effect in this way: and Barbeirac informs us, that a decoction of this plant, and *Uva ursi*, was found of great use in clearing the urinary passages of viscid mucus, and fabulous concretions. Mr. Sole, of Bath, has observed remarkably good effects from the juice of this herb in dropical cases, in which other diuretics had failed; he converts the juice into a thin syrup, and gives two table spoonfuls thrice a-day. Tournefort, also, in his history of plants about Paris, says that the syrup gives great relief in hydropic cases. Dr. Stokes says, he has been informed, that this herb, as well as *Nitraria*, contains a considerable quantity of nitre; and that, in making an extract from it, the mass has taken fire. It is recommended by Bradley to be laid on corn in granaries, for the purpose of driving away the weevil.

3. *Parietaria judaica*, or basil-leaf pellitory: leaves ovate, stems erect, calyxes three-flowered, corollas male elongated-cylindrical. This differs from the former in having shorter stalks, and smaller oval leaves. The flowers are also less, and in smaller clusters. In other respects they are the same. The little balls of flowers are on the branches, scarcely any on the stem. There are two male flowers, which are tubular, cylindrical, with the teeth of the mouth converging. The female flower between them is ovate. According to Gærtner, there are two hermaphrodite flowers and one female flower within a six-leaved involucre. The calyx when ripe is closed, loosely embracing and concealing the seed. Receptacle none, except a very small tubercle at the base of the seed, by which it is connected with the bottom of the calyx, as by a pedicel. Seed ovate, narrowing upwards, compressed like a lens, smooth, shining, dark, having a little white umbilical papilla at the base. Native of Switzerland, the South of France, Sicily, Germany about Gottingen, and of Palestine.

4. *Parietaria lusitanica*, or chickweed-leaved pellitory: leaves ovate, obtuse; stems filiform, striated, even, procumbent. Boccone says, that this differs from that of *Tragus*, and from the common sort of *Matthiolus*, only in the leaves, which are much smaller, the form and size of chickweed: but Tournefort says it is an annual plant, and the same with his *P. lusitanica*, which he found in Portugal, near Lamego upon the Douro. Ray informs us, that in a specimen of the Portuguese plant shown him by Sherard, the leaves were shorter in proportion to their size, and rounder than in the common sort. He found the Sicilian plants in several parts of Sicily; but does not seem to have been aware that they were the same. Boccone says it is very common in that island. In the Kew Catalogue it is said to be a native of Spain and Portugal, without any mention of Sicily; to have been introduced in 1771, by Mons. Richard; and to flower in July.

5. *Parietaria urticæfolia*, or nettle-leaved pellitory: leaves ovate, opposite, petioled, serrate, veined, pubescent; flowers axillary. This is a very branching plant, with small leaves, much resembling those of the nettle. Found by Mons. Thouin in the Isle of Bourbon.

6. *Parietaria cretica*, or Cretan pellitory: leaves subovate; fruiting involucre five-cleft, compressed; lateral segments larger. Found originally by Tournefort, and afterwards by Dr. Sibthorp, on the rocks of Crete and Cinoli. Root fibrous, simple at the upper part, round. Stems numerous, very diffuse, a span long, branched, round, hairy, reddish, leafy. Branches short, alternate. Leaves alternate, stalked, ovate or roundish, obtuse, entire, veiny, hairy, dark-green; dotted with minute tubercles on the upper side. Flowers axillary, sessile, three together, the middle one female.

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7. *Parietaria capensis*, or Cape pellitory: leaves opposite, ovate, serrate; branches diffused; flowers sessile. Found at the Cape of Good Hope by Thunberg.

8. *Parietaria debilis*, or slender pellitory: leaves alternate, ovate, petioled, quite entire, somewhat hairy; peduncles axillary, subtriflorous; stem almost upright. Native of New Zealand: discovered by Forster.

9. *Parietaria cochinchinensis*, or Cochinchina pellitory: leaves ovate, three-nerved, hairy; stem cespitose, diffused; flowers monoecous. Stem herbaceous, perennial, a foot and a half high, manifold, slender. Leaves acute, quite entire, small, opposite, having smaller ones mixed with them. Flowers axillary in whorls, in small clusters or balls, male and female together without any hermaphrodites. Seed roundish, inclosed within the converging calyx. Native of China and Cochinchina. It attracts the worms that infest salted fish or flesh; the natives hang the plant at the mouth of their casks, and the insects get into it of their own accord. It is also esteemed by them to be emollient, refrigerant, and diuretic.

10. *Parietaria arborea*, or tree-pellitory: leaves elliptic, acuminate; somewhat triple-nerved; stem arboreous. This is an upright soft shrub, the height of a man. Root woody, branched, fibrous, rufescent. Stem woody, upright, round, the bark full of chinks, ash-coloured. Branches and branchlets alternate, spreading, villose, pithy. Shoots red, very villose with hoary hairs. Leaves alternate, spreading, entire, nerved; three-nerved above the base, veined: underneath villose soft, above bright-green, from four to six inches long, and from two to four inches wide. Flowers commonly three, clustered, from the axil of each bract, sessile; in the male yellow, in the female red, herbaceous. According to l'Heritier, the male and female flowers are on different plants. What he calls males are imperfect hermaphrodites. In these, he says, the perianth is six-parted; in the female, six or seven leaved, or one-leaved cloven into so many parts; the germ between two nectaries, which are two roundish-four-cornered bodies, very shortly acuminate, opposite by the side of the germ, and without observing accurately might be taken for germs; and probably are so, if we may conjecture from analogy. Native of the Canary Islands, where it was found by Masson. Introduced in 1779. It flowers from February to May; l'Heritier says, in autumn or early in spring; that the male flowered at Kew, and the female at Paris. He first made it an *Urtica*, but afterwards removed it into this genus.

Propagation and Culture. The common European pellitories may be propagated in plenty from the seeds. If these be permitted to scatter, they will fill the ground with young plants. They are difficult to collect, being thrown out of their covers as soon as ripe. Having little beauty, these plants are seldom cultivated. The tree-pellitory may be increased by cuttings, and must have the protection of the greenhouse: as must also the seventh. The first, fifth, eighth, and ninth, must be kept in the stove. See DORSTENIA, MELAMPYRUM, and URTICA.

PARIETARIÆ AFFINIS. See THELYGONIUM.

PARIETES, *f.* [from *paries*, Lat. a wall.] A term used in anatomy for the enclosures or membranes that stop up or close the hollow parts of the body; especially those of the heart, thorax, abdomen, &c.—The *parietes* of the two ventricles of the heart are of unequal strength and thickness; the left exceeding the right, because of its office, which is to force the blood through all parts of the body; whereas the right only drives it through the lungs. Chambers.

PARIETINE, *f.* A piece of a wall; a fragment.—We have many ruins of such baths found in this island, amongst those *parietines* and rubbish of old Roman towns. Burton's *Anat. of Mel.*

PARIGNE' L'EVE'QUE, a town of France, in the department of the Sarthe: nine miles south-east of Le Mans.

PARIL'IUM, *f.* in botany. See NYCTANTHES.

PARIL'LA, a town of South-America, in the province of Panama: seventy miles north-west of Panama.

PARIL'LA, a town of Peru: fifty miles south of Truxillo.

PARILO'VA, a town of Russia, in the government of Irkutsk, on the Angara: sixty-eight miles north of Balaganfkoï.

PARI'MA, called also *Parana Pitinea*, or the White Sea, a lake of South America, in Spanish Guiana, is represented by La Cruz as more than 100 British miles in length by 50 in breadth. Its extent, and even its existence, have been doubted, as it was the noted seat of the city *El Dorado*, the streets of which were paved with gold; a fable, which seems to have arisen from a rock of talc reflecting, like a mirror, the golden rays of the sun. Lat. 3. 40. N. lon. 45. 20. W.

PARI'NA, called also the *Rio Blanco*, or *Branco*, a large river of South America, which rises in the above lake, and, after a southerly direction of 400 miles, runs into the Rio Negro seventy miles from Fort Rio Negro. It also joins the great river Marañon.

PARI'NA CAU'CHA, or COCHA, a town of Peru, and capital of a jurisdiction, in the bishopric of Guamanga; fertile in cattle, corn, and fruit: but the principal riches are from its silver and gold mines.

PARINARI, *f.* in botany. See PETROCARYA.

PARING, *f.* That which is pared off any thing; the rind.—In May, after rain, pare off the surface of the earth, and with the *parings* raise your hills high, and enlarge their breadth. *Mortimer's Husbandry.*

To his guest though no way sparing,
He eat himself the rind and *paring*.

Pope,

PARING and BURNING, the process of paring off the surface of lands in the state of grass, in order to convert them into tillage by means of fire. It is a practice for the most part employed on rough coarse grounds that are over-run with strong plants of the grass, moss, or heath, kinds, and on some mossy or peaty lands. See the article HUSBANDRY, vol. x. p. 529.

PARINO, a town of Mexico, in the province of Culiacan: forty-two miles east of St. Miguel.

PARIPE, a town of Brasil, in the government of Bahia.

PARIPU'RA, a river of Brasil, which runs into the Atlantic in lat. 9. 42. S. lon. 35. 26. W.

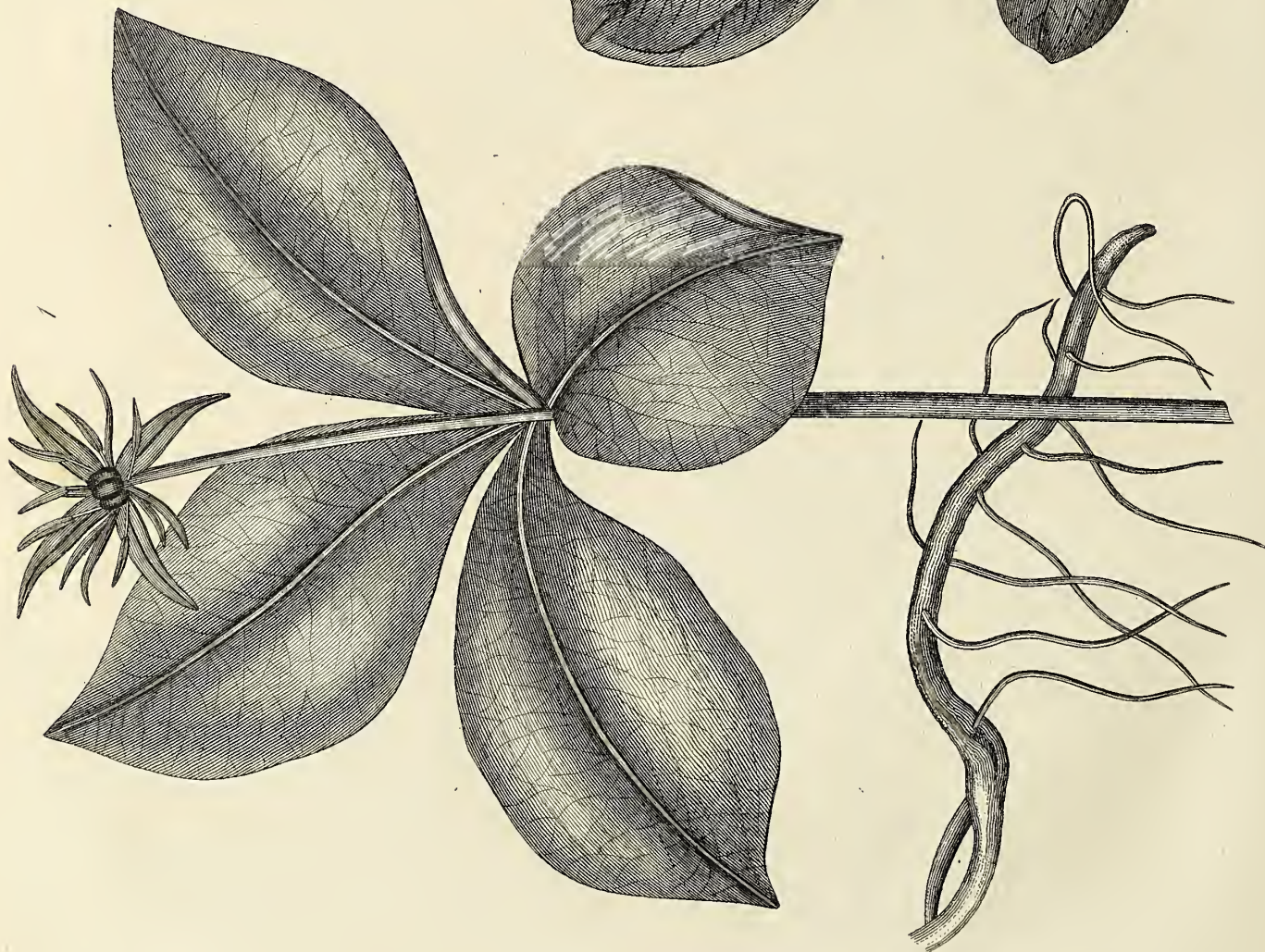
PAR'IS, son of Priam, king of Troy, by Hecuba; also named *Alexander*. He was decreed, even before his birth, to become the ruin of his country; and when his mother, in the first months of her pregnancy, had dreamed that he should bring forth a torch which would set fire to her palace, the soothsayers foretold the calamities which were to be expected from the imprudence of her future son, and which would end in the ruin of Troy. Priam, to prevent so great and so alarming an evil, ordered his slave Archelaus to destroy the child as soon as he was born. The slave, either touched with humanity or influenced by Hecuba, did not obey, but was satisfied to expose the child on Mount Ida, where the shepherds of the place found him, and educated him as their own. Some attribute the preservation of his life, before he was found by the shepherds, to the motherly tenderness of a she-bear. Young Paris, though educated among shepherds and peasants, gave very early proofs of courage and intrepidity; and, from his care in protecting the flocks of Mount Ida from the rapacity of the wild beasts, he was named *Alexander*, i. e. "Helper or Defender." He gained the esteem of all the shepherds; and his graceful countenance and manly deportment recommended him to the favours of Cénone, a nymph of Ida, whom he married, and with whom he lived in the most perfect union. Their conjugal peace was, however, of no long duration. At the marriage of Peleus and Thetis, the goddesses of discord, who had not been invited to partake of the entertainment,

showed her displeasure, by throwing into the assembly of the gods who were at the celebration of the nuptials, a golden apple, on which were written the words *Detur pulchriori*, "Let it be given to the fairest." All the goddesses claimed it as their own; the contention at first became general; but at last only three, Juno, Venus, and Minerva, wished to dispute their respective right. The gods, unwilling to become arbiters in an affair so tender and so delicate in its nature, appointed Paris to adjudge the prize. The goddesses appeared before their judge without ornament, and each endeavoured by promises and entreaties to gain the attention of Paris; and, to influence his judgment, Juno promised him a kingdom; Minerva, military glory; and Venus, the fairest woman in the world. After he had heard their several claims and promises, Paris adjudged the prize to Venus, and gave her the golden apple, to which, perhaps, she seemed entitled as the goddess of beauty. This decision of Paris drew upon the judge and his family the resentment of the two other goddesses.

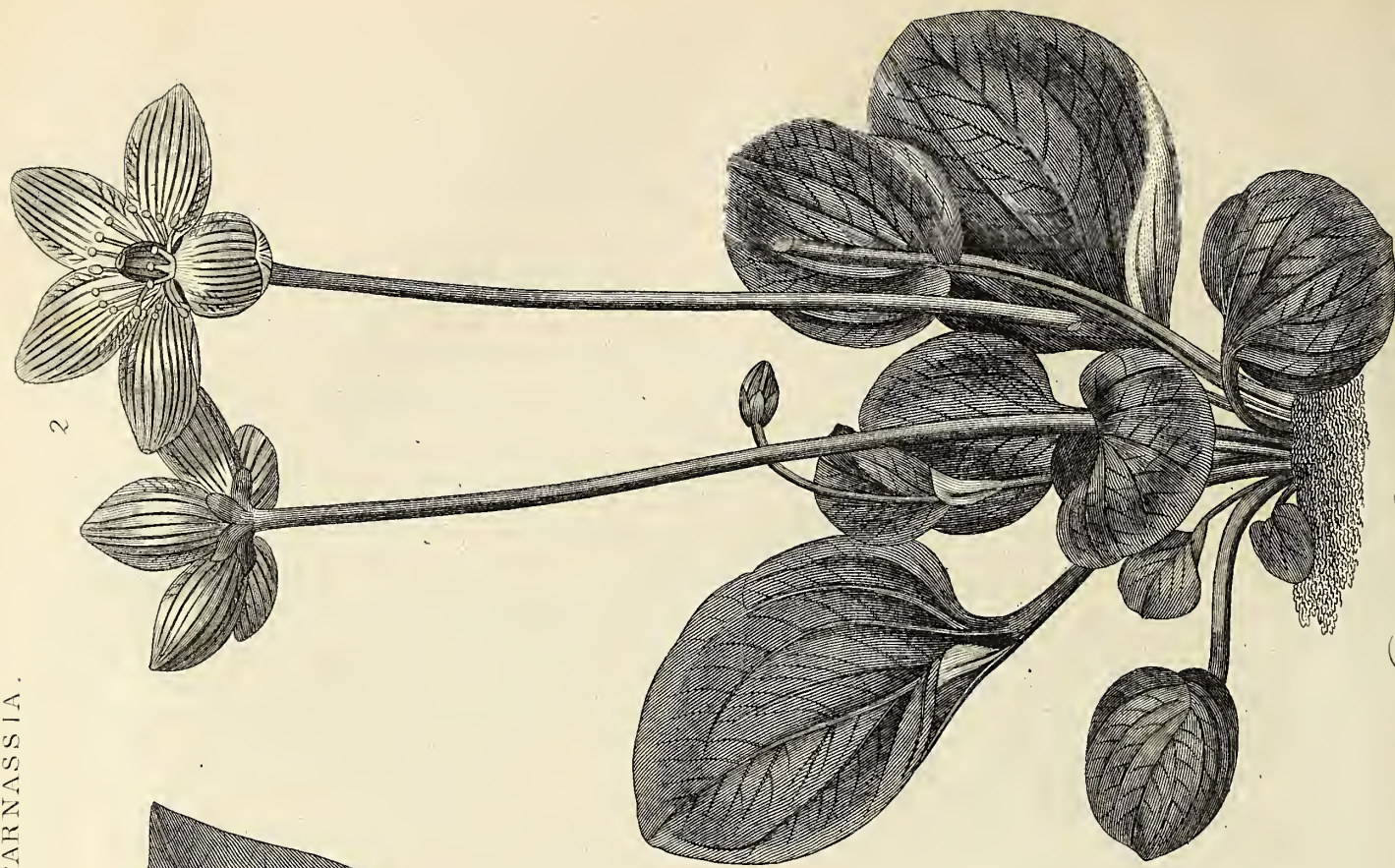
Soon after, Priam proposed a contest among his sons and other princes, and promised to reward the conqueror with one of the finest bulls of Mount Ida. His emissaries were sent to procure the animal; and it was found in the possession of Paris, who reluctantly yielded it. The shepherd was anxious to regain his favourite; and he went to Troy, and entered the lists of the combatants. He was received with the greatest applause; and obtained the victory over his rivals, Nestor the son of Neleus, Cyrenus son of Neptune, Polites, Helenus, and Deiphobus, sons of Priam. He likewise obtained some advantage over Hector himself; which prince, enraged to see himself conquered by an unknown stranger, pursued him closely; and Paris must have fallen a victim to his brother's rage, had he not fled to the altar of Jupiter. This sacred retreat preserved his life; and Cassandra, the daughter of Priam, struck with the similarity of the features of Paris with those of her brothers, enquired his birth and age. From these circumstances she soon discovered that he was her brother, and as such she introduced him to her father and to her brothers. Priam acknowledged Paris as his son, forgetful of the alarming dreams which had caused him to meditate his death; and all jealousy ceased among the brothers.

Paris did not long suffer himself to remain inactive; he equipped a fleet, as if willing to redeem Hecione, his father's sister, whom Hercules had carried away, and obliged to marry Telamon the son of Æacus. This was the pretended motive of his voyage, but the causes were far different. Paris remembered that he was to be the husband of the fairest of women; and, if he had been led to form those expectations while he was an obscure shepherd of Ida, he had now every plausible reason to see them realized, since he was the acknowledged son of the king of Troy. Helen was the fairest woman of the age, and Venus had promised her to him. On these grounds, therefore, he went to Sparta, the residence of Helen, who had married Menelaus. He was received with great respect; but he abused the hospitality of Menelaus, and, while the husband was absent in Crete, Paris persuaded Helen to elope with him, and to fly to Asia. Helen consented; and Priam received her into his palace without difficulty, as his sister was then detained in a foreign country, and as he wished to show himself as hostile as possible to the Greeks. This affair was soon productive of serious consequences. When Menelaus had married Helen, all her suitors had bound themselves by a solemn oath to protect her person; and therefore the injured husband reminded them of their engagements, and called upon them to recover her. Upon this, all Greece took up arms in the cause of Menelaus; Agamemnon was chosen general of all the combined forces, and a regular war was begun. Paris, meanwhile, who had refused Helen to the petitions and embassies of the Greeks, armed himself, with his brothers and subjects, to oppose the enemy; but the success of the war was neither hindered nor accelerated by his means.

PARIS AND PARNASSIA.



Herb Paris.



Carolina Grass of Parnassus.

means. He fought with little courage; and, at the very sight of Menelaus, whom he had so recently injured, all his resolution vanished, and he retired from the front of the army, where he walked before like a conqueror. In a combat with Menelaus, which he undertook by means of his brother Hector, Paris must have perished, had not Venus interfered, and stolen him from the resentment of his antagonist. He wounded, however, in another battle, Machaon, Euryphilus, and Diomedes; and, according to some opinions, he killed with one of his arrows the great Achilles.

The death of Paris is differently related: some say that he was mortally wounded by one of the arrows of Philoctetes, which had been once in the possession of Hercules; and that, when he found himself languid on account of his wounds, he ordered himself to be carried to the feet of Ceneone, whom he had basely abandoned, and who in the years of his obscurity had foretold him that he would solicit her assistance in his dying moments. He expired before he came into the presence of Ceneone; and the nymph, still mindful of their former loves, threw herself upon his body, and stabbed herself to the heart, after she had plentifully bathed it with their tears. Whatever was the mode of his death, it is understood to have taken place about the year 1188 B.C.

It is agreed on all hands that Helen was taken back by her husband after the death of Paris; (see HELEN, vol. ix.) but whether she was really in Troy during the war undertaken on her account, is not clear. It is probable she was not; and it is always worthy of curiosity to observe how far fable agrees with history. The following is an extract from Salmon's General History, (Asia.)

"Proteus, king of Egypt, resided at Memphis, where, in Herodotus's time, his temple was still standing, in which was a chapel dedicated to Venus the Stranger. It is conjectured that this Venus was Helen; for, in the reign of this monarch, Paris the Trojan, returning home with Helen, whom he had stolen, was driven by a storm into one of the mouths of the Nile, called the Canopy, and thence was conducted to Proteus, at Memphis, who reproached him in the strongest terms for his perfidy in stealing the wife of his host with all the effects in his house. He added, that the only reason he did not punish him with death, (as his crime deserved,) was because the Egyptians did not care to imbrue their hands in the blood of strangers; but that he would keep Helen, with all the riches that he brought with her, to restore them to their owner; that, as for himself, (Paris,) he must either quit his dominions in three days, or expect to be treated as an enemy. The king's order was obeyed; Paris continued his voyage, and arrived at Troy, whither he was closely pursued by the Grecian army. The Greeks summoned the Trojans to surrender Helen, and, with her, all the treasures of which her husband had been plundered. The Trojans answered, that neither Helen nor her treasures were in their city; nor indeed was it at all likely, says Herodotus, that Priam, who was so wise an old prince, should choose to see his children and country destroyed before his eyes, rather than give the Greeks the just and reasonable satisfaction they desired. But it was to no purpose for them to affirm, with an oath, that Helen was not in their city: the Greeks, being firmly persuaded that they were trifled with, persisted obstinately in their unbelief. The Deity, continues the same historian, resolved, that the Trojans, by the total destruction of their city, should teach the affrighted world this lesson; that great crimes are attended with as great and signal punishments from the offended gods. Menelaus, in his return from Troy, called at the court of king Proteus, who restored him Helen with all her treasure. Herodotus proves, from some passages in Homer, that the voyage of Paris to Egypt was not unknown to this poet."

How much might the effect of that excellent poem the Iliad, have been heightened, had it been carried on agreeably to the history, as above related! At present, Priam's

age and misfortunes can excite no real compassion, while he detains Menelaus's wife in the city, and protects Paris in his outrage. It may be objected to this, that the absence of Helen would deprive us of many fine descriptions, and a beautiful episode; but there is little doubt the poet could have supplied these in another manner; and the main subject of the poem (the anger of Achilles) would have suffered no alteration.

PAR'IS, *f.* [of very obscure etymology. Professor Martyn leaves it unexplained, as Tournefort and Linnæus had done before him, all of them either overlooking, or being dissatisfied with, the explanation of Ambrosinus; who, in his Phytologia 506, derives it a *paritate foliorum*, from the uniformity or equality of the four leaves, which make, as it were, two pair, equally situated. As the English name is *herb true-love*, perhaps it may be derived from that famous lover of antiquity, the subject of the preceding article.] HERB PARIS; in botany, a genus of the class octandria, order tetragynia, natural order of farmentaceæ, (asparagi, *Juss.*) Generic characters—Calyx: perianth four-leaved, permanent; leaflets lanceolate, acute, the size of the corolla, spreading. Corolla: petals four, spreading, awl-shaped, (linear, *Gartner.*) like the calyx, permanent. Stamina: filaments eight, awl-shaped, below the antheræ short; antheræ long, fastened on both sides to the middle of the filaments. Pistillum: germ superior, round-four-cornered, (or subglobular.) Styles four, spreading, shorter than the stamens; stigmas simple. Pericarpium: berry globular-four-cornered, four-celled. Seeds several, incumbent in a double row.—*Essential Characters.* Calyx four-leaved; petals four, narrower than the calyx; berry four-celled. There are two species.

1. Paris quadrifolia, herb Paris, true-love, or one-berry: leaves ovate, about four. Few plants are more readily distinguished than this, by the proportion and regularity of all the parts. Stalk quite simple or unbranched, upright, smooth, round, naked. Leaves four, in a cross, or a sort of whorl, spreading, sessile at the top of the stalk, ovate, quite entire, drawn to a point, smooth, nerved underneath, three or four inches long, and two wide. Peduncle single, rising from the middle of the four leaves, somewhat angular, about an inch in length, supporting one greenish flower, an inch in diameter. Calyxine leaflets four, linear-lanceolate, acute, reflex. Petals also four, very narrow, reflex, a little shorter than the calyx; stamens eight; antheræ in the middle of the filament; styles four, three times shorter than the stamens; hardly so long as the berry, purplish black. Berry one, black, large, flattened at top, obscurely four-grooved, smooth, juicy, and containing in each cell six or eight seeds. Root perennial, fleshy. See the annexed Plate.

The leaves and berries are said to partake of the properties of opium; and the juice of the latter to be useful in inflammations of the eyes. Linnæus says the root will vomit as well as ipecacuanha, given in a double quantity. Bergius recommends the herb for discussing buboes and other inflammatory tumours, in the hooping or convulsive cough, &c. Gesner experienced it to be an antidote to the poison of the nux vomica. Having given a scruple of it to two dogs, he gave one a dram of the herb, and it recovered; the other died. He also took a dram of the herb himself, without any effect except a dryness in the fauces, and some sweat. Burghard on the contrary says, that cardialgia and vomiting ensue from the use of it; and Krockner was credibly informed, that a child died by eating the berries, and that another was recovered with difficulty. Gesner affirms that the berries are baneful to poultry. It ought therefore to be given with great caution. One scruple is given twice a-day.

Herb Paris is a native of most countries of Europe, particularly the northern parts; and also of Japan. In Britain it is not uncommon, in woods, especially those which are thick, and on strong soil. Gerard says, "it grows plentifully in Chalkney-wood, near Wakes Colne in Essex, in the parsonage orchard at Radwinter, and in Bocking-

Bocking-park by Braintree in the same county; in the wood by Robin Hood's Well, near Nottingham; in the moor by Canterbury, called the Clapper; in Blackburne at Merton in Lancashire; in Dingley-wood, six miles from Preston in Aundernesse; at Heflet in Lancashire; and in Cotting-wood in the north of England, as that excellent, painful, and diligent, physician, Mr. Doctor Turner, of late memory, doth record in his Herbal." Parkinson, in 1640, says it was then lost in the above places, "every one running thereunto, that is next him, and gathering it." He informs us that it was found in his time in Hinbury-wood, three miles from Maidstone in Kent, in a wood called Harwarth, near Pinnenden-heath; by Maidstone, in Long-wood by Chiselmhurst, and in the next called Islets-wood, and in a wood over against Boxly-abbey near Maidstone. Mr. Newton found it in the Long Spring by Petesbogs at Chiselmhurst; and Mr. Ray in Lampit-grove, at Notley, Essex. Mr. Charles Miller discovered it in a little wood, not far from Hampstead; and yet Mr. Curtis has not introduced this curious plant in his valuable *Flora Londinensis*. Mr. Blackstone found it in Hanging-wood, near Harefield, Middlesex; Mr. Abbot at Hawnes, Renhold and Clapham, Park-wood in Bedfordshire; in Kingston, Eversden, and Ditton, woods, Cambridgeshire; in Love-lane near Derby, by Mr. Wately; at Selborne, in Hampshire, by Mr. White; Rip-ton-wood, in Huntingdonshire, by Mr. Woodward; Byseing-wood, in Kent; in Hollinghall, Stocking and Okeley-wood in Leicestershire, by Dr. Pulteney; in Brampton, Cranley, and Hardwick, woods, and Whittleborough-forest, in Northamptonshire, by Moreton; in

Asply and Colwick woods, Nottinghamshire, by Deering; in Headington-Wick-copse, Oxfordshire, by Dr. Sibthorp; in the wood by the Devil's Den, near Clifton-upon-Teme; woods on the sides of Breedon-hill, and about Frankly, in Worcestershire; near Gainford and in Raby-park, by Mr. Robson. In Scotland, in a wood a mile to the south of Newbottle, near Dalkeith, by Dr. Parsons; in the Den of Bethaick, four miles from Perth, by Mr. Lightfoot; in the wood of Methven, Perthshire, by Mr. Millar. It flowers in May; but is with great difficulty preserved in gardens. The best way is to take up the plants from the places where they grow wild, preserving good balls of earth to their roots, and plant them in a shady moist border, where they may remain undisturbed.

2. *Paris polyphylla*, or many-leaved herb Paris: leaves lanceolate, eight or ten. Discovered by Dr. F. Buchanan, growing in woods near rivulets, in Upper Nepaul, where it is known by the name of *dai swa*. The root is creeping, but much thicker and more tuberous than the former. Stem a foot or more in height, brownish, thrice the thickness of the first species, crowned like that with a whorl of leaves, in a similar spreading position, but about twice as numerous, and much narrower, being elliptic-lanceolate, taper-pointed, triple-ribbed; each supported on a short purplish stalk. Flower-stalk much shorter than the former; but the flower is larger, of the same green colour. Its calyx-leaves and petals are usually five, with ten stamens, but sometimes only four with eight stamens, or even three with six.

HERB PARIS of CANADA. See TRILLIUM.

P A R I S.

PARIS, the capital of the kingdom of France, is situated on the river Seine; and is one of the largest and finest cities in Europe. It is 225 miles south-south-east from London; and in lat. 48. 51. N. lon. 2. 25. E.

PARIS derives its name from being the capital of an ancient people called Parisii; but when it first assumed that appellation is unknown. Numerous are the conjectures respecting the derivation of the word *Parisii*. Some have imagined that this tribe descended from the *Parrhasians*, a people of Arcadia, whom Hercules conducted to Gaul. Others have pretended that some Trojans, escaping from the destruction of their country, fled to Gaul, and, building a new city, called it Paris, in honour of the son of Priam. Others have derived the name from Paris, the eighteenth king of Celtic Gaul. Many respectable authors have adopted an opinion not destitute of ingenuity. A noble temple, dedicated to the worship of Isis, once stood in the neighbourhood of Paris: its ruins were lately to be seen near St. Germain-des-Près: hence the surrounding inhabitants were called *Par-Isii*, or those who lived near the temple of Isis. The most probable conjecture is, that this tribe of Gauls denominated Parisii from their inhabiting the banks of the Oise, whose ancient name was *Isia*.

The origin of Paris is wrapped in total obscurity. The first mention which occurs of it is in the Commentaries of Cæsar, book vii. An universal revolt of the Gauls had taken place on the return of their conqueror to Italy; yet, jealous of each other, as well as indignant at the yoke of the invader, they had neglected to concentrate their forces, and each tribe had sworn singly to defend its native soil from the usurpation of the Romans. Labienus, one of the lieutenants of Cæsar, attacked them separately, and found them an easy conquest. Having subdued twenty-five of the Gaulish tribes, he presented himself before the capital of the Parisii, which was then called *Lutetia*, probably from the Latin *lutum*, mud, from its

situation amidst marshes and dirt. It was then entirely contained within that island on the Seine, which, at the present day, is called *l'Isle du Palais*; and, in comparison with the capitals of the other provinces of Gaul, Lutetia was but a sorry village; its houses were small, of a round form, built of wood and earth, and covered with straw and reeds. When the Romans had conquered Lutetia, they embellished it with a palace, surrounded it with walls, and erected at the head of each of the two bridges leading to it, a fortress, one of which stood on the site of the prison called the Grand Chatelet, and the other on that of the Petit Chatelet. The Yonne, the Marne, and the Oise, being rivers which join the Seine, suggested the idea of establishing a trading-company by water, in order to facilitate, by those channels, the circulation of warlike stores, and provisions. The merchants were called *Nautæ Parisiaci*. The Romans also erected, near the bank of the Seine, a magnificent palace and aqueduct. This palace was called *Thermæ*, on account of its tepid baths. Julian, being charged to defend Gaul against the irruptions of the barbarians, took up his residence in these Thermæ in the year 360, two years before he was proclaimed emperor, in the square which was in the front of the palace. "I was," says he, in his work entitled *Misopogon*, or the Enemy of the Beard, "in winter-quarters in my dear Lutetia. Thus is named, in Gaul, the little capital of the Parisii." And by another ancient writer, it is described as an inconsiderable island, surrounded with walls, the foot of which is bathed by the river; and the entrance, on each side, by a wooden bridge.

Towards the middle of the fifth century this city passed from the dominion of the Romans to that of the Franks; and, in 508, Clovis declared it the capital of his kingdom, and contributed very much to the establishment of it; he also abrogated its Roman name, and restored that of *Paris*, by which it has ever since been distinguished. Clovis fixed the seat of his empire here. Under the princes

of this dynasty, who reigned 266 years, the Latin tongue ceased to be commonly spoken, and was succeeded by, or mingled with, the Celtic. The Roman laws yielded to the Salic customs, and the people were enslaved by the nobles, and became their absolute property. Paris, however, preserved its liberty, its commerce on the Seine, and its municipal laws; but literature and the arts had fled, and the night of ignorance overpread the whole of the continent.

Few of the princes of the *second* dynasty resided at Paris. Charlemagne, occupied by his conquests, never inhabited it, although he occasionally held his court at St. Denis. Nevertheless, the Parisians were much indebted to him; for his love of science and the arts suggested the establishment of numerous schools, by the influence of which the character and manners of the people were materially and happily changed.

Under his feeble successors, Paris became the patrimony of some of the hereditary counts.

Allured by its riches, the Normans pillaged it in 845. They reduced it to ashes, and desolated even its suburbs, in 856; and, in 872, they once more attacked and ravaged it. These disasters have left few vestiges of the monuments built by the Romans, or by the kings of the first dynasty. In 885, the Normans again attempted the siege of Paris. In vain the inhabitants entreated succour from Charles the Bald. Their own valour, directed by the genius of their noble count Eudes, compelled the Normans to raise the siege at the end of two years. Charles, justly covered with ignominy, was deposed, and the crown placed on the head of Eudes. It became hereditary in his family, when his grandson, Hugh Capet, was elected in 987.

The first princes of this dynasty, anxious for the prosperity of a city that had been their peculiar patrimony, and the defence of which had elevated them to the throne, continued to reside here, in the edifice now called the Palace of Justice. They confirmed the ancient privileges of the citizens, and granted them many new immunities. The schools of instruction were increased, and the university established. A new city was added to the ancient capital towards the north, and fortified with walls.

Paris owes some of its chief ornaments to Philip Augustus, who erected many of the public buildings, paved the streets, and completely surrounded the city with walls, comprising in the enclosure a great number of small towns and hamlets in the vicinity: the undertaking occupied about twenty years, having been begun in 1190, and finished in 1211. This monarch was the first who caused the streets to be paved: orders for this purpose were issued in 1184, nearly about the same time that the walling was begun; and some say that from this time only the name of Lutetia, or "muddy," was changed for that of Paris, or "fair." We know of no other city in Europe that was paved at this time, except Cordova in Spain, which was paved as early as the year 850, or thereabouts. Neither are we to suppose that Paris was completely paved at this time; for there is evidence that, in the year 1620, the streets in many quarters still emulated their ancient name of Lutetia. Peter Heylin, writing about that time, says, "This I am confident of, that the nastiest lane in London is frankincense and juniper to the sweetest street in this city." And Howel (same date), "This town is always dirty; and 'tis such a dirt that by perpetual motion is beaten into such a thick black unctuous oil, that where it sticks no art can wash it off of some colours; inasmuch, that it may be no improper comparison to say, that an ill name is like the dirt of Paris; which is indelible. Besides the stain this dirt leaves, it gives also so strong a scent, that it may be smelt many miles off, if the wind be in one's face as he comes from the fresh air of the country."

The wars with the English required new fortifications; and in the reigns of John and Charles V. in the fourteenth century, ditches were dug, and the Bastile erected.

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Francis I. the restorer of literature and of the arts, neglected nothing that might conduce to the embellishment of this capital. He caused new streets to be made, many Gothic edifices to be pulled down, and was, in France, the first person who revived Greek architecture, the remains of which, buried by the hand of time, or mutilated by that of barbarians, being collected, began to improve the genius of celebrated artists, and in the sequel led to the production of many fine master-pieces of art. The successors of Francis executed part of his projects, and this extensive city imperceptibly lost its irregular and Gothic aspect.

Henry IV. was the first of the kings of France who embellished Paris with regular squares, or open spaces, decorated with the different orders of architecture. Having nearly finished the Pont Neuf, he built the Place Royale, and also the Place Dauphine.

During the brilliant reign of Louis XIV. the gates of Paris were converted into arcs of triumph; and its ditches, being filled up and planted with trees, became public promenades; hence the origin of the Boulevards, the pride of Paris, and the admiration of every stranger. Yet Paris was not the favoured city of this prince; for, had he expended on it a fourth part of the money which he lavished on Versailles, it would have become the most astonishing city in Europe. It must however be admitted, that he contributed a vast deal to the embellishment of it: he built the hospital and church of the Invalids, opened eighty new streets, erected more than thirty churches, built two squares, four bridges, five gates, fifteen fountains, raised the Observatory, and finished the Louvre.

Under the influence of Louis XV. this grand scheme of improvement was continued; and to this monarch the French are indebted for the Palais Bourbon, the Place Louis Quinze, with its colonnades, the Champs Elysees, the Ecole de Chirurgie, the Ecole Militaire, and the Pantheon, or church of St. Genevieve. The unfortunate reign of Louis XVI. afforded little opportunity for the erection of public buildings; yet this prince opened several new streets, erected some churches and hospitals, rebuilt the Palais de Justice, most of the theatres, and began the Pont Louis XVI. and the New Madeleine (Temple of Glory).

The embellishments of Paris during the reign of Napoleon are thus summed up. He built three bridges across the Seine, the Pont Jena, des Arts, and d'Austerlitz; the pillar in the Place Vendome, the portico of the Palais Bourbon, the triumphal arch in the Place de Caroussel, part of the new wing of the Louvre, the fountains on the Boulevard St. Martin and of the Ecole de Medicine. He also completed the Palace of the Old Louvre, raised the new staircase of the gallery, improved and embellished the Luxembourg, ordered the outside of several palaces to be cleaned and repaired, and the dome of the Invalids to be gilt. He had commenced a triumphal arch at the Barriere de Neuilly, which, from its magnitude, was to have surpassed every similar edifice. The elevation of this building is already considerable, and forms a conspicuous object from the Tuileries, the banks of the Seine, and all their vicinity. He made several streets, erected sixty public fountains, and abreuvoirs, or drinking-places for horses, in several places at Paris, four abattoirs for slaughtering cattle at the four extremities of Paris, granaries of abundance, &c.

But one of the grandest projects of Napoleon was to have opened a new street, ninety feet wide and about two miles in length, extending from the triumphal arch in the Caroussel, which was to have stood in the centre of it, through the whole length of Paris, over the ground of the street called Rue St. Antoine, till it joined the arsenal and the site of ground of the late Bastile at the Barriere d'Enfer, there to terminate in a fountain formed of an immense elephant in brass. The street was to have been named *Rue Imperiale*. If it had been completed, it would have made the most magnificent street in Europe.

It is here but justice to observe, that Louis XVIII. has not been inattentive to the ornamenting of his capital; since his return several little improvements have been made, particularly in the Palais Royal, where a handsome fountain has been erected in the centre of the garden, which adds much to the beauty of this enchanting spot. It was opened in March 1817.

The superficial extent of Paris at various epochs has been traced by MM. Legrand and Landon, (*Description de Paris*, 1808.) In the time of Julius Cæsar, B. C. 56, being confined to a small island in the Seine, it measured only about 44 *arpens*, or acres; in the reign of Francis I. 1414 *arpens*; under Louis XIV. and XV. 3919; and under Louis XVI. in 1788, it measured 9858 *arpens* and three perches, and might then contain about 26,000 houses. At present the number of houses is calculated to be 29,400; we may say, for a round number, 30,000. There are 1062 streets; 117 culs-de-sac (courts with no thoroughfare); 28 quays; 18 boulevards (malls); and 56 barriers (gates).

From a work lately published by the Academy of Sciences, it appears, that Paris contains 715,595 inhabitants, (and all France 29,327,388.) The fixed population of Paris is 657,172. The number of births annually is 21,000, and of these the proportion of male to female is 25 to 24; yet the surviving females at present in Paris exceed the males by about one-fifth. The consumption of provisions annually is 206 millions of loaves; 21,000 quarters of wheat; 8,500 quarters of barley; 75,000 oxen; 15,000 neat cattle; 10,000 calves; 220,000 sheep; 550,000 hogs; 100,000 quintals (hundred weight) of sea-fish; 1,300,000 francs worth of fresh-water fish; 6,000 hogheads of cider; 30,000 hogheads of beer; 33 millions of wine; and 3 millions of brandy.

Before the revolution, Paris contained 46 parish-churches, and 20 others answering the same purpose; 11 abbeys, and 133 monasteries, or convents of men and women; 13 colleges, 15 public seminaries, and 26 hospitals. At the beginning of the revolution several of these buildings were destroyed; almost all the monasteries and convents were suppressed, and, together with the churches belonging to them, sold as national property, and either demolished for the sake of their materials, or converted to different uses. Three of them were converted into commodious healthy prisons, and a penitentiary house for women, viz. St. Pelagie, St. Lazare, and the Madelonnettes. Four other convents have become extensive hospitals: the Lying-in Hospital, the Hospital for Venereal Diseases, and the Military Hospital of the Val de Grace. Six commodious, and most of them elegant and extensive, markets, have replaced a like number of convents and churches; viz. The Market of the Jacobins, so called from the Dominican Friars; the Poultry and Game Market has replaced the Augustine monks; the Market of St. Martin, built on part of the garden of the Benedictine abbey of St. Martin; the market of the Blancs Manteaux, old Rue du Temple; the Market of the Carmes, where the Carmelite monks were established; the market of St. Joseph has replaced the church dedicated to that saint; the convents of the Petits-Pères, that of the nuns of the Panthéon; that of the Minimes, and some others, have been converted into useful and commodious barracks. The Seminary of St. Sulpice has been pulled down to make room for a fine square, ornamented with a fountain; and to display a full view of the front of the church of St. Sulpice, undoubtedly one of the finest monuments of architecture in Paris. The extensive buildings of the Sorbonne have been appropriated to lodge commodiously thirty-six artists, with their families. The eminently useful Quays which border the island Notre Dame, or la Cité, have replaced filthy unhealthy buildings of every description. The magnificent new Exchange is erecting on the garden which belonged to the nuns that were called Filles St. Thomas. The famous Polytechnic School occupies the mansion, considerably enlarged, of the Col-

lege of Navarre, a celebrated school of divinity. The useful Normal School replaces a religious establishment. The National Institute is installed under the dome of the College Mazarin. The Lyceum of Charlemagne was formerly the College of the Jesuits; a part of the building has been appropriated for the City Library. The Institution for the Deaf and Dumb replaces the ancient ecclesiastical seminary of St. Magloire. The healthy spacious Hospital for Incurables, in the Fauxbourg St. Martin, was formerly a convent of mendicant friars; and the Abbaie de St. Martin is now the useful and splendid Conservatoire des Arts. The ground on which the Bastille stood has been transformed into a beautiful boulevard, the Boulevard Bourdon. The famous Canal de l'Ourcq will end here; and probably few will regret this metamorphosis of the Bastille.

We know not whether the convents and religious edifices in other parts of France were destroyed or converted to the proportionate extent that they were in Paris; but we are told that there are now (1820), in all France, no more than 36,185 priests, (see FRANCE, vol. vii. p. 896.) while there are 106 female congregations, possessing 1721 establishments, which contain 11,762 sisters: these charitable women administer relief to nearly 69,000 sick persons, and instruct gratuitously 63,000 poor children.

Paris is divided into twelve mayoralties, each of which is presided over by a central officer of the municipal police. The faubourgs retain their ancient names, but those of many of the streets have been changed since the revolution. In proportion as the limits of the capital became extended, the real gates were removed, but they re-appeared under the name of *barrières*. These edifices, many of which were very costly, were constructed during the ministry of Calonne, under the direction of Ledoux, the architect, who has taken pleasure in varying their form and character. One represents an observatory; another, a chapel; some have the appearance of rusticated buildings; others of temples. There are about sixty of these *barrières*, which, during the revolution, were frequently shut to serve the purposes of party, and to favour the arrest of particular persons: they are now occupied by custom-house officers, whose business is to collect duties, and to watch that no contraband goods find their way into the city.

The river Seine, which intersects Paris as the Thames does London, is justly esteemed one of the most beautiful in France; it is of a light sea-green hue, a singularity which adds to the effect of the noble bridges and quays. This colour is not observable before the junction of the Seine and Marne, where it may be clearly observed to belong to the latter stream, the Seine being of a brown or muddy appearance, while the green hue of the Marne continues unpolluted for a considerable space. Towards the north this plain is bounded by a semicircular range of gentle elevations, mostly composed of gypsum, or alabaster, which by combustion yields the noted *plaster of Paris*. This substance is much used in the construction of the houses. The calcareous free-stone, with which the superior hotels are built, is drawn from the quarries on the south of the city; and to the discovery of these quarries, about the middle of the sixteenth century, the present magnificence of Paris is chiefly owing.

The river forms two small islands, denominated Isle St. Louis and Isle Notre Dame. The former is the ancient city; and derives its name from a building wherein the kings of the first dynasty resided, and which was afterwards appropriated to the reception of the parliament. The quarter denominated the *Ville* is situated on the north, the university is on the south, and the city stands in the centre. Its extent along the river is about four miles and a half; its breadth, from the Barrier St. Denis to the Barrier St. Jacques, about three miles and a half. The new walls enclose a very considerable space of ground which is uninhabited, and even under tillage: hence the real extent of the city is very different from its apparent magnitude.

The ravages of the Normans in the tenth century, and

and the taste of the French for novelty, have left few ancient monuments at Paris. Of the Roman, there is only one fall of the Palais de Thermes, at present a dépôt belonging to a cooper in Rue de la Harpe. The Hotel de Cluny, that was built out of the remains of this palace, which extended as far as the Rue de St. Jacques, had nearly destroyed all that was left of the only edifice in Paris in which the Roman mode of building could be traced. The dimensions of the apartment before mentioned are 38 feet by 56, and its height from the present soil 40 feet. The light had been introduced by a large window in the form of an arcade, and this was placed above a large circular niche over the entrance. The vault, like all the Roman baths, is formed of a blocking of bricks and *moellons*, cemented by a mortar, a mixture of lime and sand. For a number of years a garden was spread over the surface of this bath, which did not appear to have undergone any alteration from the layers of vegetable earth from three to four feet in thickness, and continually exposed to rain and the water bestowed upon its growth; another proof of the duration which the Romans gave to their works. The walls of this apartment were stuccoed from four to five inches in thickness. Underneath it, is a double row of cellars, or rather large conduits nine feet high, and as many in breadth. The neighbouring Hotel de Cluny is one of the most ancient and elegant Gothic structures in Paris. La Tour de St. Jean de Latran is, it is said, the remains of the palace inhabited by Clovis upon the mountain St. Genevieve. It is remarked that the tower of St. Jacques de la Boucherie, near the site of the ancient church, was preserved because Nicholas Flamel, the alchemist, took up his residence near it. The house of the canon Fulbert, near Notre Dame, is still recognized by two ancient medallions sculptured in the wall, representing Eloisa and Abelard. A huft of Henry IV. in Rue de la Ferronnerie, marks the spot where he was assassinated, opposite la Croix d'Or. The duke d'Orleans, brother of Charles VI. fell under the poignards directed against him by the duke of Burgundy, nearly opposite the Rue des Blancs Manteaux; and the house, Rue de Bethizy, is still recognized with regret, as that in which admiral Coligni was massacred. L'Hotel de la Salamandre, which belonged to the dukes d'Etampes, mistrefs to Francis I. who occupied the nearly adjacent Palais d'Amour, is now an obscure inn.

Throughout the ancient part, and in the centre, of Paris, the streets are narrow, dark, and dirty. Few of them have pavements for the accommodation of foot-passengers; and the pitching of the streets is composed of uneven and pointed stones, on which it is extremely difficult to walk in wet weather, and by which the pedestrian is soon rendered foot-sore. The coachmen have no established rule by which they drive on the right or left of the road, but they cross and jostle one another without ceremony. They drive close to the very doors of the houses, and either cover the foot-passenger with mud, or endanger his limbs or his life. The Paris Jehu has not the slightest regard for the comfort or safety of the pedestrian; he gives him little notice, although his horses are close upon him, and ready to trample him down: yet the accidents which occur from this infamous practice are not so numerous as might be expected. Were it not for a few large stones which project from some of the houses, and the receding door-ways of others, the disasters of the streets would form a more conspicuous item than they now do in the bills of mortality.

On account of the irregular and confused manner of driving through the streets, it is inconvenient, and even dangerous, to appear in them on horseback. The traveller will, therefore, have no temptation to take his Bucphalus to the continent; or, should he be determined to sport his charger in Paris, his rides will be confined to the Boulevards, the Elysian fields, the Bois de Boulogne, and the banks of the Seine. For the same reason, the gig and curricie should be left in England. The inconvenience

and danger of traversing the streets of Paris, together with the comparative poverty of the higher classes in France, will account for the small number of gentlemen's carriages that are seen in the French metropolis. Fiacres and cabriolets roll along in abundance; but the splendid equipages which crowd the British capital are thinly scattered in the streets of Paris.

The houses, which are generally constructed of stone, are six or seven stories high; and, not unfrequently, seven or eight families occupy the different apartments and subdivisions of the enormous edifice. This motley collection of inmates is a peculiar feature of the French metropolis. The first floor is probably occupied by one of the ancient noblesse, or by a chevalier who can trace his descent from the first dynasty of the monarchs of France. He perhaps pays 300*l.* per annum for the rent of his share of the edifice. Above him are tenants possessed of different gradations of fashion or opulence, to the sixth or seventh floor, which are inhabited by the milkman, the cobbler, or the scavenger, who only pay a rent of ten pounds. The whole of this ill-assorted community use the same magnificent staircase, decorated by marble columns, enriched with beautiful bas-reliefs, and embrowned by the collected filth of a hundred dirty feet. Occasionally the common staircase is swept by the porter; but in some hotels it is suffered to remain in a horribly disgusting state; for, the cleansing of it, being the duty of no particular floor, is neglected by all, and many months pass without its being profaned by mop or broom. In no other city but Paris would the access to the most elegant and splendid apartments lie through an avenue, which the gentlemen are sometimes compelled to traverse on tip-toe, and in which the ladies are constrained to elevate their petticoats quite as high as decency will allow.

One proof of a total want of taste, or rather of a sense of propriety, in the French, should not be forgotten. When an hotel (a large house) is inhabited by one opulent or noble family only, it is not unusual to make the upper story the receptacle for the hay and provender of the horses. A crane, which can be protruded at pleasure, is usually placed within one of the upper windows; and I have frequently seen the trusses of hay, and the sacks of corn, slowly drawn up to the top of the superb residence of a duke or a prince.

The leading street in Paris, on a par with the Strand and Fleet-street in London, is the Rue St. Honoré, which is joined to the Rue St. Antoine, forming a complete line from east to west; while from north to south is Rue St. Martin, which conducts to the Seine at the Pont (bridge) Notre Dame, and on the opposite bank is continued by the Rue St. Jacques, forming one uninterrupted course through the whole city. On a parallel with these two last-mentioned streets is the Rue St. Denis, which leads to the Pont au Change (Exchange-bridge), and on the other side of which is a continuation by the Rue de la Harpe, and the Rue d'Enfer, (Road to Hell.)

The lamps, instead of being close to the houses, are hung by a cord across the middle of the streets, high enough for carriages to pass beneath them. They put us to shame during the reign of our degenerate lamps; but, since gas and clean lamps have been introduced among us, we rank above the Parisians in that article of comfort, as we do in most others. The names of the streets are written in large characters at the beginning and end of each, with this peculiarity, which will often be a useful guide to the stranger: the names of the streets which are parallel with the course of the Seine are painted in red letters; those which are perpendicular to the Seine are black. The numbering of the houses is likewise peculiar: the numbers begin with that part of the street which is nearest to the Seine; or from the east, when the street is parallel with the river: the even numbers are on the right side, and the odd numbers on the left side, of the street.

Hackney-coaches ply in the streets from five in the morning

morning till midnight. They are in every respect much better regulated than those of London. The coaches and horses are good, and the drivers civil and honest. The numbers are painted on each side of the coach, and on the back, in large and legible characters; but this is not all; they are also painted on tin, and nailed up inside the vehicle in two or three places; an example worthy of being followed in England. The fares are regulated by the police, and are for a *cabriolet* 25 sous for the course; that is, for every time the vehicle is stopped. If taken by time, the price is 30 sous (1s. 3d.) for the first hour, and 25 for every following one. For a coach (*fiacre*) the price is 30 sous per course, or 2 francs (1s. 8d.) for the first hour, and 30 sous for the others: but the price is double, if the coach be taken after midnight. It is usual to give the coachman some money for drink, but he cannot demand it. There are in Paris about 2800 *fiacres* and 4000 *cabriolets*. The *cabriolets* are single-horse chaises with a head constantly up. They contain two persons and the driver: are exceedingly convenient, and have the numbers painted in the same conspicuous way as on the *fiacre*. The first hackney-coaches were established at a house in the rue St. Antoine, which had for its sign the image of *St. Fiacre*, whence the name.

The traveller should be informed that the regulations respecting the fare extend only to the barriers; and that, should he prolong his drive beyond them, he will be completely at the mercy of the driver, unless he has previously made a specific agreement with him.

Other *cabriolets*, and carriages of various descriptions, stand in different parts of Paris, and carry passengers to the villages in the environs. There is no fixed price, but the competition keeps it sufficiently moderate. On festivals, however, advantage is taken of the eagerness of the Parisians, and the fare is considerably enhanced.

There are also passage-boats, which depart every hour for Meudon, Sevres, and St. Cloud. A boat likewise starts every day for St. Cloud, from the foot of the Pont Royal. The passage occupies about two hours; the company is usually above the lower class; and the scenery of the river is delightful. The fare is 16 sols. The watermen are forbidden to take more than sixteen persons.

At all hours of the night persons are seen in the streets of Paris with torches or lanterns: these are called *fallots*; and are regularly appointed and paid by the police. Their principal office is to observe the actions of suspected persons; and they deliver a faithful bulletin, in the morning, of every thing that has taken place during the night. To the stranger they offer material assistance. If he should have lost his way at night, when no *fiacres* are on the stands, he may confidently commit himself to the care of one of these men, who, for a trifling gratuity, will conduct him the nearest way to his hotel. He should, however, be careful that there is nothing suspicious in his appearance or manner; for immediate intelligence of the hotel to which he has been conducted will be given to the police, and he may possibly be roused by a domiciliary visit before morning.

The soil on which the city of Paris stands is various. On the south of the river it is calcareous free-stone, frequently intermixed with shells; while on the north, as far as the streets that rise in the skirts of Mont Martre, it consists of alluvial sand to a considerable depth, followed by the gypsum of Mont Martre. "It is," says Mr. Pinkerton, "a well-known singularity in geology, that the banks of the rivers are often composed of different substances, owing, probably, to some natural incoherence, which afforded an easier course for the water to penetrate." The fossil bones found at Mont Martre are, by Cuvier, supposed to belong universally to different species and sizes of an animal now extinct, but approaching nearest to the tapir of America; and the sea-shells, some of them unknown at present in the Atlantic, discovered at Grignon, to the west of Versailles, in a bed of

sand under a layer of solid lime stone, indicate changes in the globe which it is impossible to account for.

The climate of Paris differs from that of London in the superior heat of the summer, which matures the grape in the open vineyard, a circumstance totally unknown in England. The general warmth of the year is much the same at Paris as at London, the superior cold of the winter balancing the heat of the summer. In the winter of 1802-3, the river Seine was frozen over during a fortnight, and the cold was intense. Pinkerton says, that he always thought that the environs of Mont Martre were colder than any other part of Paris, not only from the greater height of the situation, but from the proverbially cold nature of the alabaster. The clearness of the air is a circumstance very striking to a person who, after a long residence at Paris, returns to London. While the latter is enveloped in clouds of smoke, none is perceivable at the former, except at the moment of lighting the fires in the morning; and a spectator from a neighbouring eminence is dazzled with the white splendour of the houses and towers. The Parisians have an universal prejudice against the use of coal, which they conceive to be very unhealthy, and hurtful to the lungs. The smoke of wood, though more prejudicial to the furniture, the colour of which it soon changes, is yet scarcely visible in the open air, while that of coal blackens the surrounding objects, as appears but too certainly from the dark hue of our London churches and other stone buildings. The Parisian edifices, on the contrary, are of such dazzling whiteness, that in the summer the eye is fatigued, and seeks for the repose of some milder colour.

It has often been made a question, whether Paris or London is to be reckoned the finer city; according, however, to a well-informed traveller, London is said to be the more imposing to the eye as a whole, but Paris will better bear dissection. The wide streets and broad foot-pavements in London give a general impression of grandeur; but the public buildings that can be noticed as really fine ones are few. At Paris, while the city does not give an impression of grandeur as a whole, the objects which, taking in detail, claim particular attention, are grand and numerous.

Mr. Sals is very eloquent on this subject: "There is no modern city," says he, "that can boast of such a succession of magnificent squares, streets, and buildings, as Paris. Beginning with the Palais Royal, you cross the Rue St. Honoré to the Palais des Arts et des Sciences; whence, you pass through the Place de Carouffel, to the triumphal Arch of Bonaparte, on which were placed the bronze horses now at Venice. Going through the centre of the Tuileries, you enter upon the gardens, adorned with statues, fountains, walks, &c. On the right of the gardens is the Place Vendôme, with the Column Napoleon; on the left the Seine, whose stream flows slowly on, lingering as if it regretted leaving so delightful a place. Still advancing, you arrive at the Place de la Concorde; a magnificent range of buildings is seen on the right; the Champs Elysées in front, and on the left the fine Pont de la Concorde. Crossing the bridge, you find yourself opposite the beautiful palace of the Corps Legislatif, behind which is l'Hopital des Invalides, and near it l'Ecole Militaire. The next grand object which presents itself is the Champ de Mars, at the further end of which is the classical Pont de Jena. On the opposite side was to have been the palace of the King of Rome, for which an immense space had been cleared; nothing, however, except the foundation, is visible. All these places form an unbroken scene of magnificence and grandeur. Distributed about the Fauxbourgs St. Germain and St. Marceau, are other objects equally interesting. Such are the Musée des Petits Augustins, Luxembourg Palace and Gardens, St. Sulpice, the noble and elegant pile of the Pantheon, the Catacombs, the Observatory, the Gobelins tapestry, and the Jardin des Plantes. Crossing the iron bridge of Austerlitz, you arrive at the foundations of the Hall of Abundance,

dance, begun by the order of Napoleon, but now left to decay, like many other fine works which were in progress when the Bourbons returned. Proceeding by the fossée of the Bastille to the fountain of the Elephant, likewise unfinished, you arrive at the beautiful fountain of the Lions, and the best part of the Boulevards.

"Such a succession of pleasing objects, united to the civility with which you are received; the prevailing urbanity and politeness of the inhabitants; the music and singing which charm your ear, the drollery of the *grimaieurs* and mountebanks, which irresistibly excite you to laughter; the bustle, the activity, and the vivacity seen around, all conspire to create that feeling of delight and ecstasy which is seldom felt in our own country. The comforts which attend the walks of the sensualist are great. If he be warm, he can retire to a delightful shade; and command ices, lemonade, and punch of the most delicious kinds. If he be hungry, the most luxuriously cooked meats await his order: amusements of all kinds surround him; and almost every wish his heart can form, is within his reach."

Mr. Sals is in such good humour with the French in general, that he draws a parallel between them and the Italians, which we are tempted to transcribe.

"Italy and France still resemble each other in some particulars, which may have arisen from their long intercourse, and having been under the same government; but in most things, at the present moment, they are widely different. The French are proverbially honest; the Italians directly the reverse. There is a neatness and cleanliness in the French; and, although they cannot be compared to the English in these particulars, they are greatly superior to the Italians, who are in general very filthy. The country of France is richly cultivated, whilst a great part of Italy is a desert. Where it is to be got, the dressing of the food is very similar; but, in travelling through some parts of Italy, the visitor must not be very fastidious, but content himself with four bread, bad cheese, and indifferent wine. The French are lively and industrious: the Italians add cunning to their liveliness, and are extremely indolent. If extreme poverty is seen in France, the most abject misery and wretchedness are met with continually in the other country. The system of police is so good in France, that you travel in perfect safety in every part; whilst, in Italy, your property is in continual jeopardy, nor is your life ever secure. In fact, to compare the government of Italy with that of France, we may almost give the latter the appellation of paternal. In the conveniences of travelling also, in these two countries, there is a great difference. A person may be conveyed in safety and comfort, by the diligences, to all parts of France; or, if he has a carriage, can travel equally so by post. In Italy, there being no regular conveyances from one part to another, the difficulty of getting to any particular place is great, unless you have a carriage of your own: and you are then subject to every species of villainy and extortion, without the possibility of getting any redress; besides the continual hazard of being attacked by the distressed and infuriated rabble, who infest every part of Italy. Indeed, without an escort of cavalry, travelling is avowedly dangerous; and, on the other side of the Apennines, a guard of this kind is absolutely necessary. By the intelligence lately received from Italy it appears, that the audacity of the bands of robbers has arrived to such a pitch, that they not merely rob and murder travellers, plunder the villas in the vicinity, and brave the gates of Rome, carrying off prisoners and then demanding their ransom, but even enter that city in large bodies, and threaten its inhabitants. Turkey, a government we despise for its imbecility, is not so bad as this. From good authority, I know that we can travel there in comparative safety."

But, to keep more closely to the subject of the present article, we must speak particularly of the

Character and Manners of the Parisians.—The inhabitants of every great city may be divided into three classes,
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of whom the character and manners are altogether dissimilar; the noblesse, the middle ranks, and the common people.

1. The manners and habits of the noblesse have materially improved. The strange vicissitudes of the last thirty years have sobered down much of their peculiar and disgusting levity. The character and habits of the present reigning family, and the degree of uncertainty which yet attends the political situation of France, have given a serious, but not an unpleasing, cast to the natural cheerfulness and buoyancy of spirits. The necessity of the times has likewise taught them affability, condescension, and an apparent interest in the welfare of the middle and lower classes. The morals of the noblesse are likewise evidently improved; and the shameless exhibition of profligacy which disgraced the reigns of Louis XIV. XV. and XVI. are now seldom witnessed.

2. The peculiarities of the middle ranks of society, who will principally offer themselves to the attention of the traveller, with whom he will have most to do, and to whom he must look for the true character of a people, are easily described. The most prominent feature in the character of the Parisian is a peculiar *politesse*, which rarely fails to please, though it is not always exempt from hypocrisy.

3. Brutal battles, quarrels, and noisy drunken fellows, are very seldom to be met with at Paris; nor is the traveller so often afflicted and disgusted with the sight of female profligacy as in England. The lower classes of the people behave to each other with a surprising degree of civility. The advantages of what is called a common education are universally diffused; and a taste for reading, for accomplishments, for all the embellishments of existence, is a general characteristic. The peasants have it, and in almost as high a degree as the most cultivated persons. The poorer orders are polished far beyond the corresponding classes of the English, and the effect of their behaviour is extremely pleasing. One is chiefly surprised by the propriety of their mode of speaking: the ceremonies of courtesy, and the idiomatic phrases of politeness, proceeding from milk-women and carmen to each other, rather amaze an Englishman. The lowest persons touch their hats to each other in the streets.

Civility and good manners indeed may be traced, though in different proportions, through every rank; yet it has been remarked, that much of that anxious politeness which existed before the revolution has been exchanged for a more sedate manner, and a feeling of independence. The company of the foster sex is too often neglected for the gaming-table and the theatre; and the chevalier, who never quitted the company of his lady under the *ancien regime*, is a character unknown at Paris. The character of the men is, without question, considerably impaired: their levity and frivolity, and their good temper also, we say with regret, have, in many instances, given way to a less amiable demeanour.

A military impulse (observes a good writer) had been given to the nation in the very earliest stages of the revolution; and the republican motto, "Peace to the cottage, and war to the castle," had opened every country in Europe to the arms and the rapacity of the French soldier. But the military system received its full perfection from the genius of Bonaparte; he interwove it into all the institutions of the country, into all the offices of life, into all the operations of government, and even into all the intercourse of society. Prints and pictures, songs and stories, shows, exhibitions, and amusements, all were employed as vehicles of this spirit; and it would have been wonderful indeed, if, accompanied by so many victories abroad, and by so many pageants at home, it had not become the prevailing taste of the nation, and if France itself had not been converted into a camp, and every child a soldier. We are sorry to see a fondness for military parade and military habits so prevalent in our own country: no dress but a military uniform is acceptable at the British court.

The wonderful successes of our armies will no doubt reasonably account for this; but we hope that mutual confidence and a long peace will by degrees soften down these habits in both countries, and particularly in our own. See Lord Grey's speech on the opening of parliament, Jan. 23, 1821.

It has been said, and perhaps with some justice, that *hospitality*, formerly the natural virtue of Frenchmen, is no longer to be found in France: and this is particularly the case in the capital. The fondness for public amusements, and spectacles of every sort, leave the Parisian but little time to cultivate the pleasures of domestic society, or to exercise the virtues of English hospitality. The people of Paris are seldom *at home*, even in the technical language of modern times; and, as a great majority of them breakfast, dine, and sup, at coffee-houses and restaurants, the stranger cannot expect that much attention will be paid to letters of introduction, so far at least as hospitality and domestic society are concerned.

The Parisian, though he has little idea of what we term the comforts of the domestic fire-side, does not, at the close of the business of the day, quit his family and resort to the coffee-house, or the club; but with his wife and children, dressed in all their little finery, he parades the Boulevards; he visits some of the numerous gardens with which the metropolis abounds; he treats himself and them with the cheap pleasures which these places afford; and usually closes the evening with either joining in the dance, or gazing with delight on the graceful movements of others. The cheapness of provisions in France, and an economy in dress and living scarcely known in England, enable him to make almost every evening a season of festivity. It may be truly said drunkenness is nearly unknown. A tumbler of lemonade or orgeat is frequently the whole of the Frenchman's debauch.

A passion for *gaming* lamentably pervades the middle classes, and those especially of an intermediate rank, between the bourgeois and the noble. The spacious apartments of the Palais Royal are daily crowded. Men and women promiscuously assemble, and enter into the dangerous business of the gaming-table with all the energy of their national character. Different rooms are suited to the finances of every speculator. The mechanic who can only stake a single franc, the hardly-earned produce of a laborious day, is not excluded. The Palais Royal may be termed the spot where the demon of gambling holds his principal court; but in every district of Paris, and almost in every street, the unhallowed but legalized assemblies of his votaries abound. It is said that the government of Bonaparte derived the enormous sum of 600,000*l.* per annum from the licenses of the gaming-houses; and the present government does not disdain to avail itself of this disgraceful and pernicious revenue.

A fondness for public amusements is however a principal feature in the French character. It is not less strange than true, that even the anarchy and bloodshed, which disgraced the early stages of the revolution, were not sufficiently revolting to restrain this love of diversion. At the close of every day that had witnessed the guillotine performing its murderous office, no less than thirty theatres, independent of other places of amusement, were as uniformly crowded as if the most perfect tranquillity had reigned in the capital. The principal day of amusement is Sunday. After he has heard mass, the best catholic gives himself up to enjoyment. Music and dancing are heard in every street, and the theatres are literally crowded. The commercial man too frequently disregards the sanctity of the day; his shop and his counting-house are open as usual, and he is as eager to buy, and sell, and get gain, as on any common day. Soon after the present king was first seated on the throne of his ancestors, he published a decree, in which he ordered the shops to be shut on Sunday. Reasonable and proper as was this injunction, it gave great offence, and materially contributed to alienate the affections of the Parisians. The decree

has been revived, but it is far from being universally obeyed.

The French have been accused of dishonesty in their commercial transactions, and especially with foreigners. If this be meant to apply to the principal merchants and bankers of Paris, the charge is utterly false. In the strictest integrity, in all their dealings, and the nicest sense of honour, these gentlemen are not inferior even to the merchants of Britain. If it be applied to the *boutiques* of the Palais Royal, the charge is partly true, and partly unfounded. The tradesman of the Palais Royal will unblushingly demand considerably more than the value of his commodities. He will omit no finess, he will spare no misrepresentation, to obtain his price. Yet with this is mingled an honest principle, which the tradesmen of all other countries will do well to imitate. Should the traveller inadvertently leave his gloves, or even his purse, on the counter, a messenger is immediately dispatched after him, or the articles are preserved with religious care until his return. A recent traveller, who has drawn the most impartial portrait of French manners extant, records the following anecdote: "One of our party entered a small shop in the Palais Royal, to buy a travelling cap. The woman who attended him, asked sixteen francs for one which was certainly not worth more than six, and which she at last gave him for seven. Being in a hurry at the time, he inadvertently left on the counter a purse containing twenty gold Napoleons. He did not miss it for more than an hour; on returning to the shop, he found the old lady gone, and concluded at first that she had absented herself to avoid interrogation; but, to his surprise, he was accosted immediately on entering, by a pretty young girl, who had come in her place, with the sweetest smile imaginable, "*Monsieur a oublié sa bourse; que nous sommes heureuses de la lui rendre; Sir, you forgot your purse; we have a great pleasure in restoring it.*"

In our sketch of Parisian manners, the fair-sex must not be omitted. In France more than in any other country, the empire of woman is apparently established. The records of the nation demonstrate that her fascinations, her virtues, or her foibles, have influenced and governed almost every political event. In private life she bears a prominent part in every transaction, and universal homage is paid to her charms. At every place of public entertainment, she presides. She sits enthroned in the café, and more particularly occupies the attention of the visitors than the most interesting or important news of the day. Even in the baths, it is a woman who must administer refreshment to the swimmers, although their scanty covering is scarcely an apology for decency. In the shop of the tradesman, the female presents herself to every customer, and superintends the whole concern, while the husband lounges over the counter, or amuses himself at the café. In the name of the wife every guest is invited, and to her discretion every domestic arrangement is implicitly submitted.

When, however, we penetrate into the recesses of private life, we perceive that the female rules every-where but in her native empire, the heart of her husband. She governs every thing with absolute sway except his affections. In these it is said she often yields to a happier rival; and, to retain the semblance of dominion, which she can no longer exercise over her liege lord, she listens to the protestations and vows of another suitor. It is notorious that conjugal infidelity is too prevalent in every class of society. The husband does not attempt to conceal his attentions to another female; and the wife, even in the presence of her husband, listens with complacency to the adulations of her *cicibeo*. If these arrangements are not invariably criminal, they cannot fail of being dangerous; and the influence of this unnatural state of society is too apparent. It gives to the character of the most virtuous and accomplished woman a confidence not suited to the English taste, and not favourable to domestic felicity; and, to females of inferior minds, and laxer principles,

ples, it imparts a total want of delicacy, at which the stranger will often wonder.

The young unmarried ladies in France are completely exempted from the charges just mentioned. The strictness of the general system of education there, prevents the possibility of such indecorum. They marry, therefore, not to give up their liberty as in England, but to gain liberty. Hence they marry young; and nothing is more common than a match between a girl of 16 and a man of 36.

Mr. Holcroft says, "I have heard it maintained by Frenchmen, and I greatly fear with truth, that the number of public women, according to the population of the two cities, much exceeds in London that of Paris; and the reason they say is, that the practices of gallantry already described are so much better *understood* in the latter city. May the knowledge never spread! Of the two evils, great as is the least, it is better to suffer public prostitutes than that our wives, our sisters, and our daughters, should be their avowed substitutes."

After all, it has been asserted by more than one good writer, that the French ladies are more formed for friendship than for love: "A French woman at thirty (says the author of 'Paris as it was and as it is') makes an excellent friend; and, attaching herself to the man she esteems, thinks no sacrifice too great for the advancement of his interest, or the security of his happiness or his reputation."

In one article of personal decoration an evident reform has taken place among the females of Paris. Rouge is no longer applied with an unparfing hand. The French women are generally brunettes; and many of them possess that peculiar and sparkling complexion, which is often more captivating even than the delicate and transparent skin of the northern fair. These nymphs have at length apparently learned to rely on the superior power of their native unassisted charms; and others, to whom Nature has not been equally kind, now apply the roseate hue of art much more lightly than some of the fashionable belles of other countries. That this is not a mere freak of fashion, but a permanent improvement in taste and manners, may be concluded from the fact, that the first dawns of it were noticed by Mr. Holcroft in 1802.

Having thus given a rapid sketch of the history and present state of this magnificent city, and the manners of its inhabitants, we are tempted to enter into a more particular description of its palaces, public buildings, literary and charitable institutions, &c. The numerous publications which have issued from the press, for the instruction of travellers, since the memorable year 1814, will furnish us with ample materials; our only trouble will be selection and arrangement; but it is right that we should acknowledge before-hand our obligations to two works in particular; Tronchet's Guide to Paris, and Planta's New Picture of Paris. Other sources of information will be noticed at the end of the article.

PALACES AND OTHER PUBLIC BUILDINGS.

THE TUILERIES.—The Palais des Tuileries was so called, because a tile-kiln formerly stood on the site where it is erected. At that time, this part of Paris was not comprised within its walls; and nothing was to be seen in the vicinity of the tile-kiln, but a few coppices and scattered habitations. In 1519, we find a little chateau standing here, which belonged to the duchess of Angouleme, mother of Francis I. This was removed by Catharine de Medecis, and the construction of the Tuileries was begun by her, in May 1564, after Charles IX. had destroyed her former residence the Palais des Tournelles. The present superb palace consisted, at first, of only the large square pavilion in the centre of the two piles of building, which have each a terrace towards the garden, and of two pavilions by which they are terminated. Henry IV. enlarged the original building, and in 1600 began the grand gallery which joins it to the Louvre. Louis XIII. made some alterations in the palace; and,

in 1644, Louis XIV. directed it to be finished, by making the additions and embellishments which have brought it to its present state. The front now consists of five pavilions, comprising that in the centre; with four ranges of buildings connecting them together, and forming one grand façade. Every order of architecture is rendered subservient to the embellishment of this magnificent edifice: but the Ionic pillars on the right of the terrace particularly captivate the eye by their beautiful proportion and exquisite workmanship.

Originally, the large pavilion in the centre consisted only of the Ionic and Corinthian orders. To these Louis XIV. added the Composite, and crowned the building with an additional story. This pavilion, whether viewed from the court or the garden, presents a beautiful specimen of architecture. The whole façade is adorned with Ionic pillars, placed on pedestals. Above these, on the three centre pavilions, and the piles of building which connect them, appears the Corinthian order, over which is the attic story of the palace, surmounted by a balustrade. The balustrade of the pavilions at the extremities is surmounted with elegant stone vases. The two other ranges of building, with the pavilions which terminate them, are adorned with fluted columns of the Composite order. The pillars are all formed of superb brown-and-red marble. The portico of the centre pavilion towards the court is peculiarly beautiful, the ground-floor is decorated with columns of the Ionic order, and on either side of the gate are exquisite antique statues of Apollo, Moneta, and a Faun. Above are superb columns of brown-and-red marble, of the Composite order, supporting a triangular pediment. In the centre is the clock of the palace, and below are two recumbent statues of Justice and Prudence. The portico towards the garden is similarly ornamented, but the columns are not constructed of marble. The niches on each side of the vestibule are decorated with antique marble statues of Mars and Minerva; and on either side of the gate is a lion of white marble with its foot on a globe. On the galleries are eighteen marble statues of Roman senators clad in the toga, and in other parts of the façade are twenty-two busts of Roman emperors and generals.

Though each part taken separately is beautiful and perfect, it is much to be regretted that so little unity of design prevails. We plainly reckon five different orders of architecture, and five distinct species of ornament succeeding each other without connection and without harmony. The transition from the second pavilion to the range of buildings beyond it, is likewise extremely harsh and abrupt. The extraordinary height of the roof in the front towards the garden has likewise been censured by some architects. It gives an air of heaviness to the whole façade, which the relief of the beautiful colonnade, enriched with numerous vases and statues, cannot altogether remove.

The interior of the palace possesses every thing that riches, luxury, or taste, can supply. Its magnificent vestibule is ornamented with three statues; opposite the grand staircase is a Minerva; to the right an Affranchie, or freed-man; and to the left a Rustic. Traversing several apartments of state, we arrive at the Salle du Trône, the beauty of which is unequalled: behind this are his majesty's private apartments; and on the middle story those of the duchess d'Angouleme. The count d'Artois resides in the pavilion de Marfan; and the duke de Berry occupied the first apartments in the royal gallery, which looks towards the Rue St. Honoré. The council of state is held in the Gallery of the Museum; and the chapel is on the right of the edifice proceeding up the *escalier d'honneur*, or grand royal staircase.

An iron palisade, erected on a wall two feet in height, encloses the coach-yard of the palace, and divides it from a fine street which leads to the vast Place du Caroussel: this was formerly obstructed by mean buildings, which concealing some parts of the noble façade, it was necessary

to take them down, to give full effect to the view of a palace, the embellishments and beauty of which majestically announced the dwelling of the French kings. This improvement was made by Bonaparte. There are fine galleries on each side, which communicate with the Louvre. In the vast area here, fifteen thousand cavalry and infantry have performed their evolutions when paraded or reviewed. The triumphal arch, which forms the principal entrance to the court of the Tuileries, was built by Napoleon on the plan of that of Septimius Severus at Rome; nor is it inferior to its celebrated original. It is sixty feet wide, and forty-five feet high. The centre arch is fourteen feet wide, the others eight and a half. Each front is decorated with four columns of the Corinthian order, supporting marble figures, representing different soldiers: towards the palace are a Grenadier, a Canonier, a Carabinier, and a Pioneer; on the other side are a Cuirassier, a Dragoon, a Carabinier, and a Chasseur. Four bas-reliefs adorn the attic. On the outside are, on the right, the arms of France, supported by Peace and Plenty; and on the left, the arms of Italy, sustained by Wisdom and Strength. On the side towards the palace are the same arms, accompanied by divers attributes of the Arts and Sciences. Four other bas-reliefs are over the smaller arches, representing, on the side towards the palace, the entry of Munich, and the interview of the two emperors; and on the other side, the battle of Austerlitz and the capitulation of Ulm. Over the centre arch, in a triumphal car, was the statue of Napoleon. The bronze horses were the celebrated productions of Lysippus, which formerly ornamented the square of St. Marc at Venice, and which had before adorned the arch of Nero at Rome. This group, which had a picturesque effect, and well terminated a building remarkable for the elegance of its proportions, the happy arrangement of its different parts, and the inimitable execution of the whole, has disappeared. The horses have been restored to their rightful owners; and the statue of Napoleon has been hurled to the ground.

The Garden.—This, in the time of Henry IV. was separated from the palace by a street, and was nothing more than an orchard planted with fruit-trees, particularly the mulberry-tree. Rich in the beauties of nature, it wanted nothing but the assistance of art. Louis XIV. accustomed to impress the character of greatness upon every thing about him, ordered le Nôtre to lay out the garden upon a parallelogram of 67 acres, and on a scale worthy the residence of a sovereign. The unity of the plan and the variety of its details are truly admirable; the ornaments are judiciously distributed, and the statues tastefully displayed. The jets d'eau and their basins, encircled with groups of statues, and orange-trees, are delightful. There is a large terrace, ascended by three steps, in the front of the palace; and terraces planted with low trees extend on both sides of the garden, and terminate in the form of a horseshoe at Pont Tournant, from whence there is a charming prospect of the navigation of the Seine, the road from Versailles, and the perspective of the fine hotels about the Quai d'Orsay and the Champs Elysées. The Feuillans, no longer disfigured by a dreary wall, has a fine grating surmounted by gilded points: here is a fine view of the superb street de Rivoli and the uniform porticos of its houses. At a distance is seen the Place Vendôme, its triumphal column, and the Boulevards; each of these terminates towards the Place Louis XV. in delightful groves, and a double row of seats for the accommodation of persons who enjoy the fêtes frequently given here. In traversing the grove, it appears to be an avenue upon the same line with the Elysian fields and extending as far as the barrière de Neuilly, where the view is closed by the rising ground and the new triumphal arch.

The triumphal column, in the Place Vendôme, which we have just mentioned as being visible from this place, was erected by Napoleon, in the room of a bronze eque-

trian statue of Louis XIV. which stood in the middle of that fine square. This statue, which was melted, together with many other monuments of the art of casting in metal, by the irresistible heat of the revolution, was executed by John Balthazar Keller in December 1692. The height of it was 20 French feet; the weight 70,000lbs. of metal; and it is reported that twenty men might easily have sat at table in the belly of the horse. The pedestal was of white marble, 30 French feet in height, and 24 in length. It was the finest statue that had ever been cast in honour of the grand monarque. The superb monument, to the honour of the French armies, which now stands on the spot, is formed on the model of Trajan's pillar at Rome. Its elevation is 123 feet, including the pedestal. The height of the pedestal is about 22 feet, and from 17 to 20 in breadth, corresponding with the cornice; the base of the shaft is about twelve feet in diameter. It is entirely covered with brass, furnished by the artillery taken from the Austrians by Bonaparte. The pedestal is filled with bas-reliefs, composed of trophies of arms of every kind, and at each angle is an eagle grasping a crown of laurel. At the foot of the column commences another set of bas-reliefs, which trace in chronological order the principal events of the campaign of 1805, from the breaking-up of the camp of Boulogne to the conclusion of peace after the battle of Austerlitz. These bas-reliefs, which ascend in a spiral direction, are composed of 276 plates, about three feet wide and four in height, which are joined together in an irregular manner, according to the disposition of the figures. A spiral line separates each row, and bears the name of the action which each division represents. On the summit of the column, as on that of Trajan, is a gallery, the ascent of which is by a spiral staircase in the centre of the pillar. Strangers are not now permitted to ascend to the gallery, in consequence of an accident which occurred there some time ago. It commands a fine view of Paris. Above the gallery is a small dome, on which were placed the statue of Napoleon. This, however, has disappeared, and the white flag floats in its stead.

This column was constructed under the direction of M. Denon; Lepere was the architect. It was begun in August 1807, and completed in August 1810.

The parterre in the front of the palace extends 120 toises, and is ornamented with three basins and fountains; all the walks appear not only useful but necessary, and all lead to the groves or to water. Four lawns cut into triangular shapes appear before each of the wings of this palace, planted with trees and flowers, and enclosed within iron railing. The circuit of the large basin and the front of the grove are ornamented with marble groups, vases, statues, and orange-trees. Beyond the wood in a circular space is the great octangular basin. The magnificent figures of two winged horses embellish the entrance through the handsome iron gate of this garden; and numerous chefs d'œuvres of sculpture, bronzes, and casts, are every where met with throughout the walks.

The gardens of the Tuileries are always open to the public, and are the principal promenade of this part of the town. Here the beaux and belles assemble, in a summer's evening, to walk or to sit down, and form *conversazioni*. It is a privilege granted to one particular person to have chairs to let for this purpose, for which the hirer pays two sous, or a penny English, for the evening. Hither also politicians resort in the morning to study the newspapers, which are furnished by the proprietor of the chairs, the hire of them being charged the same as the hire of the chairs, two sous each. A grove of horse-chestnut trees furnishes a fine shade, under which these studies can be pursued without any inconvenience from the scorching rays of the noonday sun.

To those who are fond of military music, a morning ramble in these gardens is truly delightful, as the band belonging to the corps that mounts guard at the Tuileries always plays from eleven till twelve o'clock. In the summer,



*Triumphal Arch in the Place du Carrousel,
as it appeared on the 25th of September, 1815.*



T. Dale sc.

Eastern Front of the Louvre.

summer, one walk which runs the whole length of the garden is decorated with a range of large orange-trees, in cases on each side of it. Numbers of orange-trees and oleanders (rose-bay) are besides dispersed over different parts of the garden. When the palace and walks are illuminated, as is the case on fête-nights, they present a superb spectacle.

The LOUVRE—adjoins the Tuileries on the east by a gallery 1365 feet long. Much uncertainty exists respecting the derivation of the name of this magnificent palace. Some have derived it from *louve*, a she-wolf, because it was formerly surrounded by a thick forest, much infested by wolves. Others have derived it from the Saxon word *lowen*, a castle; and others with more probability, from the ancient Gaulic word *ouvre*, now written *œuvre*, signifying the beauty of its architecture, and equivalent to the modern expression *chef-d'œuvre*. It is the most ancient of the royal palaces. It existed in the time of Dagobert, when it was without the walls, and used as a country-house by the kings of France. Having been destroyed by the Normans, it was rebuilt by Louis the Young, and afterwards repaired by Philip Augustus, who surrounded it with towers and a moat.

It formerly contained an immense insulated tower in the centre of one of its courts, much celebrated in French history. In this tower all the feudatories of the crown were compelled to assemble at stated times, to pay homage to their liege lord, and to renew their oaths of fidelity; and the dungeons of this tower were their prison in case of disobedience or rebellion. This strange building gave to the whole of the palace so sombre an appearance, and so many sad and frightful histories were attached to it, and related of it, that many of the kings refused to make the Louvre their residence. Charles V. endeavoured to enliven it, and made it commodious for those times. Several foreign monarchs successively lodged in it, such as Manuel emperor of Constantinople, Sigismund emperor of Germany, and the emperor Charles V. The large tower, which, at different periods, had served as a palace to the kings of France, as a prison to the great lords, and as a treasury to the state, was at length taken down in 1528.

The part of the palace which at present is denominated the Old Louvre, was begun under Francis I. but was first inhabited by Charles IX. under whom it became the bloody theatre of treacheries and massacres, on the infamous St. Bartholomew's day, which time will never, and ought never, to efface from the memory of mankind, and which, till the merciless reign of Robespierre, was unexampled in the history of that country. In after-times this palace became the quiet and happy cradle of the arts and sciences, the school for talents, the arena for genius, and the asylum of artists and literati. The centre pavilion, over the principal gate of the Old Louvre, was erected under the reign of Louis XIII. from the designs of Mercier, as well as the angle of the left part of the building, parallel to that built by Henry II. The eight gigantic Cariatides, which are to be seen there, were sculptured by Sarrafin. The sides present three projecting buildings, adorned with beautiful sculptures: on the left are Mercury, Plenty, and two Genii; on the right, History writing, accompanied by the busts of Herodotus and Thucydides, and the statues of Peace, Victory, and Fame; between the pilasters are many Egyptian divinities, the statues of Numa and of Moses, and the representation of the principal events of the reign of Napoleon.

The part of the Louvre which, with two sides of the old building, forms the perfect square, about four hundred feet in extent, called the New Louvre, consists of two double façades, which are still unfinished. The front which it presents to the river is plain and noble. The eastern front is the famous colonnade, the noblest monument of the era of Louis XIV. An Italian artist named Bernini, and supposed to be the most skilful architect of

the age, was sent for at a considerable expense to erect it. He soon pretended that the climate of France disagreed with him: it was whispered that he found himself unequal to the task; and a physician of the name of Perrault undertook and completed it. It is composed of two peristyles, and three projecting buildings on the ground-floor, which form one continued basement. The lateral projecting buildings are adorned by six pilasters, and two columns of the Corinthian order, while that in the centre is composed of eight columns, and crowned with a pediment, on which is a bas-relief representing Victory in a car distributing crowns. Above is a triangular pediment, beautifully executed. The bust of Louis XIV. occupies the highest part: Minerva is placing it on a pedestal, and History is writing underneath LUDOVICO MAGNO. Well-executed figures of the Muses fill the remainder of the composition; and on one of the gates is the following inscription, *Dum totum impleat orbem*, "May it last till the owner hath extended his sway over the whole world."

The general appearance of the whole is indisputably grand and majestic. It is, however, open to much criticism. The substruction on which it stands is too high in proportion to the elevation of the colonnade. The pillars are coupled, which destroys the proportion between them and the intercolumniations. The shafts are too thin for their length; and the heavy masses at the ends and in the centre, throw an air of gloominess over the whole fabric. The architecture of the celebrated Gallery which connects the Louvre with the Tuileries is the same as that of the pavilions of the Tuileries, without the attic, but disfigured by numberless pediments, alternately triangular and curvilinear. Towards the middle the style changes; and, instead of the single Corinthian, three different and whimsical Composite forms are introduced, to the great detriment of the architectural appearance. Bonaparte, wishing to complete the square, began the communication on the opposite side, and had erected more than a third of it at the period of his dethronement. The work is still carried on. Up to the year 1813, 22,400,000 francs had been expended in improvements which it will require more than the same sum to complete.

The *Royal Museum*.—The whole of the Louvre forms a grand museum of art, and is the repository of numerous pictures and sculptures formerly scattered in various departments of France, and of some lately brought from different palaces, chateaus, &c. The performances of living artists and their pupils are exhibited every two years in a large gallery of the Louvre; and several learned men and eminent artists have apartments assigned to them in this palace.

This museum was lately the boast of Paris, and the wonder of the world. It contained almost every celebrated work of art that the continent of Europe possessed; and might be considered as a magnificent temple, to which every votary of taste would resort, and offer his adorations. But the establishment has been thorn of its principal glory. The imperishable remains of the genius of former ages, which it contained, have been restored to their former owners; the halls of sculpture, which were thronged to confusion with the *chef-d'œuvres* of Rome and of Greece, are nearly deserted; and the twelve hundred inimitable paintings of the great gallery were reduced to little more than two hundred and fifty. A list of all the curiosities, as they stood before the year 1814, may be seen in Tronchet's Guide to Paris, 3d edit. It cannot be perused by any Frenchman without emotion.

Let it not, however, be supposed, that the Louvre is deplored of every object of attraction. Many of the treasures of foreign states, indeed, of which they once boasted, are seen no more; but the paintings which adorned the numerous churches that were profaned by revolutionary barbarism, have found an asylum here; and every department of France has lately contributed something to render the gallery of the Louvre an interesting

and valuable museum. In its present state, it consists of 1104 pictures; and the gallery of sculpture consists of 355 fine specimens of the art, with various degrees of merit. The works of the noblest masters of the present French school all remain; and, in addition to them, the amateur may yet study some of the most exquisite performances of Albano, Berghem, Caracci, Champagne, Correggio, Cortona, Cuyt, Del Sarto, Dominichino, Guercino, Guido, Murillo, Raphael, Rembrandt, Romano, Rubens, Ruysdael, Salvator, Snijders, Teniers, Tintoret, Titian, Vandyck, Paul Veronese, and Leonardo da Vinci.

The first saloon presents a curious collection of the very earliest works of the French and Italian artists. The conception is sometimes strong, but the execution is strangely rude; yet these pieces are valuable, as showing the commencement of the art.

The next saloon contains the deservedly-celebrated battle-pieces of le Brun. They are some of the noblest performances of that excellent painter.

The visitor now enters the great gallery. It is impossible to convey an adequate idea of the effect formerly produced on the mind, on entering this magnificent apartment, 1365 feet in length, and crowded with paintings of the most eminent masters of every school. The apparently interminable length of the gallery continues to excite surprise, and the skilful arrangements of the paintings that remained, and of many others that have been added to them, certainly do not convey that feeling of nakedness and desolation which the stranger might expect, and which some travellers have described. Although the gallery has irreparably suffered in value, it has not lost so much as might be imagined in appearance. It must, however, be confessed, that the place is not altogether suitable to the purpose to which it is devoted. The light being admitted on both sides of the gallery, renders it difficult to find the proper situation to examine some of the performances; and, concealing all the nicer touches, displays nothing but the varnish of others: and, as this gallery is 1365 feet long, and only 30 broad, it exhibits a disproportion that is displeasing and tiresome to the eye.

The works of Nicolas Poussin were not eclipsed amidst the constellation of excellence by which they were surrounded; they are now brought into more prominent notice, and will not fail to please. The Israelites gathering Manna in the Desert is deserving of considerable praise; and a Sketch of the Rape of the Sabines will not be viewed without interest. The Judgment of Solomon will be deemed a yet more excellent performance; the fine expression of the face of the monarch is very striking. Superior to this is the Institution of the Eucharist; and the Deluge breathes the truest sublimity.

The dark broad character of most of the paintings of Valentine will please the instructed alone; but, in his Concert, the varied and striking expression of the performers, and the strong character of the soldier in the foreground, will make a deep impression on every spectator.

Philip de Champagne was one of the greatest ornaments of the Flemish school. Among the paintings which adorn this gallery, three will not pass unnoticed. The Institution of the Eucharist is one of his best works. The Apostles are said to be portraits of the anchorites of the Port Royal. The immense picture of St. Ambrose is equally deemed, by the connoisseur and the uninitiated, one of the noblest ornaments of the gallery. Its companion, representing the same Saint removing the bodies of the martyrs Gervais and Protasius, is scarcely inferior. The figure and countenance of the lunatic possess all the wildness of his supposed character.

Some paintings of Rubens display all that artist's excellencies, with a less than usual portion of his characteristic defects. His Diogenes looking for an honest man; and his Thomyris with the head of Cyrus, are his best.

Berghem has very few pieces remaining, but the gallery yet boasts of his chef-d'œuvre. It is a landscape diversified with masses of trees and rocks. The road presents

several travellers and cattle. A woman on horseback, to whom another female is presenting an infant, is admirably executed.

Among the excellent portraits of Vandyke, or Vandyck, that of Charles I. will be particularly distinguished. The most perfect work of Snijders is to be seen here. It represents different kinds of fruit and vegetables, with some squirrels, an ape, and a parrot.

The Italian school, lately so numerous, contains only a few specimens; but they are inestimable. The St. Jerome and St. Agnes, of Dominichino, are no more seen; but the Æneas, accompanied by his son Ascanius, bearing on his shoulders his father Anchises, will give a sufficient idea of the talents of this great master. The Adoration of the shepherds by Espagnoletto, is in his best style. Guido, whose works are yet as glowing and fresh as when they received the last touches of the artist, continues to enrich the museum with several admirable works. The Rape of Helen displays all his grace and expression: but his Hercules contending with Achelous, and killing the Centaur Nessus, surpass all praise. The Loves of Venus and Adonis, by Albano, are exquisitely beautiful, particularly the first piece, which represents Venus contemplating herself in a mirror. Annibal Carracci furnishes a painting of hunting and shooting, not inferior to his best works. Paul Veronese contributes his noblest performance, the celebrated Marriage at Cana. The Saviour is seated in the centre of an immense table, and at his side the Holy Virgin, who, having just pronounced the words, "There is no wine," is eagerly listening to hear the orders which he may give. On either side are the newly-married couple, who, as well as the numerous guests, are portraits of the great personages of the painter's time. A large group of musicians displays the portraits of all the celebrated artists of Venice. Paul Veronese himself appears habited in white, and playing on the violoncello.

The Witch of Endor raising the ghost of Samuel has all the grandeur and sublimity of Salvator Rosa. The Antiope, with Jupiter in the form of a Satyr, contains all that sweetness of expression, that refined beauty of the female form, and harmony of colouring, peculiar to Correggio. The Jesus on the knees of St. Anne, and the Jesus supported by an Angel, are pleasing efforts of the pencil of Leonardo da Vinci. Titian has many portraits with all his peculiar colouring; his Disciples at Emmaus is a splendid performance; but his Entombment of Christ is without a rival. The divine Raphael has two works remaining in the gallery; it is said that more will be added from other collections.

It would be impossible to enter into a description of the numerous pictures: we must refer the reader to the Catalogue, which has been translated into English.

The noblest productions of ancient sculpture crowded the halls of the ground-floor; but the restitution of every work to which the French could plead no better right than that of war, robbed "the Gallery of Antiques" of almost every valuable specimen, and left it desolate and naked. It has received wonderful accessions. The statues are now re-arranged; and the French have filled the sad and dreary void with the best works that other collections can spare, and with models of many of those transcendent pieces which are now lost to them for ever.

The entrance into the halls which formed the Gallery of Antiques is on the left of the stairs leading to the Gallery of Paintings. They are eight in number, each bearing an appropriate name.

First is the Vestibule; its ceiling, painted by Barthélemy, represents the origin of Sculpture, when the first statue was fashioned by Prometheus. The four medallions allude to the four principal schools of sculpture, Egypt, Greece, Italy, and France. The bas-relief over the entrance describes the Genius of Art; and that over the portal, leading to the first hall, the union of the three branches of design.

Next

Next to this is the Hall of the Emperors, whose ceiling is painted by Meynier, and represents the Earth receiving from the Emperors a code of law, dictated by Nature, Wisdom, and Justice. In two tablets of bronze, by the same artist, Trajan is seen planning the Roman roads, and erecting the aqueducts. The bas-reliefs at the angles are the Eridanus, the Tiber, the Nile, and the Rhine. This hall once contained the Minerva of Villettri, the Antinous, and Hercules, and the beautiful Tomb of the Muses.

The ceiling of the Hall of the Seasons was painted by Romanelli, and contains the history of Apollo and Diana. Here was the celebrated Indian Bacchus, the Venus coming from the Bath, and the Ariadne, surnamed the Cleopatra.

The Hall of Peace is decorated by eight antique pillars of granite, which formerly enriched the nave of the church of Aix-la-Chapelle. They were claimed by the Prussians; but it was found that they could not be taken down without serious injury, and some statues were given in exchange. The three allegorical paintings depict the Arts, Peace, and Commerce. Here were the exquisite statues of Zeno, Demosthenes, Trajan, Phocion, Menander, and Posidippus.

The ceiling of the Hall of the Romans is painted by Romanelli, and exhibits History and Poetry celebrating the successes of Bellona. Four other paintings represent the Deputies of the Senate offering the purple to Cincinnatus; the Rape of the Sabines; the courage of Mutius Scævola; and the Continnence of Scipio. This hall contained many rare specimens of the antique. Among them were the Germanicus, the Ceres, the Marcus Junius Brutus, the expiring Gladiator, the Antinous of the Capitol, the spotted Faun, the Tiberius, and the fragment of the colossal statue of Hercules.

The next apartment was called the Hall of the Laocoon, but now the Hall of the Centaur. Its ceiling contained the French Hercules conquering the fury of Party; the Arts celebrating the Victories of France; Study and Fame; and a Group of Genii. It is here that the traveller perceives the full extent of the retribution with which France has been visited. The inimitable and affecting Laocoon, the fascinating Venus de Medicis, the finely-modelled Cincinnatus, the majestic Jupiter, the spirited Meleager, the exquisite Cupid and Psyche, and the much-admired figure of the Youth extracting a thorn from his foot, are no longer to be seen.

Four columns of red oriental granite, taken from the tomb of Charlemagne, adorn the Hall of Apollo. The Belvidere Apollo, the sublime sculpture that has escaped the ravages of time, once occupied a conspicuous place in this hall. It was surrounded by the Belvidere Antinous, the Antinous of Egypt, the Ariadne of the Capitol, the Nurse of Bacchus, the Commodus Hercules, the Capitoline Juno, the Alexander Severus, the Alexander of the Capitol, the two Sphinxes, and the beautiful Candelabra.

The ceiling of the Hall of Diana represents her exploring Jupiter to permit her to remain among the number of the virgin goddesses: it is the performance of Prodhon. The surrounding paintings describe different events in the life of that deity. There is also the Hall of the Candelabra, the Hall of the Tiber, Hall of the Gladiator, Hall of Pallas, Hall of Melpomene, Hall of Isis, and the Hall of the Caryatides. Every work of art was swept from this beautiful hall. They have been replaced by a great variety of new subjects.

This museum is open to the public on Saturday and Sunday, from ten o'clock until four; but students and foreigners are daily admitted, on producing their passports.

In describing the public buildings of this city, we shall study contiguity rather than classification. The Tuileries and Louvre stand in the parish of

St. Germain l'Auxerrois.—The church was built by

Childebert; and the statues of himself and of his queen are yet to be seen at the entrance. The portal is a fine specimen of Gothic architecture, by Perrault and le Brun. The bell of this church gave the signal for the horrible massacre of St. Bartholomew. Before the Revolution, this church contained a collection of paintings and statues which almost rivalled the noblest museum in France. Most of the French artists lived in or near the Louvre. This was their parish-church; and a pleasing contention arose among them who should contribute most to its embellishment: Jouvenet, Coypel, Le Brun, Louis Boullogne, Philippe de Champagne, Coysevox, and Warin, were eager to place the most valuable of their works in the choir, and around the altar, of this church. During the sacrilegious period of the Revolution, these treasures were scattered or destroyed. Some of them are preserved in the Louvre.

The *Pont Royal*, or Royal Bridge, is situated opposite the Tuileries, and was erected by Louis XIV. to replace that of wood, which the breaking-up of the ice in 1684 had carried away. It is reckoned one of the most solid bridges in Paris; and, till the existence of the Pont Louis XVI. was the only one built across the river, without taking advantage of the islands. It stands on four piles, forming, with two abutments, five elliptical arches of a handsome sweep: the span of the centre-arch is 72 feet, that of the two adjoining 66, and of the two outer ones 60. On each side is a raised pavement for foot-passengers, and in the middle there is a space for four carriages abreast. The north end of this bridge faces that wing of the palace of the Tuileries which is called the Pavillon de Flore. From the middle of this bridge the city is seen in a most striking point of view. During the revolution, this bridge was christened *Pont National*; but its original name has been lately restored.

The *Place Louis Quinze*, or Square of Louis XV. separates the Tuileries from the Elysian Fields. It is of an octagonal form, surrounded by a fosse, guarded by a balustrade of stone, which is terminated by little pavilions in the form of pedestals destined to receive groups of figures. The centre of the Place Louis XV. exhibits one of the noblest views in Paris. In front is the palace of the Tuileries, seen through the grand avenue. Behind is the triumphal arch and *barrière de Neuilly*, seen likewise through the perspective of a long avenue. On one side the Rue Royale terminates with the new church of the Madeleine; and on the other side, the eye, glancing over the new bridge de Louis Seize, rests on the noble colonnade that forms the façade of the Palace of the Representatives. An equestrian statue of Louis XV. occupied the centre of the square.

On the 30th of May, 1770, the marriage of Louis XVI. then Dauphin; was celebrated here, but the day of rejoicing was converted into one of sadness and desolation. Through an oversight of the police, the streets leading to the place where the fireworks were exhibited were covered with heaps of stones. Some carriages ran against them in the dark, and broke down; they were left lying on the spot; others were overturned by them; the horses took fright, and plunged among the concourse of spectators on foot; who, urged by terror and alarm, pushed and jostled one another in the dark: numbers fell, and were trampled to death. The shrieks of the dying, the prancing of the affrighted horses, the thieves who purposely increased the crowd that they might rob the richly-dressed ladies of their jewels, all concurred to augment the horrible confusion. Whoever fell was lost; the terrified multitude rushed over him, and he expired perhaps under the feet of those who were anxiously seeking him, and would have sacrificed their own lives to save his. It was admitted, that upon this melancholy occasion 600 persons lost their lives; but credible eye-witnesses declare, that the number of sufferers, killed or dreadfully maimed, was not less than 1600. Next morning, half Paris was in mourning: almost every family lost relatives and friends; all halted to the spot

spot where the disfigured corpses were deposited, trembling lest they should discover in their countenances the well-known features of beloved objects.

Some have considered this calamity as a sad preface of the horrible scenes which were afterwards witnessed in this place! In September 1792, the statue of Louis XV. was overthrown, and the figure of Liberty erected in its stead. At the foot of this sanguinary altar the blood of Louis XVI. was shed; and, in the space of two years, many thousand of his subjects followed him to the same scaffold.

The name of *Concorde* was afterwards given to this square, to endeavour to efface the memory of the crimes by which it had been polluted. Its original title is now restored; but the space in the centre is at present unoccupied by any statue or public monument.

The *Garde Meuble*, or Wardrobe, adorns the north side of the square, and was built by Gabrielle, in 1768. On sub-basements, pierced by arcades, two peristyles elevate themselves, formed of insulated columns of the Corinthian order. Above the colonnade is a balustrade; and the whole front is richly embellished with the greatest variety of sculpture. Next to the Louvre it presents the most magnificent façade of any of the public edifices of Paris. Although many valuable articles which this fabric formerly contained became a prey to revolutionary fury, there still remain sufficient specimens to gratify the stranger's curiosity; particularly the Battles of Scipio, Oudry's hunting-pieces, the history of Don Quixote, and the polished armour worn by Francis I. at the battle of Pavia.

The *Pont Louis Seize*—communicates from the Place Louis XV. to the Quai d'Orfai. This bridge, which for some years bore the name of Pont de la Concorde, was begun in 1787, and finished in 1790. It is 462 feet in length by 48 in breadth. Like the Pont Royal it consists of five elliptical arches: the span of the centre-arch is 96 feet, of the collateral ones 87, and of the two near the abutments 68: under one of the latter is a tracking-path for the facility of navigation.

Contiguous to the Tuileries and to the Place Louis XV. are the *Champs Elysées*, or Elyian Fields; a noble, extensive, and regular, plantation of shady trees.—This vast enclosure was planted by Colbert in 1670, and extends from the Place Louis Quinze as far as Chaillot on the east, and to the extremity of the suburb of Roule on the west; the suburb of St. Honoré borders it on the north, and the Queen's Course on the south. Its principal walk extends from the Place Louis XV. to the Bridge of Neuilly; and its entrance from that square is ornamented by two pedestals supporting the figures of reftive horses by Cof-tou. Few parts of Paris afford a view comparable to that which this spot presents. In front is the Palace of the Tuileries, and its magnificent garden; on the left are the noble hotels of the suburb of St. Honoré; on the right is the river; and, behind, the picturesque barrier of Neuilly.

This vast extent of ground is planted with trees in various avenues, and composing different forms. The principal avenue of the Tuileries, on the side of the terrace of the Feuillans, is now the most frequented spot. Swings are erected in various places: numerous parties are at all hours joining in the graceful dance. The pavilions, or dancing-booths, are filled with bourgeois enjoying themselves after the labour of the day; and every kind of pastime is displayed for the amusement of the promenaders.

The *Cours de la Reine*, or Queen's Course, when the roads are not too dusty, is as pleasant a promenade as any that Paris affords. It is on the south of the Elyian Fields, and extends nearly a mile along the bank of the Seine, from the corner of the Place Louis XV. almost to the unfinished palace of the king of Rome. It was planted by Mary de Medicis, in 1628. The trees do not afford so much shade as might be expected; and in dry weather the dust is apt to be troublesome. There are four rows

of trees, twelve feet from each other, forming a grand principal walk, and two smaller ones.

The *Allée des Veuves*, or Widows' Walk.—An avenue of trees extending from that part of the Elyian Fields called l'Etoile, or the star, to the west extremity of the Queen's Course. It is crowded with tea-gardens, and is much frequented by the middle and lower classes of Parisians.

The *Barrière de Neuilly* stands on an eminence, and looks down upon that quarter of Paris which includes the Louvre and the Tuileries, with all their accompaniments, and indeed nearly all the beauty and magnificence of Paris. The barrier is formed of two very large and noble military stone lodges, having porticos on all sides, supported by massy Doric pillars; these buildings are separated from each other by a range of iron gates. Having thus insensibly, and almost unintentionally, led our traveller out of town, we must suddenly carry him back again, to the

PALAIS ROYAL, or Royal Palace; in the Rue St. Honoré.—The Palais Royal was begun by cardinal Richelieu in 1629, on the site which had been occupied by the hotels Mercœur and Rambouillet. The celebrated Le Mercier was employed as the architect. As the fortunes of the cardinal augmented, he enlarged on the original plan. It was completed in 1636; and its tout-ensemble, formed of successive additions, was a curious yet accurate representation of the growing wealth and power of its owner. It was then called le Palais Cardinal. At his death he bequeathed it to Louis XIII. He died in the following year, when his widow, Anne of Austria, quitted the Louvre, and established herself in this edifice with her young son Louis XIV. and his brother the duke of Anjou. From this circumstance it was called le Palais Royal, although the queen, from gratitude to the donor, caused the inscription PALAIS CARDINAL to be placed over the principal portal. The square, in front of the palace towards the street St. Honoré, was now completed.

In 1692, Louis XIV. gave it to his nephew, Philip of Orleans, on his marriage with Maria-Frances of Bourbon. That part of the building that reaches to the street Richelieu was now completed, and which the cardinal had destined as his library. In the right wing of the palace at this period, was an immense hall, capable of containing 3000 persons. The Italian comedians and the company of Molière performed here. On the same spot was built the opera-house that was burned in 1781. The left wing was occupied by a vast gallery, the roof of which had been painted by Philip de Champagne, and represented the principal events of the life of the cardinal. This was destroyed to build a residence for Philip of France, the only brother of the king.

In process of time it descended to the revolutionary duke of Orleans, Philip Egalité, to whom it is indebted for its present magnificence, and for its present disgrace. The front towards the street of St. Honoré was built by him after the destruction of the opera-house. It presents two pavilions, adorned with Doric and Ionic columns, and crowned with pediments. The buildings of the first court have Doric and Ionic pilasters, and Doric columns ornament the vestibule which conducts to the second court, where is another magnificent façade composed of two pavilions, with Ionic columns surmounted by a pediment. On the right of the vestibule is the grand staircase, which, although it is said to be deficient in some of its proportions, will excite the admiration of the spectator.

The present building is in the form of a parallelogram, and of the most elegant modern architecture. The parapet that surrounds it, decorated with immense stone vases of exquisite beauty, will not fail to attract attention. The whole of the circuitous extent, without any interruption of the galleries, is nearly half a mile. Passing under the porticoes, an immense square unexpectedly opens on the traveller. In the centre is a garden, interspersed with many young and flourishing trees, and encircled

circled by lattice-work. In the centre of this garden is a large circular basin with a beautiful fountain in the middle, erected by his present majesty Louis XVIII. and opened in March 1817.

Upon the whole, this is a building worthy of the name which it bears. It is indeed a *royal palace*, and worthy to become the residence of the sovereign of a great country. But the crimes of its former owner have rendered it a strange, unique, and disgraceful, scene which defies all description.

Having exhausted his noble revenues by a course of luxury and profligacy of which history scarcely affords a parallel, the duke of Orleans was driven to some desperate expedient to save himself from utter ruin. He determined to convert the residence of a prince into an immense bazar. The beautiful arcades of the lower galleries were divided by diminutive and ill-executed pilasters, and the garden was surrounded by a row of little shops, which were speedily let to the highest bidder. Had he stopped here he might have been forgiven; but, urged by avarice, or by the desire of obtaining exhaustless resources to support his unhallowed pursuits, he consigned other apartments of the palace to the most infamous purposes. A few of the upper galleries were appropriated to the lectures of the various professors; others were let to restaurateurs; but more were devoted to the accommodation of the gambler and the sensualist, and became the favourite haunt of every species of vice and debauchery.

The arcades of the ground-story are occupied by innumerable shops of small dimensions, but tastefully and elegantly fitted up. Every article of luxury, every thing which can contribute to the ornament of the person, to the gratification of the appetite, to the improvement of the intellect, or the contamination of the heart, is found here.

Let a man walk under these arcades at any hour of the day, and he will never want food either for meditation or amusement: but the Palais Royal exhibits a scene of peculiar interest in the evening. There is no want, either natural or artificial, no wish for the cultivation of the mind or decoration of the body, which would not here find food and gratification, and perpetual variety. All the necessities of life without exception, and all the inventions of refined luxury; every sensual and almost every mental gratification; the means of becoming in a few hours a Cæsar or a beggar; an exchange and a theatre; gaming-houses and banks for lending money; reading-rooms and brothels; blind virtuosi and sharp-sighted loungers; sumptuous tables for the gold of the wealthy; cynical repasts for the copper sous of the indigent: the productions of all the quarters of the globe, are here concentrated for the crowds that pass into and out of this place like the tides of the ocean. The concourse of people in the Palais Royal is never at an end; its public is the most numerous, as well as the most brilliant, of any of the places of resort in this city. The gardens of the Tuileries, the Luxembourg, the Boulevards, in short, none of the promenades, are to be brought into comparison with the Palais Royal.

Books are the only articles sold here at the same price as in other parts of Paris; but other dealers are supposed to charge double for what they sell, so that their rapacity has given this place the name of the Camp of the Tartars. The glazed gallery which is on the side towards the Rue de Richelieu, is called the Camp of the Barbarians. In this narrow passage, which is often nearly choked with a crowd, people should look narrowly to their pockets. Wretched coffee-houses line both sides of this place: here also are billiard-tables that never see day-light; while the darkness that pervades the shops of the dealers in furniture and wearing apparel, prevents the discovery of any of their defects.

The garden is enclosed on three sides with uniform buildings four stories in height. A narrow gallery runs round the bottom of the building to the extent of a

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quarter of a league, which is sheltered from the weather, and preserves a view of the garden. In the day this gallery is lighted by the arches, but at night it is illuminated by 180 lamps. Each of the galleries here is let at an annual rent of 8000 francs, and the space on the ground at 3000 francs. The promenades under the arcades and in the passages are always filled with ladies and loungers of every description. It is impossible not to be delighted with the peculiar elegance with which the rival shop-keepers light up their little cabinets of *bijouterie*, and with the splendour produced by the general illumination.

Not being accustomed to view palaces laid out into compartments for trade, the imagination is forcibly struck to behold such a pile of building, to contemplate the lengthened arcades, and to perceive that they all abound with the efforts of human industry, in almost countless divisions. Retail traders never before were seen in so splendid a mansion. The sensations produced by the lights, the moving crowd, and the merchandize exposed as already described, are not a little heightened by music, vocal and instrumental, that strikes the ear with peculiar force; it being both loud, and often, as it were, on the very spot, though the stranger cannot divine whence it proceeds. Presently that which was loud before comes ten times louder, and his hearing leads his eye to the descent into a cellar, and, should he enter, he finds a strange mixture of the working people and the wealthier citizens; some clean, some dirty, sitting over their small beer, lemonade, bavaroise, or some other liquor, regaling themselves with feasting and music.

An imitation of these bazars was attempted in London a few years ago, (1815-16.) Mr. Trotter, happening to possess, in Soho-square, some very-extensive warehouses entirely unoccupied, fitted up a considerable portion of this building for the purposes of a bazar. The great sale-room is hung with red baize, adorned with mirrors, chandeliers, &c. &c. and laid out in alleys of handsome counters. These, as is expressed in the advertisement, are let by the foot and by the day, to persons of *unquestionable character* and moral respectability; and this, we are told, is the prominent feature of the English bazaar, so that it was intended to imitate only the very best and most reputable part of the French one. A most flaming and flattering article appeared, in aid of this institution in the New Monthly Magazine for February 1816. wherein Mr. Trotter is described as "the possessor of premises almost equal to the benevolence of his heart;" and the writer of which was "happy in taking this early opportunity of paying his tribute of cordial applause to a gentleman whom it will send down to posterity with the Howards, Jenners, Wilberforces, and other benefactors of mankind!" The experiment succeeded; and the imitation was imitated in almost every street in London, some shops being more like the French bazars, others less so. A bazar in the Strand had instrumental music by day, to which was added vocal, and a lottery, at night. The regular shop-keepers were alarmed; they found themselves deserted, while the showy stalls were crowded. They applied to the magistrates; they applied to the legislature: the magistrates could do nothing; the legislature would do nothing; but, in about a twelvemonth, these bazars all melted away of their own accord, leaving only Mr. Trotter's original show-shop in Soho-square, unless the Burlington arcade, since erected, may be thought to bear some resemblance to the arcades of the Palais Royal.

The *gaming-tables* are dispersed over the Palais Royal. After having ascended a stair-case, you are introduced into an anti-chamber, where several hundred hats, sticks, and great coats, carefully ticketed, are arranged under the charge of two or three old men, who receive either one or two sous from every owner. From the anti-chamber you enter into various large and well-lighted rooms, all equally well attended, and containing a vast crowd of persons, seated and engaged in gaming. The tables are licensed by government, pay to it a considerable sum of money,

money, and are under its immediate inspection : they are well regulated ; but still are dangerous places, as many English know. In divers subterraneous chambers are many scenes of unfashioned dissipation, where the game of billiards is dexterously played, and too well attended.

The *restaurateurs* in the Palais Royal are by far the most famous and most frequented ; their larders are the choicest, their bill of fare the longest, and their dining-rooms the most elegant, in all Paris. You have in them the choice of more than two hundred dishes, of above twenty sorts of desserts, upwards of twenty kinds of wine, and more than twenty species of liqueurs.

The *coffee-houses* form another point of meeting for the multitude, who do not go merely to take a walk, or who choose to recreate themselves after walking. Coffee, lemonade, orgeat, liqueurs, and ice, are to be had in all of them, and of equal qualities ; they are most lively and gay, in the morning from nine to eleven ; in the afternoon from three to six ; and in the evening from eight to eleven.

Adopting our opinions from antient mythology, we might say that all the inhabitants of Olympus, the gods of Wisdom excepted, had contributed to the creation of this place. Comus, Mercury, Plutus, and Cytherea, however, constantly hold their court here. The long galleries here, with their elegant shops, exhibit every thing the most seducing that opulence or luxury can desire, not excepting trinkets, jewels, and various articles equally curious and rare. Happy are they who are content with the worship paid here to Festivity, and avoid the neighbouring saloon dedicated to Plutus, or that higher still to sacrifice to the popular Venus of the day ; for the Palais Royal is the favourite haunt and chosen residence of this miserable and degraded class of society. The regulations of the police, with respect to these unhappy beings are peculiar. Every prostitute is compelled to take out a license at the proper bureau, for which she pays a stipulated sum. Her name, age, and abode, are entered ; once in every month she is visited by a medical man, appointed for the purpose, who gives her, or withholds according to circumstances, a *carte de santé*, or bill of health. Should she dare to pursue her calling without this license and this medical insurance, she is liable to fine, imprisonment, and corporal punishment.

Our description would be incomplete were we not to point out the places where, for a few sous, the votaries may be supplied with tobacco and beer, and the performances of some ventriloquist ; or those restaurateurs where you may at once regale upon insipid soup and discordant music. Here are tailors' shops, where you may be suited in a minute ; reading-rooms, and a long train of etceteras all calculated as much for the benefit of the body as the mind. In fine, the Palais Royal is said to embrace every profession but that of an apothecary and a physician ; and, being the only place where people can walk under cover from the rain, its attractions are equal either in summer or winter. Its proximity to the Exchange increases its bustle ; but the vigilance of the police prevents any disorders, whilst a wise regulation prohibits the priestesses of Venus from spreading their nets before the dusk of the evening.

The *Exchange* is held, provisionally, in the great court of the Palais Royal, while a new building is erecting in Rue des Filles St. Thomas. If we may judge from its present appearance, it will be one of the largest and most beautiful edifices of the kind in Europe. It will be a long square, of a noble yet simple architecture. Its only ornament will consist of a series of medallions, representing the different coins of Europe. A peristyle of the Ionic order will surround it, and serve as a promenade in winter. Six millions of livres have been voted for the completion of this building.

Near the Palais Royal is the *Place des Victoires*.—The marshal de la Feuillade, loaded with benefits by Louis XIV. wished to leave to posterity some public testimony

of his gratitude. For this purpose he built this "Place," of a semicircular form ; and in the centre he placed a colossal statue of Louis XIV. with Victory standing on a globe behind him, and placing a crown on his head. Hence the name. This statue was destroyed in 1792, and a colossal figure of general Desaix erected in its stead, which in its turn has likewise disappeared. The houses are noble and uniform, and adorned with Ionic pilasters. The Place des Victoires is, however, too narrow ; and the avenues to it are sometimes dangerous from the number of carriages.

THE LUXEMBOURG ; now called *Palais de la Chambre des Pairs*, or House of Lords ; Rue Vaugirard.—Of all the royal palaces in the metropolis, and even in France, none surpasses the Luxembourg in magnificence. It was built for Mary de Medicis, widow of Henry IV. in 1612, by Jacques Desbrosses, upon the model of the Palais Pitti at Florence, where this queen had resided in her youth. Few palaces have so frequently changed their possessors. During the revolution it was a prison ; and is now occupied by the senate. This edifice, distinguished by the boldness of its architecture, its regularity and beautiful proportion, nearly forms an exact square. Though the architecture of Florence is visible upon each of its fronts, that towards the garden is universally admired. The statues here are by Cartelier, and those towards the court by Desparcieux. The great staircase in the right wing of the court, ornamented with the statues of several French generals and legislators, is very fine. To the right of this an arcade is now opened, the centre of which corresponds with another opposite, and a fountain decorated with a pedestal bearing a marble statue. A free communication being established under the galleries, persons may walk all round in rainy weather and in winter among the orange-trees. In the apartments leading to the Hall of the Sitings there is a fine figure by Puget, representing Hercules at rest ; and in another a ceiling by Barthelemy : in the Hall of the Sitings are several statues in plaster of Grecian and Roman orators ; and in one of the apartments in an angle of the pavilion, there are some cloth hangings, and some furniture covered with velvet, upon which some of the finest monuments in Rome and its environs are represented. Some of these rooms communicate with the gallery of pictures, which contained the best pieces of Le Sueur, Vernet, and several other masters, now in the Louvre. The ceiling of the Rubens Gallery is decorated with a painting by Calais, representing the twelve months of the year, arranged in the order used before the re-establishment of the Gregorian calendar in 1806. The new iron railing on each side the palace, 80 feet long, which confines the private buildings, and the plantations, which are calculated for general ornament, do honour to the talents of M. Baraguey.

The garden of the Luxembourg begins to lose its former sombre appearance, which towards the south used to be enclosed with high walls ; but at present the view extends beyond the large close of the Chartreux, now transformed into a magnificent *pepiniere royale*, or nursery-garden, which, being only separated by a wall breast-high, appears to increase the extent of the garden. To the right of the palace is a plantation of young maples, the fresh verdure of which and their moderate height form an agreeable contrast with the ancient grove on the other side, whose shades administer to the most profound meditation. In the midst of the whole is the *parterre*, no longer disfigured by the mournful yews shaped into a thousand grotesque forms, and consisting of alleys, walls, and ruins. A fine sloping lawn is now to be seen on the right and left of this spot ; its walks, planted with trees, of a middle growth, afford an agreeable mixture of flowers and foliage.

The noble monastery of the Chartreux, with its vast dependencies, once occupied the right side of the garden. The manner in which this territory came into the possession of the monks is singular and ridiculous. The chateau

chateau of Vauvert, built by Robert II. the son of Hugh Capet, having been abandoned, a report was propagated, that innumerable demons had made it their abode. The most frightful forms were seen, and the most terrific noises were heard every night. No one dared to approach the fatal walls after sunset, and the inhabitants of the neighbouring houses fled in terror from their dwellings. The monks of the Carthusian monastery of Gentilly, whose desire of aggrandisement overcame their fears of the mysterious inhabitants of the chateau, or who possibly were already qualified to give a good account of these nocturnal revels, petitioned St. Louis to grant them the deserted edifice and its domains, pledging themselves to exorcise the fiends, and to deliver the neighbourhood from the disturbers of its repose. They took possession of the chateau with much imposing solemnity; and the demons were required to quit for ever the domains which were now consecrated to the service of God. They heard, trembled, and obeyed. Neither the vigils of the ghostly fathers, nor the slumbers of the superstitious peasants, were again disturbed. The monastery remained about 600 years, but it appeared at its dissolution that the exorcism of the friars had been effectual.

The Library of the Arsenal now forms part of the library of the Luxembourg. This magnificent collection was purchased by the count d'Artois, from the celebrated Paulmy d'Argenson. It contains 75,000 printed volumes, and 6000 MSS. Many of the missals are beautifully illuminated on vellum. One is called the Breviary of René king of Naples and Sicily, with a title in Moorish Arabic; another is in letters of gold, of the ninth century, containing the four evangelists. In this library, also, are a globe constructed for the purpose of teaching the last Dauphin geography; and steps made for Marie Antoinette, that move by a spring, and may be directed to any part of the room at pleasure, by the person sitting on them.

This library contains also a magnificent collection of works on the military art: but it is not confined to them; it is rich in general history, foreign literature, and Italian poetry.

When the Prussians arrived in Paris, on their second expedition, they appeared to be disposed to despoil this library of its most valuable works. M. Treneuil, the librarian, and even the French minister of the interior, interfered in vain; but the energetic remonstrances of the celebrated Humboldt preserved it from destruction.

Near the Luxembourg is the *Church of St. Sulpice*.—The majestic portico was the work of Servandoni. Its grand proportions, the boldness of the design, and the sublime effect which it produces, are universally acknowledged. It is composed of two orders, the Doric and the Ionic, placed above each other. The Doric columns are forty feet high, and five feet in diameter, with an entablature of ten feet. The Ionic pillars are thirty-eight feet in height, and four feet eight inches in diameter, with an entablature of nine feet. A tower rises on each side of the portico to the height of 210 feet. They were originally of a different style of architecture, and were not supposed to accord well with the other parts of the building: they are indebted to M. Chalgrin for their present appearance.

The interior of the building, in which the Corinthian order reigns, is not less interesting than the exterior. The composition of the principal altar between the nave and the choir is grand and sublime. Its form is that of an ancient tomb of beautiful marble. The spacious choir is decorated with the colossal statues of our Saviour, St. Peter, St. Paul, and St. John the Evangelist, by Bouchardon. It is terminated by a magnificent chapel, dedicated to the Virgin. Above the altar of white marble rise some columns of blue marble, of the composite order, with gilt chapiters, supporting an entablature crowned by numerous figures in bronze. The cupola, imitatively representing the Assumption, is by Lemoine: and the ingenious

manner in which the light is admitted produces a magical effect. The vessels containing the holy water are curiously formed of two immense skulls, which the republic of Venice presented to Francis I. They are placed on a rock executed by Pigal. This interesting edifice was sadly despoiled during the revolution.

The subterranean church is remarkable for its extent; and gives a tolerable idea of the ancient catacombs.

In front of the church is one of those fountains with which Paris so much abounds. It is a pleasing little structure, but lost in the immensity of the area in which it is situated. It is a massive square, with an entablature on each side, ornamented by bas-reliefs in marble, representing Peace, Agriculture, Commerce, and the Arts. On two of the sides are sculptures in white marble, in the form of the upper part of a vase, whence the water falls into semicircular cisterns of marble, and thence into a circular basin.

There is another fountain in the same street, the Rue de Vaugirard. This fountain is composed of two pilasters, surmounted by a pediment. A bas-relief represents Leda on the banks of the Eurotas, and Jupiter under the form of a swan. The artist, who had only a small stream of water at his disposal, has very tastefully made it issue from the beak of an elegant bird.

HOTEL BOURBON; now called the Palace of the Representatives, Chamber of Deputies, or House of Commons; Rue de l'Université.—This palace was built by the dukes of Bourbon, in 1722, after the designs of Girardini, an Italian architect. It was afterwards considerably improved and enlarged by the prince of Condé. It is delightfully situated on the banks of the Seine, at the foot of the Pont Louis XVI. and opposite to the Place Louis XV. and commands a pleasing view of the Tuileries and the Elysian Fields. It was intended to be a country-house more than a palace, and the character of the edifice on the river-side accords with this destination. Its principal entrance towards the street combines simplicity and grandeur. It consists of one noble portico, with a colonnade of the Corinthian order on each side. The front towards the bridge consists of twelve Corinthian columns, surmounted by a well-proportioned pediment. It would have been considerably improved, had its pillars been fluted and more massive, and had the stone of which it is constructed been of a softer white. The statues of Sully, Colbert, l'Hôpital, and d'Agneſſeau, decorate the sides of the pediment, and at the bottom of the steps are Minerva and the Genius of France.

When Louis XVI. erected the bridge that bears his name, immediately before one of the pavilions of this palace, the necessity of raising the neighbouring ground destroyed much of the beauty of this edifice; and, causing it to appear as if it were sunk in a valley, gave to the too-diminutive proportions of the building an air of insignificance. The prince to whom the palace belonged perceived and lamented this, and determined to enlarge and almost rebuild the edifice. But the Revolution ordered it otherwise. The Palace of Bourbon was among the first that was ravaged and mutilated, and it remained unoccupied and unappropriated until the Council of Five Hundred was established in it.

On the opposite sides of the square are two halls, dedicated to Peace and Victory. These communicate on one side with the apartments of the palace, and on the other with two stone staircases of exquisite workmanship, leading to the upper part of the Hall of the Representatives. This hall was built in the third year of the Revolution, on the site of some of the apartments of the old palace. At the foot of the bridge of Louis XVI. is an avenue for the use of the members; and nearly facing the Rue de Lille is the way to the public tribune. The hall is a very handsome room, in the form of a half oval. It is ornamented with six statues, representing Lycurgus, Solon, Demosthenes, Brutus, Cato, and Cicero. Near the president's chair are two figures in bas-relief, of History and Fame.

Fame. Immediately below the president are desks for the secretaries; and one or two benches, covered with blue leather, are appropriated to such of the king's ministers as may have occasion to attend the assembly. The desk and seat of the president are formed out of solid mahogany, decorated with gilt bronze. The centre has a marble pavement floor, in compartments ornamented with allegorical attributes and emblems. The two great doors which open into the hall are of solid mahogany, with stars of gold; their surrounding frames are in fine white marble, with rich sculpture.

The members do not rise and speak from their places, but the person who wishes to address the assembly is obliged to cross the floor, and ascend a kind of rostrum or tribune; a ceremony which must tend much to damp the speaker's fire.

Adjoining the hall is the robing-chamber, constructed in what was formerly called the Pavillon Valois. It communicates with the hall by a gallery. On the right of the president is a chamber used for conferences; to the left is the Saloon of Liberty, formerly appropriated to those who had petitions to present.

The library of the Palais Royal is now appropriated to the use of the members of the tribunate, and the chief officers of state. It was formed in the eighth year of the Revolution, with books collected from the literary depôts at Paris. It has been since augmented by the contributions of many living authors. This collection was placed in the Tuileries, but afterwards removed to the Palace of Bourbon.

The terrace of this palace, more than 300 feet in length, overlooks the Quai d'Orfai; and the view from it is one of the most beautiful and varied that Paris affords. A considerable part of the city, a long reach of the Seine, the garden and palace of the Tuileries, the bridge and square of Louis XV, the Elysian Fields, the road to Versailles, and the villages of Chaillot, Passy, and Auteuil, are distinctly seen.

PALAIS DE JUSTICE, the Palace or Hall of Justice.—The term *palace* is still applied to this building because it was formerly the residence of the kings of France; but its origin is lost in the obscurity of time. It is supposed to have been built by Eudes, in the ninth century; and it was the usual residence of the kings till the reign of Charles V, who left it for the Hotel St. Paul. About the year 1000, king Robert began to build its first galleries and towers; and its garden then extended as far as La Cour Lamoignon. St. Louis built the bedchamber which still bears his name, as well as the grand chamber and the Holy Chapel. Philip le Bel made considerable augmentations in 1313; and it again became the usual abode of the French monarchs. It merely consisted, however, of several enormous towers, which communicated with each other by means of long galleries. The grand hall is frequently spoken of by the French historians. The kings there received the ambassadors of foreign nations, and it was the scene of their most splendid entertainments. It was adorned by the statues of the successive monarchs from the time of Pharamond. At the upper end was a marble table of enormous and almost incredible dimensions. The princes of the blood were alone admitted to the honours of this table. In 1618, the palace was destroyed by fire, and the statues of the kings and the magnificent marble table disappeared for ever.

Desbrosses, the architect of the Luxembourg, was employed to rebuild the edifice. An iron palisade, 120 feet in length, encloses an immense court, surrounded on three sides by buildings. The centre gate of the palisade is a curious proof how easily beauty and effect may be destroyed by multiplicity of ornament. At the bottom of the court is a grand flight of steps, which gives an air of magnificence to a building otherwise not remarkable. At the summit of the steps are four noble Doric pillars, surmounted by a balustrade; and on the entablature are four gigantic upright statues, representing Justice, For-

titude, Plenty, and Prudence. A quadrangular dome crowns this mass of buildings. At the bottom of the steps, on each side, are two arcades, one of which leads to the Conciergerie. The rest of the palace is constructed of arcades, supporting two floors of the Doric order, surmounted by an attic.

The *Sainte Chapelle*, or Holy Chapel, is one of the most beautiful Gothic edifices in Europe. It is now filled with the archives of the kingdom. An exquisite painting by Germain-Pilen, some superb painted glass, and a few magnificent relics, are shown here.

A staircase on the right conduits to the grand hall. It is composed of two immense parallel naves, arched with stone, and separated by a range of arcades. The light is received from enormous windows at the extremities. Although the centre is thus rendered somewhat obscure, yet this disposition of the light gives to the hall an air of religious and awful grandeur. The Doric order prevails in the decorations of the hall; and the architecture does honour to the period in which it was executed.

This hall is now devoted to the sittings of the Court of Cassation; and the other parts of the palace are appropriated to the other tribunals.

Since the restoration of the Bourbons, the French government has evinced an anxiety to administer justice in a similar manner to that practised in England, particularly as it respects trial by jury: but the difficulty of forming proper juries is such, that a sense of shame alone prevents the institution being given up in despair: it certainly is not popular. (Edinb. Rev. No lxxvii.)

Cour de Cassation, or Court of Appeal.—This court does not judge respecting the rights of the parties, but only reverses or confirms the decrees of other courts, either on account of informality in the proceedings or misapplication of the laws, and refers the proceedings to the same or any other court at its discretion. This court is composed of a president, three sub-presidents, forty-five counsellors, a procurer-general, four general advocates, and a recorder. It has no vacations, and is divided into three sections.

The Court of Requests determines upon or rejects the applications made; and the hearings are on Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Thursdays. Here is likewise a civil and a criminal department. A college of fifty advocates enjoy the exclusive right of pleading before the court.

Cour des Comptes.—Court of Audit. It receives the affidavits, and audits the accounts, of the receivers general, paymasters, &c. It is composed of three chambers. The sittings are held five days in the week, and commence at nine in the morning. Here are no vacations.

Cour Royale, or Royal Court.—This court consists of five chambers; three for civil actions, one for appeals from the correctional police, and another for accusations. The first chamber gives audiences on Mondays and Tuesdays at nine in the morning, and on Fridays and Saturdays at noon. The grand audiences of the first and second chambers united, are held on Monday at noon; and those of the first and third, on Saturday at noon. They open the day after the first Sunday in December, and close on the 15th of August. This court has a vacation from the first of September to the first of November; but the criminal chambers, and the courts of assize, have no vacations. A numerous college of advocates, celebrated for their talents and understanding, enjoy the right of pleading before the court; and seventy-four solicitors are also exclusively admitted into the Cour Royale.

Tribunal de Premiere Instance, or Initiatory Court.—This is composed of thirty-six judges, a president, five vice-presidents, &c. and is divided into six chambers, five of which take cognizance of civil and the sixth of correctional affairs. Audience is given every day not a holiday, Mondays excepted. An hundred and fifty solicitors have an exclusive privilege of being employed in this court.

There are 114 notaries in Paris, who write all agreements, wills, life-certificates, leases, mortgages, sales of estates,

estates, and other authentic acts. Attorneys in Paris do not, as in London, transact any business of this kind. The difference between conveyancing-attorney and attorney at common law, is only voluntary in England; but it is not so in France, where the *avocat*, or attorney at law, never makes conveyances, and the notary cannot act in a court of law.

Tribunal de Police Municipal, or Head Police-office.—The justices of the peace sit here alternately, and judge all police-affairs from one franc to twenty-five francs. They are twelve in number, being one for each arrondissement, who settle all trifling differences between individuals. They hold their sittings at different places, in the manner of our police-magistrates, being all under the guidance of the minister of the interior, formerly called lieutenant of the police.

The royal police-guard, *commissaires de police* as they are called, are similar to our police-constables. They attend at all public places to preserve order, and to arrest suspicious persons; they are in number 1217. There is also a battalion of 572 fappers and firemen, to attend at any conflagrations that may happen in the city.

The police of France, and of Paris in particular, has always been proverbially strict. Every one has heard or read how it was administered during the reigns of Louis XV. and XVI. that it did not relax under Napoleon, we have given a proof in the article LONDON, vol. xiii. p. 598. and, by a reference to p. 448 of the present article, it will be seen how low the system of espionage is carried at this time. Indeed it appears to us, that there is a continual struggle of the government (of the *ultras* at least, though contrary to the wish of the king) to get rid of the charter, or so to weaken it as to revert by degrees to the ancient despotism. The following is part of the speech of M. Girardin in the chamber of deputies on the 9th of last month, (Jan. 1821.) "We see *privilege* introduced into our elections, practically to destroy the first political right of the French people; *lettres de cachet* revived under another form to overthrow the fourth article of the charter; and the censorship undertake to annihilate the eighth article. A varnish of legality renders this still more hateful and more formidable. Anarchy may fairly be said to exist, where individual liberty has lost its securities; where that of writing can be exercised no longer; where the citizens are dragged from before their natural judges; where the prisons are crowded—yes, where the prisons are crammed full, and where secret captivity has replaced the torture. I myself have seen, gentlemen, these wretched captives; some of them, have I beheld so near falling victims to this cruelty, that in two days, it is probable, they will have perished." Resuming the thread of the former passage, he repeated; "Where secret confinement has replaced the torture; where juries are nothing better than commissions from the crown; party-spirit is substituted for that of justice; where the police provokes disorders instead of repressing them, and hires numberless agents to organize conspiracies and to manufacture traitors; where government oppresses the consciences of such of the electors as have public duties to discharge; where informers are encouraged; where certain favourite newspapers, at their own will and pleasure, libel the most illustrious citizens; &c. &c." In some parts of this speech, we seem to be reading the state of our own country, instead of that of France.

La Conciergerie.—This prison is situated under the Palais de Justice, and is appropriated for the reception of those who, convicted of crimes, await the sentence of the law. The entrance to this fabric is in the court of the palace, being rendered conspicuous by an ornamented arcade. Within the walls of this fatal building were confined, in 1794, the amiable and ingenious Lavoisier; also Malesherbes, Condorcet, and numerous other characters as renowned for their virtues as for their learning.

Other prisons, which, as connected with the courts of justice, may as well be noticed here, are—

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Le Temple, Rue de la Corderie.—The tower of the Temple was used as a place of confinement for prisoners of state. It was particularly interesting to the traveller as having been the last residence of the unfortunate Louis XVI. and his family, who only quitted its gloomy precincts to ascend the scaffold. The gallant sir Sidney Smith was confined here; and within these walls the unfortunate captain Wright lost his life. The pile of buildings which originally occupied the enclosure of the Temple has been partly demolished; and streets have been erected on the site communicating with the Corderie.

The Temple was built in 1200, and was the principal residence of the Knights Templars. Their increasing numbers, wealth, and power, rendered them an object of jealousy to the sovereigns in whose dominions they resided; and the pope and the king of France conspired together to dissolve the order, and to seize on all their riches. They were accused of the most horrible crimes, were condemned almost unheard, and 54 of them were burnt with a slow fire on the Pont Neuf.

La Force, or *Grande Force*, near the Place Royal.—This is a vast and strong prison. The massive vaulting of the great entrance presents a very fine specimen of modern architecture, and is the only one of this kind in Paris. This edifice is divided into six departments, each having a court-yard, covered gallery, infirmary, a store for common use, and reflectors which are kept burning all night.

La Petite Force, Rue Pavée aux Marais—is a prison for prostitutes.

St. Pelagie, Rue de la Clef.—This building, erected in 1665 for the reception of female penitents, was converted into a prison at the commencement of the revolution. It is large, commodious, well distributed, and well ventilated. It is now a place of confinement for debtors, and for those who are detained by the police.

Les Madelonnettes, Rue des Fontaines.—It was formerly a monastery, but is now transformed into a prison for women convicted of crimes.

The *Bicetre*—is situated on the road to Fontainebleau, about a league and a half from Paris. In the centre of an hospital for the blind and insane is a strong prison in which those who are condemned to the galleys are confined until the time of their departure. They who are adjudged to suffer a certain period of imprisonment are likewise often sent here; and many who are suspected of crimes against the state are lodged within these walls.

St. Lazare, Rue St. Denis.—Women sentenced to different periods of imprisonment are confined here, under an excellent system of management, and being compelled to work, are frequently taught habits of industry. The beautiful needle-work of the inhabitants of St. Lazare, is universally admired.

The *Abbaye*, Rue St. Marguerite.—This was the theatre of the most dreadful massacres in September 1792. It is now a military prison; as is also the *Montaigne*, in the Rue des Sept Voies.

The internal management of all these places has been much improved within the last ten years. The prisoners are employed in work for themselves; they are well treated and have plenty of food. No one is allowed to see them without permission from the prefecture of police. Regard is had to the proper classification of prisoners, according to their age and sex; just complaints are listened to, and abuses are promptly redressed.

The *Pont au Change*—is close to the Palace of Justice; and was formerly designated *Grand Pont* and *Pont Oiseaux*, the Great Bridge, and the Bridge of Birds. It is of great antiquity, and assumed its present name when Louis the Young first established the Exchange. It has been often swept away by inundations and by ice. It was destroyed by fire in 1621 and 1639, reconstructed in stone in 1647, and repaired in 1788, at which period it was divested of the houses which had hitherto encumbered it.

The *Place du Chatelet* is at the foot of the Pont au Change.—Its form is quadrilateral; and in the centre is
6 B a column

a column in the Egyptian style, about 56 feet high, crowned with a gilt statue of Victory, by Brizot; and at the foot are four figures of Vigilance, Law, Fortitude, and Prudence, by the same artist. Every week, goods taken in execution are sold in this square.

The *Pont St. Michel*—also stands near the Palace of Justice. It was built of stone under Charles VI. and rebuilt in 1618; when it was made sixty feet longer, and twenty wider. Its architecture is bold and solid.

PALAIS DES BEAUX ARTS, Palace of the Fine Arts; Quai Conti.—This edifice, erected by the cardinal Mazarine, was long known by the name of "The College of the Four Nations," because it was designed by its noble founder to receive sixty pupils of the four nations conquered by Louis XIV. The ashes of the cardinal repose in the church near the sanctuary.

It is now appropriated to the use of the Institute, which has resumed its former name, the Royal Academy. It is of a semicircular form, composed of two pavilions, two ranges of buildings flanking them, and a portico of the Corinthian order in the centre surmounted by a dome much admired. Some exquisite groups, by Desjardins, ornament the portico. In the first court on the left is the Mazarine Library, containing 60,000 volumes, and that of the Academy. In the next court is the School of the Fine Arts, and the Architectural Gallery of that school. The ancient chapel is now appropriated to the fittings of the Academy. It is decorated with the busts of the most celebrated French literati.

"It is impossible," says an American traveller, "for a foreigner and a student to be a week in the French capital without having his imagination absolutely overpowered, and his enthusiasm wound up to the highest pitch, by the *celat* which he sees attendant on science and literature, and the facilities which he finds open to him for the culture of all the branches of human knowledge. For, besides the libraries, and other establishments already mentioned, all of which are accessible upon the easiest terms, there are innumerable gratuitous lectures read, at the expense of the government, at all hours of the day: a garden of plants, and a museum of natural history, the most perfect in the arrangement, and the most ample in the materials, to be found in the world; and the branches of knowledge to which they relate are daily explained to all visitors by men illustrious for their skill and their discoveries; public exhibitions to excite literary emulation, and national rewards to give spirit to literary industry."

The history of the Royal Academy, up to the time of the revolution, has been given briefly under the article **ACADEMY**, vol. i. p. 45. and its change to National Institute, and afterwards to Imperial Institute, has been noticed there, but more fully under the article **INSTITUTE**, vol. xi. p. 145, 6. The account there given may serve nearly for the "Royal Academy" in its present state. The alterations have been more in names than in substance. However, we may just mention, that, on the 25th of March, 1816, an ordonnance of Louis XVIII. was published, for converting the Institute into its old form of four Academies; namely, the French Academy, the Royal Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres, the Royal Academy of Sciences, and the Royal Academy of Fine Arts. The first meeting of the French Academy (thus restored) took place accordingly on the 29th of March: the duke of Richelieu was chosen president; and M. de Fontanes, vice-president.

The *Pont des Arts*—is a fine bridge which joins the Palace of Arts to the Louvre. It was built by Demoutier in 1804. It has nine arches, of cast iron, each supported by three girders; and it is perfectly horizontal. It is open only to foot-passengers, who pay one sou each. It was formerly ornamented with flowers, and was the fashionable promenade of the Parisians; but it is now almost deserted.

The *Royal Library*, Rue Richelieu.—The exterior of this edifice is exceedingly plain, and gives no indication

of the treasures that it contains. Neither the windows nor the principal entrance have the least ornament. An archway admits to a court, which is no less than 544 English feet in length, and its breadth 128. In this court is a fine statue in bronze, representing a woman resting on one foot, in a very easy and natural attitude. The principal floor of the building which surrounds this large court is entirely filled up with books, from the bottom to the ceiling.

The Royal Library dates its origin from a very early period. King John collected ten volumes; six on science and history, and four on religion. To them, his son Charles V. surnamed the Wise, added more than nine hundred volumes. These constituted a library which, at that age, might justly be deemed worthy of the royal collector. It was deposited in a tower of the Louvre, called *la Tour de la Librairie*, the Library Tower. The apartment was illuminated at night by thirty small chandeliers and a silver lamp, that the student might pursue his researches at every hour. It appears to have been afterwards neglected, and almost destroyed; for, when it was purchased by the duke of Bedford, for 1200 livres, in 1429, it was found to contain but 150 volumes. Louis XI. collected the scattered remains of this library, and profited by the resources which the invention of printing presented to him. Charles VIII. added to it what the conquest of Naples enabled him to collect. Louis XII. enriched it with the library of Petrarch; Francis I. with some Greek MSS. and Henry II. greatly augmented it in consequence of a decree, in 1556, enjoining all booksellers to furnish it with a copy, on vellum, of every work which they published. Colbert augmented it with more than 60,000 volumes. Cardinal Fleury sent many literati, at an enormous expense, to the Greek islands and Asiatic continent, who brought home numerous curious and invaluable morsels of antiquity. It was, however, under the reigns of Louis XIV. XV. and XVI. that it attained that degree of splendour and magnificence which renders it the first library in Europe.

The ground-floor is appropriated to the printed books, of which there are 360,000. Tables are placed in different parts of the room for the accommodation of visitors, who may call for whatever books they please, and before whom the scarcest prints, the rarest medals, the most valuable manuscripts, are unhesitatingly placed at the first requisition. Busts of the most celebrated French literati occupy several niches. In one of the rooms is a curious model of the Pyramids and the Sphinx, accurately preserving their proportions, and ornamented by a well-executed grove of palms, with a caravan of travellers.

On the second floor, to the right, is the French Parnassus, by Titon du Tillet. It represents a little mountain, covered with bronze figures of the most celebrated poets and musicians of France. Louis XIV. appears under the figure of Apollo. This floor contains the MSS. of which there are 80,000. Thirty thousand of these relate to the history of France, principally subsequent to the reign of Louis XI. Twenty-five thousand are in learned and foreign languages. Several letters of Henry VIII. are here preserved, and letters from Henry IV. of France to one of his favourites, Gabrielle d'Estrees. The manuscripts found by Denon in the mummies of the catacombs at Thebes will not be forgotten by the traveller; nor the celebrated tablet of Isis, incrustured with silver, and filled with undeciphered Egyptian hieroglyphics; the MS. of Telemachus, in the hand-writing of Fenelon; and Memoirs of Louis XIV. by the same excellent author.

The libraries of Vatican at Rome, and St. Marc at Venice, lately enriched this collection with many invaluable MSS. but these, with all the revolutionary spoils, have been restored. The inestimable MS. of the History of Josephus, on papyrus; Petrarch's MS. of Virgil, with numerous notes in his own writing; the MS. of Galileo on the tides; the mathematical tables of Haller, with corrections by himself; all the ancient and rare editions of

the Vatican, the Ambrosian library, and that of the university of Pavia; are now lost to the visiter.

Among other curiosities contained in this apartment; is an ibis, brought from Thebes, the plumage of which is fresh and perfect, although three thousand years have passed since it was first enclosed in its case. The silver shield, attributed to Scipio and Hannibal, are seen here, with the brazen chair of king Dagobert, and the heart of Anne of Britanny enclosed in a golden vase.

On this floor are likewise five great rooms, containing the genealogies of every noble French family. These fill 5000 portfolios.

On the same floor is the Cabinet of Medals, which well deserves the attention of the curious. The voyages of Dumonceau and le Vaillant were principally undertaken to complete this superb cabinet. Le Vaillant, zealous to execute his commission, swallowed twenty medals of gold, to preserve them from the Algerines, into whose power he had fallen. Three admirable paintings, by Notaire, adorn this apartment, representing Thalia, Calliope, and Terpsichore. There are also three beautiful productions of Carlo Vanloo.

On the third floor is the Cabinet of Antiquities, containing busts, vases, inscriptions, and instruments of sacrifice, collected by the celebrated Caylus. Near this are two apartments, containing Etruscan vases, bathing-vessels of porphyry, and many fine specimens of ancient art.

The Repository of Engravings comprises 5000 volumes, divided into twelve classes. The first contains sculpture, architecture, and the portraits of engravers; the second, emblematical and devotional subjects; the third, Greek and Roman antiquities, with fabulous and mythological subjects; the fourth, medals, coins, and heraldry; the fifth, public processions, banquets, and tournaments; the sixth, natural philosophy and the mathematics; the seventh, romantic and ludicrous subjects; the eighth, natural history; the ninth, geography; the tenth, plans and elevations of ancient and modern buildings; the eleventh, portraits to the number of 50,000, among which is included every celebrated character who has flourished in any country during the last six hundred years; the twelfth, represents the costume, manners, and amusements, of every region of the habitable globe. It comprises a very extensive and complete history of the costume and manners of the French from the era of Christ to the present period. Most of these engravings are coloured, and are copies from ancient windows, tapestry, and monuments. In another part of the building are two large globes, thirty feet in diameter. They were constructed by Coronelli, in 1682, are accurately delineated, and supposed to be the largest extant. The index of the horary circle is a yard in length.

Attached to the library is the royal and special School of the Oriental living Languages, where professors give lectures, during the winter, in Sanscrit, Persian, Arabic, Turkish, and modern Greek. This excellent establishment was founded by the Chevalier Langlés, in the year 1795; he is the administrator of the school, and professor of Persian.

Besides this library, and some others we have incidentally noticed, extensive and valuable collections of books are attached to almost every public institution and every public building in Paris. Access to them is easily obtained by the inhabitants of Paris, and every facility is afforded to foreigners.

Museum of Natural History, and Botanical Garden; Rue St. Victoire.—This garden was founded by Jean de la Brosse, physician to Louis XIII. but it is indebted for its present beauty and value to the assiduous labours of Buffon. The name *Jardin Royal des Plantes* ill expresses the real nature and interest of the place. In addition to a noble botanic garden, it contains a large menagerie, a museum of natural history and anatomy, and numerous halls in which public lectures are delivered on every

branch of natural history and philosophy. Each of these divisions will afford inexhaustible amusement and information.

At the entrance of the botanic-garden, several square enclosures are observed, more interesting probably to the agriculturist than to the casual visiter. The first contains a curious collection of every different soil and manure, exhibiting in an instructive manner their comparative fertility and value. The second enclosure is occupied by specimens of every kind of fence, hedge, ditch, and ha-ha. It likewise exhibits the different methods of training espalier-fruits, ever-greens, &c. of every description. Beyond these are specimens of all the culinary vegetables, and of every plant that has been appropriated to the food of man, with the most approved and successful mode of training each. In the next enclosure are specimens, systematically arranged, of all the fruit-trees, with their numerous varieties, of which France or the neighbouring kingdoms can boast.

The visiter then arrives at the Botanic Garden. It consists of more than seven thousand plants, arranged according to the system of Jussieu. Every specimen is labelled; the beds are divided by little edges of box; and a pleasing admixture of shrubs and small plants removes the appearance of formality which usually accompanies botanic gardens. A piece of water, supplied from the Seine, is appropriated to the aquatic plants.

The green and hot houses will next attract attention. They are more than six hundred feet in length; and although their exterior presents nothing elegant, with the exception perhaps of the principal green-house, whose front is prettily ornamented with marble vases, the beautiful collection of flowers and shrubs within cannot fail to please not only the botanist, but the unlearned visiter. Every plant is here likewise labelled; the labels are placed in the most conspicuous situation, and changed as soon as they cease to be perfectly legible. The botanical student will here find some rare and unique specimens, the sugar-cane, and the bread-tree. He will particularly notice the date-palm, and two other rare species near the gate.

Proceeding onwards, a path winds up an artificial ascent, on the summit of which is a temple supported by eight pilasters, and surmounted by an armillary sphere. The greater part of Paris is here presented to the view. A person is usually in attendance, who will explain to the stranger the different edifices which he sees around him. The garden is concealed by the surrounding foliage. Half-way down the hill is the cedar of Lebanon, planted more than eighty years ago by Jussieu. Although its head was lopped off in one of the strangely-barbarous periods of the revolution, it is yet a noble object. Near it is a marble pedestal that once supported the bust of Linnæus; but this, too, perished amidst the wreck of science and virtue. Another bust of Linnæus, however, has been placed on a cippus at the end of the Botanical Garden, under the shade of some fine oaks.

The Botanical Garden is 330 toises or fathoms long, and 110 in breadth, partitioned lengthways, from its entrance down towards the Seine, by three very fine alleys, and intersected by various others, which terminate in the public *promenades*, or walks. On the second occupation of Paris by the allies, the Prussians solicited that they might bivouack in this garden. Had they accomplished their purpose, every interesting object would have been trodden under foot. The spirited remonstrances of the celebrated traveller Humboldt preserved the place from total destruction.

The tourist may here pause, and prepare himself for an investigation of the remaining treasures of the garden; for at the foot of this hill are several little *cafés*, at which he may be supplied with fruit, eggs, milk, coffee, and tea.

The Menagerie will probably be next visited. The traveller returns to the enclosures near the entrance, and, following a path on the right hand, arrives at the dens

dens in which are confined the fiercer beasts of prey. Several lions, tigers, panthers, hyenas, and wolves, amuse or terrify the spectators by their howlings. Where it could be accomplished, the trees and shrubs of the animals' native climes, or the vegetables in which they most delight, flourish within their enclosures. Several bears inhabit some sunken enclosures, and, having been accustomed to confinement from their birth, appear to be reconciled to their fate, and often amuse the spectators by many clumsy feats of agility. Two camels are perfectly domesticated, and more than earn their subsistence by turning the wheel of a machine which supplies the gardens with water. The varieties of antelopes, deer, and sheep, are numerous.

The Aviary contains a collection of every bird known in France and the neighbouring kingdoms, arranged according to their species and habits; but does not boast of many rare specimens.

The Museum of Natural History is at the end of the garden. The building is more than 600 feet in length, and its external architecture is simple and plain.

The library is first visited; and, although many of its richest treasures have been restored to their proper owners, it contains almost every publication in every language on the subject of natural history. To this subject it is limited. The manuscript figures of Aldrovandi, and the *hortus-siccus* of Haller, are no longer to be seen; but the herbals of almost every celebrated French botanist are open to inspection. At the entrance is a statue of Buffon with its well-known vain-glorious and profane inscription.

Five halls are occupied by an immense collection of minerals. The first room contains the earths and stones. They are arranged according to the classification of Haüy, and mostly by his own hand. Many of the calcareous spars, the gems, and the quartz crystals, are very beautiful. In the second hall are the ores, and they present a most superb display. The third apartment affords specimens of the primary and secondary rocks, with every variety of French marble.

In the fourth is an assemblage of peculiar interest. It is composed of the animal remains of the antediluvian world. The bones of the mammoth are perfect, and strike the beholder with astonishment. The skeletons of numerous animals, now unknown or extinct, are exhibited here. Cuvier arranged the innumerable specimens of this division. All parts of the world have contributed to this collection. Among other wonders, are the fragments of an elephant's tusk, which, when complete, must have been at least eight feet in length. Several cases are filled with the bones of the Siberian mammoth, or elephant, the American mammoth, or mastodonton. There is a specimen of the hair of that mammoth which was found in 1805, preserved in a block of ice on the shore of the Icy Sea, in the country of the Tonguses in Siberia: when extricated, the dogs devoured its flesh, which must have remained in a state of complete preservation for a long period. After the bones of rhinoceroses, hippopotami, and tapiirs, come those discovered by Cuvier in the plaster-quarries of Montmartre, and of which he has constituted several new genera of extinct quadrupeds.

In the next apartment is a more pleasing collection of a similar nature, comprising the vegetable remains of former times, and particularly the impressions of ferns, leaves, and plants, procured from coal-mines, and establishing the vegetable origin or connection of this fossil. A part of this hall is occupied by numerous specimens of volcanic productions, principally from Naples, Sicily, and the Lipari islands. Two other apartments on this floor belong to the museum of zoology, and contain the reptiles and the fish tribes.

The long gallery, on the second floor, is occupied by quadrupeds and birds, generally preserved in a most admirable manner. The collection is said to be complete; and some of the animals and a few of the birds are unique.

They were introduced to the knowledge of Europeans, by Tournefort, Vaillant, and other travellers. Few animals are wanting in the series of quadrupeds and birds. Of monkeys alone there are at least two hundred specimens, and often more of a single family of birds, as of the genera *Motacilla* and *Tanagra*. Here are the camelpard brought from Africa by Vaillant, the bison, the lania, and the vicugna of Peru. Many specimens were presented by the late empress Josephine. There is a regular arrangement of the whole, which adds considerably to their interest and value. In different parts of the gallery appear busts of Tournefort, Linnæus, Adanson, Daubenton, and Fourcroy. The paintings are only two—a lion tearing a goat, and an eagle pouncing on a lamb.

The insects principally occupy large cases in the centre of the gallery, where is likewise a pleasing arrangement of the eggs and nests of most species of birds; and a beautiful assortment of corals, and other marine productions. Among the insects, after the splendid *Papilio*s are glanced at, and the *Sphinges*, may be seen a series of the silkworm, with their cocoons, and the caterpillars, formed of wax so as exactly to resemble the living animals. Near them are the gall-nuts, and woods pierced or formed by insects. Additions, illustrating the history and habits of the insect, are often procured; thus the cunning *Formica leo*, or lion-ant, is placed at the bottom of its sandy pit, down the sides of which insects are crawling, unconscious of their danger.

When the restitution of the treasures from neighbouring countries was determined on, it was rumoured that the allies would not only reclaim what had originally belonged to them, but complete their cabinets at the expense of what really appertained to France. An amicable arrangement, however, took place, creditable to every party. Numerous minerals, and many zoological specimens, had been taken from the Austrian dominions in Italy. When a duplicate existed in the museum of the garden, the original article was restored; but, when the restoration of the purloined mineral would render the French collection incomplete, another specimen of equal value, and of which the Austrian cabinets were not already possessed, was substituted. The Dutch collection, and especially of minerals, had materially enriched the French museum. If it had been restored in its original state, the museum of the Garden of Plants would have been rendered sadly imperfect. A friendly and equitable arrangement was here likewise effected. The greater part of the purloined articles were left untouched, and a collection was formed out of the private store of the duplicates of the museum, more valuable than the original articles could possibly have been. It is said that 260 quadrupeds, 800 birds, 338 reptiles, 800 fishes, and 400 shells, were given to the Dutch, not one of which were drawn from the public cabinet.

The traveller now proceeds to the Cabinet of Comparative Anatomy, originally founded by Daubenton, and newly arranged, and much increased, by Cuvier. It professes to contain, or will ultimately contain, a skeleton of every known animal, with a complete set of the bones of each separated, that they may be more easily compared with those of other species.

In the first of the public rooms are the mummies and skeletons of the human species. One Egyptian mummy, disengaged from its coffin and wrappers, is dry, dark-brown, and with the thighs and arms almost exhausted of flesh. There are male and female mummies of the Guanches, the ancient inhabitants of Teneriffe, white and distorted. A mummy of the ancient Gauls is marked as having been found near Riom. Among the skeletons is that of the assassin of general Kleber, who held for a short time the chief command of the French army in Egypt. An extensive series of human bones illustrates the diseases to which they are subject. The skeletons which follow, and crowd the apartments, are all clean, and comprehend the greater number of quadrupeds. The skeletons

skeletons of birds are not so numerous as those of the quadrupeds; there are many of the amphibia, and one of a crocodile; there are also many skeletons of fishes.

The wax preparations of fishes and shell-fish follow, constructed with the nicest art, and displaying the true colours and position of animals which it is impossible to preserve. The anatomy of the Chiton, for example, is fine. Snails in wax are attached to real shells, and caterpillars to leaves and branches of trees. In one case the anatomy of an egg is displayed in 24 preparations, from the appearance of the first speck of life, to the chicken bursting from its shell.

In the last room are the fœti and monsters. The wax preparations here are of the greatest beauty, and on a large scale; they embrace all parts of the human system, so that one may form ideas of anatomy, without the disgust that attends dissections. The most elegant additions are present; a child reclines on a silken couch, a lady and child are placed on an ornamented sofa, so as to give this science all the attractions of which it is perhaps susceptible.

The following interesting intelligence relative to this valuable Museum has just reached us; (Jan. 1821). M. Lucas, keeper of the cabinet of mineralogy, has terminated a journey that occupied him twenty-one months in Italy and Sicily: he has brought home more than thirty boxes of minerals and other valuable articles collected in those countries. M. Lescchenault de Latour has sent from Pondicherry, a young elephant, living; an antelope, a shoot of the cocoa-tree, a large black squirrel, and a large box containing specimens of plants and seeds. M. Plée, a naturalist in the service of government, is on his journey to Porto Rico. M. Augustus L. Hilaire has given information of his having completed the hazardous and laborious expedition that he had undertaken in South America. M. Milbert, naturalist and draughtsman in natural history, who had been obliged by the state of his health to quit the company of Capt. Baudin, during his expedition in the South, is at present in North America, as correspondent of the Museum: in the space of three years he has sent over fifteen consignments of rare and interesting objects; among them are a bison, several deer of uncommon species, and other living animals never before seen in France. In compliance with the request of the professors in the Royal Botanic Garden, the minister of the marine has nominated M. de Sauvigny to repair to Senegal in quality of botanic agriculturist.

The Amphitheatre faces the garden on the left side. Here the lectures are delivered. The forms of the lecture-room are all constructed in semi-circles, and rise regularly one above another. In the centre below stands the lecturer. There is in the same building a chemical laboratory. The museum is open to the public on stated days, from three o'clock till seven in summer; and from three o'clock till the end of the day in winter. The menagerie is open from eleven o'clock till one; and from three till five. Most of the professors and officers have a free residence in buildings belonging to this museum. The professors deliver public lectures in rotation, during the summer months. The other officers are a principal and sub-librarians, two keepers of the gallery for natural history, a gardener, and a secretary.

Athenæum of Arts, Rue St. Honoré.—This society was instituted in 1792, during the dreadful convulsions of the Revolution; and has uniformly maintained that prudence and moderation, in the course of its most active labours, which should ever characterize the proceedings of the friends of science and the arts. The destructive fire at the Circus, in the garden of the Palais Royal, where this institution held its sittings, compelled its removal to the Oratory of St. Honoré. It embraces every scientific and literary topic; but its principal object is the encouragement of the arts and manufactures. Medals and crowns are distributed to the authors of useful discoveries. No institution has more benefited society, or acquired higher or better-deserved reputation.

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The labours of the society are divided into six classes, to the consideration of each of which particular days are devoted. Literature and political economy occupy the Tuesday; the pleasing and fine arts are discussed on Wednesday; and the mathematics and physics on Thursday.

Royal Athenæum of Paris, Rue de Valois.—The programme of this institution, just published for the year 1820, assumes that the Society is now in the 36th year of its establishment, under the successive names of Museum, Lyceum, and Athenæum. It has weathered all the storms of the Revolution, having never suspended its labours or ceased to be frequented. It was established in 1784, by the unfortunate Pilatre de Rozier, under the title of the "First Museum." The extensive patronage which this infant society received, induced the most eminent men in every department of science to unite themselves to it. It then assumed the name of "Lyceum;" and it was at this period that La Harpe first read his admired lectures on general literature, and Delille occasionally recited his exquisite verses. It was afterwards called the "Athenæum of Paris;" but now the "*Royal Athenæum*," for every thing is *royal* at present.

There are three distinct halls: one for conversation and society, another for reading, and a third for the ladies. All the journals and principal periodical works are taken in; and there is a well-furnished library, and a cabinet of natural history, mineralogy, and chemistry.

Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers, Conservatory of useful Machines; Rue St. Martin.—Few museums are more interesting, none more instructive or valuable, than this. It is an immense collection of all the machines invented by French genius and industry, in every kind of manufactory, and every branch of art. It is a collection peculiar and highly creditable to the metropolis of France, and cannot fail of being productive of the most beneficial effects. It undoubtedly has diffused through France a knowledge of mechanics, and a skilful adaptation of the simplest implements to the most complicated purposes, unknown in every neighbouring country.

The first apartment of this spacious conservatory contains specimens of spinning-jennies, and wheels, and carding-mills, employed in the manufacture of cotton thread. They are simple and ingenious; but valuable improvements on them have been recently introduced into the British manufactories.

The second apartment is chiefly filled with the inventions of Vaucanson, the prince of French mechanics. The traveller will particularly notice the enormous machine for spinning cotton. It was much celebrated at its first invention, but the English and German artists have simplified its construction. A more pleasing, but not equally striking object, is the machine for unravelling the web of the silk-worm. Various looms for weaving tapestry and embroidery on stuffs and silks are likewise exhibited. The inhabitants of Lyons having treated some of these inventions with undeserved neglect, Vaucanson attached an ass to one of the looms, who executed a piece of tapestry infinitely superior to any thing which the most skilful Lyonesse manufactures could produce. A pattern of it is shown. Here are also shown the tools which Vaucanson used in the construction of his machines. The one employed for making iron-chains is so simple, that a workman, in less than half an hour, may begin to use it. The strength of man is increased an hundred-fold by such inventions.

In addition to these collections, there is an immense number of machines relative to agricultural labours, such as draining, irrigation, preparation of oil according to the Dutch process, the ingenious machines with which paper-money has been fabricated; among which is the mechanical arithmetician, or marker, of Richer, which, by a single motion of a printing-press, performs all the changes of numbers, in the natural order of the cyphers, from 1 to 9999.

The hall which is next entered is of a different description. It is devoted to improvements in architecture, and contains models of public and private buildings of every description, beautifully executed in wood and ivory.

The stranger is next introduced into the church of the ancient priory. It is principally filled with hydraulic machines. Among them is the ingenious and simple contrivance of Montgolfier, to raise water, commonly called his Ram. Different kinds of fire-engines are next in succession, with some interesting models of fire-ladders and fire-escapes. Numerous mills and ploughs fill the remaining part of the church; but the improvements which the English have made in the latter, have left the boasted agriculture of France far behind.

The traveller is next shown models of every vessel of earthen or stone ware, as appropriated to economical or culinary purposes. To these succeed an infinite variety of lamps, of every form and principle. That which is known in London by the name of the *hydrostatic lamp* was copied from one preserved here. In another lamp the oil is curiously raised by clock-work. The shades of the lamps, of many different materials, and of an endless variety of patterns, will amuse and please. The embellishments on some of them are executed with inimitable taste and elegance.

The steam-engines next succeed; but the Englishman who has seen the grand improvements of Watt and Bolton, will scarcely deem them worth his notice. Numerous syphons, and contrivances for decanting liquors, are ingenious.

The implements of agriculture are now once more brought under review. A great variety of ploughs, harrows, clumsy threshing and winnowing machines, and wine-presses, offer themselves in long succession, interspersed with models of pales, fences, gates, &c. &c.

The next division possesses considerable interest. It is a long range of grates, stoves, chimneys, and furnaces, of various constructions, and on almost every principle. Among these is a model of the kitchen of St. Marie, an hospital at Florence, where twelve pots are boiled, and meat is roasted on three spits, all at the same time, with a very small fire.

A handsome staircase conducts to numerous apartments above. The first object which presents itself is an immense model of the machine of Marli. To this succeeds a long range of models, superior in interest to any thing which the traveller has yet seen. It is a display of every kind of art and manufacture. Small houses, resembling the buildings in which the manufactures are usually carried on, are open in front, and exhibit in their different apartments the various implements and machines employed in each and every stage of the business, from the first operation on the rough material, to its transformation into some elegant or useful article. Nothing can be conceived more pleasing, instructive, and useful, than this. No young person should visit Paris without devoting one or two mornings to the Conservatory, and especially to this division of it. From the most complicated and important manufactory, to the shop of the carpenter, and the forge of the blacksmith, every thing is perfect; not the most insignificant tool is omitted, nor one process forgotten.

Having satisfied his curiosity here, if indeed one or many visits can satisfy it, the stranger is conducted to the models of telegraphs, pile-engines, waggons, carts, carriages of every kind, windlasses, and boats.

Next follow specimens of China, earthenware, and glass; numerous varieties of paper, coloured, stamped, or beautifully cut; types, letters, ornaments for printing and book-binding; contrivances for remedying deficiencies or distortions in the human shape; artificial legs, arms, and eyes; more cotton and silk machines, with a superb and matchless assortment of ribands and silks, not interesting merely to the female visiter, but a pleasing object to every eye; fans of mother-of-pearl and steel; models

to facilitate the study of perspective; models of pulpits, objects of much importance in every French religious edifice; balances of every description; turning-lathes, with exquisite specimens of their effects; thermometers, barometers, magnets, and bronze ornaments; watches, chronometers, and clocks, of every construction. One clock is much admired; it sets in motion an organ, and has on its top an armillary sphere, with a small orrery in the centre, beautifully displaying the motions of every planet.

Every Frenchman is compelled to deposit in this museum a model of all the instruments or machines which he may invent or improve, with a detailed account of their construction and use, and the whole process of the manufactories in which they are employed.

In one of the halls is a superb library, containing every publication, in every language, on the different subjects connected with this excellent institution; and, to render the establishment yet more useful, lectures are delivered by the ablest professors, on geometry and natural philosophy, as applied to the arts and construction of machines, and the processes of different manufactures. These lectures, however, are confined to pupils, who are recommended by the minister of the interior.

The Conservatory is open to the public on Sunday and Thursday, from ten to four; but foreigners are admitted every day, except Friday and Saturday, on producing their passports. This museum was religiously respected during the occupation of Paris by the allies.

Museum of Artillery, Rue de l'Université.—This is the dépôt of every machine invented for the destruction of human beings. It likewise contains a valuable collection of the different kinds of armour used in every period of French history. Among them is the complete armour of Joan of Arc, Godfrey de Bouillon, Francis I. Louis XI. Henry IV. and Louis XIV. Admittance may be obtained on Sunday from eleven until two, by written application to the director.

The Royal Observatory, Rue St. Jacques.—This building was erected by Perrault, under the great Colbert, in 1667. Its exterior is grand, and its aspect imposing. The simplicity of its design, and the harmony of its parts, announce a public edifice of the first order, though erected on a superficies too contracted.

The principal mass is a square with octagonal towers at two of the angles, and a projecting building on the opposite side. It stands exactly north and south, and a meridional line runs through the great hall. It is completely vaulted throughout, and has neither wood nor iron in its whole construction. In this edifice is preserved a circular universal chart, designed upon the pavement of one of the large chambers by Chazelle and Sédillan. There is, also, particularly deserving of notice, a geometrical staircase, which leaves a vacuity or well, 170 feet deep, at the bottom of which the heavenly bodies are visible at noon-day. It was constructed to measure the acceleration of falling bodies. Connected with this well are a series of caverns for experiments on congelation, &c. They communicate with the subterranean galleries formed under Paris by the ancient quarries. Many of the stalactites, formed by the water filtering through the rocks, are of an enormous size, and very beautiful. It is dangerous to enter these caverns without a guide. Three astronomers are always resident on the spot, who have access to a complete astronomical library, and who are furnished with a superb astronomical apparatus.

In addition to this grand observatory, there are five others of considerable consequence, namely, in the Royal College; at the Hotel Cluny; at the Pantheon; at the Military School; and at the former monastery of the Capuchin Friars, in the Rue St. Honoré.

This place commands a fine view of the palace and garden of the Luxembourg.

UNIVERSITÉ ROYALE DE FRANCE: Rue de Bourbon.—The Royal University is indebted for its origin to the illustrious Charlemagne. It was suppressed in 1792, but has

has since been re-established on a more extensive plan. It consists of four colleges, viz. of Theology, Law, Medicine, and the Sciences. These colleges are situated in different parts of the city, but their principal sittings are held, most of their examinations passed, and their degrees conferred, here. The royal university is charged also with the superintendence of the business of education in every department of France; nor can any school or place of instruction be established without its authority. The Colleges of the University are situated in the following places:

Faculté de Théologie, Faculty or College of Theology; Rue St. Jacques.—Six professors are established here, who give lectures on logic; on ethics; on ecclesiastical history and church-discipline; on Hebrew; on the study of the scriptures; and, on pulpit-eloquence.

Faculté de Droit, College of Law; Place St. Geneviève.—The Doric portal of this beautiful building has a majestic appearance. The interior is commodiously distributed into numerous spacious halls, where seven professors stately lecture: one on the Roman law; four on civil law; one on the Practice of the Courts; and one on the Laws of Commerce. Every student must regularly attend during two years to obtain the degree of bachelor; three years for that of licentiate; and four for that of doctor.

Ecole de Chirurgie, School of Medicine and Surgery; Faubourg St. Germain.—This noble edifice consists of four buildings, enclosing a spacious court. The façade towards the street presents a peristyle of four ranks of colossal Ionic pillars, supporting an attic, which contains the library and the cabinet of anatomy. Above the peristyle is a bas-relief, thirty-one feet in length, in which the Government is represented, accompanied by Minerva and Generosity, offering the Plan of the Surgical School to Hygeia, the goddess of Health, attended by Vigilance and Prudence. Five medallions display the portraits of the famous Petit, Marechal, Pitard, Lapeyronie, and Paré. The paintings which decorate the interior, are from the pencil of Gibelin; and the amphitheatre is capable of containing 1200 persons. The theatre is at the bottom of the court. In the two wings are spacious halls for demonstrations, and for the meetings of the members of the college. The ornaments of some of these are characteristic, and well executed.

This is the first medical school in France, and probably in Europe. It has one peculiar advantage, that not only the morbid and healthy anatomy of the frame are demonstrated by dissections, not only the most excellent lectures are delivered on the various diseases to which the body is subject; but an hospital is attached to the institution, into which those who labour under rare or peculiarly interesting diseases are gratuitously received. Chaussier and Duméril lecture on anatomy and physiology; Deyeux and Vauquelin, on medical chemistry and pharmacy; Hallé and Desgenettes, on the philosophy of medicine; Percy and Richerand, on external pathology; Pinel and Bourdier, on internal pathology; Jussieu and Richard, on medical natural history and botany; Pelletan, Boyer, Corvisart, and Leroux, give clinical lectures; Leroi and Desormaux lecture on midwifery; Sué, on forensic medicine; and Thillaye, on the materia medica, and the use of instruments.

A branch of this institution, but confined more to the practice of physic than surgery, is in Rue de la Bucherie.

Another branch, confined principally to pharmacy, is in Rue de l'Arbalète, (Cross-how-Street.) Lectures are delivered here, during the spring and summer, on botany, chemistry, and pharmacy. All apothecaries, practising in Paris or the departments, must obtain a diploma from this school. The examinations are said to be impartial, yet severe. The botanical garden is open every day except Sunday, and is worth visiting.

We are told in the newspapers, that the king, by an ordonnance issued on the 20th of December, 1820, has instituted a "Royal Academy of Medicine," which is to

be divided into three branches, physic, surgery, and pharmacy. We suppose it to be only an extension, or re-christening, of the above college, or faculty, of the Royal University. It is added, that a certain number of foreigners are to be admitted as associates in these three branches.

Faculté des Lettres et Sciences, College of Letters and Sciences; Rue St. Jacques.—The first division of this college boasts of some of the most illustrious names in the republic of letters. Boissonnade now lectures on Greek literature; Guérout and Delaplace, on Latin eloquence; Lemaire, on Latin poetry; De Guerle and Laye, on French eloquence and poetry; Laramiguière, on philosophy; Roger-Collard and Millon, on the history of philosophy; Lacretelle and Guizot, on ancient and modern history; and Barbier du Bocage, on geography.

COLLEGE ROYAL de FRANCE, the Royal College; Place Cambray.—Francis I. established this seminary in 1531. Many students are gratuitously educated here; and public and gratuitous lectures are daily delivered. This institution can boast of the erudite Ramus, the indefatigable Daubenton, the chemist Fourcroy, and formerly of the poet Delille, among its professors. Delambre now lectures on astronomy; Mauduit, on geometry; Biot, on physics; Portal, on anatomy; Thenard, on chemistry; and Cuvier, on natural history.

Ecole Militaire, the Military School.—This building occupies a vast space near the Invalids, in the plain of Grenelle. Its principal entrance towards the city is on the square of Fontenoy. The grand façade is opposite to the Champ de Mars and the bridge of Jena. It was erected in 1751 by Louis XV. under the superintendence of the architect Gabriel. Two courts, the first of which is 420 feet square, and the second 270 feet, and surrounded by an arcade, supported by clustered Doric columns, conduct to the principal front towards the square of Fontenoy. In the centre a projecting building of the Corinthian order presents itself, with eight columns sustaining an entablature. Two pediments, painted in fresco by M. Gibelin, in imitation of bas-relief, have considerable effect. That on the right represents two athletes, one of whom is stopping a furious horse; the other contains an allegorical figure of Application, surrounded by the attributes of the arts and sciences. The façade towards the Champ de Mars has likewise a projecting building in the centre, composed of Corinthian columns, surmounted by an entablature decorated with bas-reliefs, and accompanied by pedestals supporting trophies of arms and statues. The dome has a large and curious fun-dial. The figures of Time and Astronomy at the base have been much admired. In the council-chamber are four paintings, representing the battles of Fontenoy and Lafelt, and the sieges of Tournay and Fribourg. Three paintings hang over the portal, representing the sieges of Menin, Ypres, and Furnes. The other parts of the edifice and the gardens are in a very simple and pleasing style.

This institution was appropriated to the instruction of young men of good family, but who were either possessed of small fortune, or whose fathers had fallen in the service of their country. It long served as a barrack for the imperial guard; but it has been restored to its original and benevolent destination by Louis XVIII.

In the area of the *Champ de Mars*, in front of this building, twenty thousand soldiers can be exercised at once; and all the inhabitants of Paris might be spectators from the rising banks which form a kind of amphitheatre. A double row of trees, which extends from the Military School to the river Seine, lines its outside and inside. Here Louis XVI. took the oath to preserve the constitution, in the presence of six hundred thousand persons, on the 14th of July 1790; and here also was exhibited the celebrated *Champ de Mai*, during Napoleon's second usurpation, in 1815.

Ecole Polytechnique, the Polytechnic School; Rue de la Montagne.—This school, which holds the most distinguished

guished rank among the establishments of Paris, is intended to complete the education of the students who have rendered themselves conspicuous in other institutions, and particularly to form them for the artillery, or to train them up as engineers. No officer is admitted into the artillery who has not been educated in the Polytechnic School. The most distinguished masters in every branch of science are employed by the government. Every year a certain number of scholars are admitted, after undergoing the most rigorous examination in the classics, the mathematics, mechanics, and drawing.

The number of pupils amounts to 300. The usual course of study is three years. The school possesses an excellent philosophical and chemical apparatus, and a well-selected library containing 10,000 volumes. Government pays all the expenses of instruction, but 800 francs per annum are required from every pupil for his board and lodging.

Ecole Royale des Ponts et Chaussées, Royal School of Bridges and Roads; Rue Ste. Catherine.—Eighty pupils, selected from the Polytechnic School, are here taught every branch of science connected with the construction of bridges, canals, harbours, roads, and public edifices. The museum contains a noble collection of plans, charts, and models.

Ecole Royale Gratuite de Dessin, Royal free Drawing-School; Rue de l'Ecole.—This unique but useful establishment was founded by M. Bachelier, in 1767. Its purpose is to diffuse scientific principles among the lower classes of mechanics. Fifteen hundred persons often assemble here. Medals are distributed every month, and prizes every year. There are lectures every Monday on practical geometry, arithmetic, and admeasurement; every Thursday on architecture; Tuesdays and Fridays on the proportions of the human figure and of animals; and Wednesdays and Saturdays on ornamental architecture.

In the Rue de Touraine, there is a school particularly appropriated to teaching young women to draw. This is also at the expense of the government; and there is an annual exhibition of the best performances, and medals are distributed to the deserving.

Ecole des Mines, School of Mineralogy.—This institution is situated in the principal court of the Mint. It was begun in 1778, with the collection of the famous chemist Le Sage, who spent forty-three years in this particular pursuit. The centre of the cabinet, contains an amphitheatre capable of receiving two hundred persons. Large cases with glass doors enclose specimens of all the minerals, scientifically arranged. Four other cases, placed in compartments between the pillars, display various models of curious machines. One of the cabinets encloses the analysis of every specimen. Upon the first landing-place of the staircase conducting to the gallery, is a bust of Monf. Le Sage, which was consecrated by the gratitude of his pupils. This gallery is surrounded with cases containing specimens of minerals, far too numerous to be placed in due order after those which are ranged in the lower cabinets. The cupola, which rises above, is finely enriched with painted pannels, and decorated with gilding. The interior of this museum is 45 feet long, 38 feet wide, and 40 feet in height. This splendid museum was untouched by the allies. The collection of medals, one of the most perfect that France contained, has been removed to the Royal Library.

At this school twenty pupils are admitted; they are instructed in every art connected with metallurgy and the working of mines. Vauquelin is the inspector of the laboratory, and Haüy the superintendant of the minerals. Public lectures are delivered during five months, on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, at noon; beginning in November.

Ecole Royale Vétérinaire d'Alfort, Royal Veterinary School.—This excellent institution was founded by Bourgelet in 1766, and has since been peculiarly and deservedly fostered by government. Every department may send

three pupils, and every regiment of cavalry one, who are boarded and instructed at the expense of government; but numerous pupils are sent to the college at the expense of their friends.

This institution is the noblest of the kind in Europe, and is conducted on principles which tend more to the improvement of the art than the emolument of the professors. Lectures are delivered, by seven of the most eminent teachers, on the anatomy and physiology of every domestic animal, the treatment of their diseases, and their management in the field and the stable; natural history, botany, pharmaceutical chemistry, the materia medica, the operations of the forge, veterinary jurisprudence, and the theory and practice of rural economy. A residence of five years is required before the student is authorized to practise as a veterinary surgeon.

The school contains a most valuable cabinet of natural history and comparative anatomy, admittance to which may be easily obtained.

Ecole Normale, Rue des Postes.—This singular and useful establishment has for its object to train up proper persons as professors in the different colleges, and instructors in the various seminaries of France. The course of study is exceedingly severe, and is adapted to elucidate the talent of the pupil for communicating as well as receiving instruction.

Lyceums.—There are four Lyceums, or public schools, in which the pupils enjoy a complete course of collegiate education: Lycée Louis-le-Grand, Rue St. Jacques; Lycée Henry IV. Place St. Geneviève; Lycée Bourbon, Chaussée d'Antin; Lycée Charlemagne, Rue St. Antoine. The pupils pay 1000 francs per annum; and, at a yearly meeting of the scholars of all the Lyceums, numerous prizes are awarded.

Beginning at the Palais des Beaux Arts, which is the seat of the Royal Academy, we have been induced to include under that head as it were, our account of all the principal institutions for the promotion of science and literature. We shall now conclude our enumeration of public buildings.

PALAIS d'ÉLYSÉE BOURBON, Rue St. Honoré.—This palace, remarkable for its luxurious elegance, was built by the comte d'Evreux in 1718. Madame de Pompadour afterwards possessed it. It next became the appointed residence of the foreign ambassadors extraordinary. In 1773, it was purchased by the financier Beaujon, who considerably embellished it; and shortly after it came into the possession of Madame de Bourbon.

During the early years of the Revolution, the government printing-office was established in this palace. It afterwards belonged to Murat, who yielded it to Bonaparte, to whom it owes all the decorations of the interior. During the first visit of the allied monarchs, it was the residence of the emperor of Russia. On the return of Bonaparte from Elba it became his favourite abode, and it received him after his escape from the fatal field of Waterloo. At his final departure, it became the habitation of his conqueror; the duke of Wellington established himself there. It is now the residence of the duke of Bourbon.

PALAIS de la LEGION d'HONNEUR, formerly Hotel de Salm; Rue de Bourbon.—The Hotel de Salm, built a little before the Revolution, was one of the most elegant edifices which Paris contained. Its only defect was, that it resembled some public building rather than the house of an individual. The purpose to which it is now devoted has completely removed this objection. Towards the Rue de Bourbon it presents a triumphal arch, flanked by a colonnade of the Ionic order, terminated by two handsome lodges. This encloses a spacious court, at the bottom of which is the grand front of the palace. It consists of a noble portico of the Corinthian order, on each side of which is a colonnade of the Ionic order. The principal saloon rises in the form of a rotunda, the cupola of which is enriched with some exquisite paintings, descriptive

scriptive of the establishment of the legion; and round the saloon will be placed the statues of those deceased members who may be deemed worthy of that distinction. The apartments are adorned with elegant simplicity.

In the Rue Barbette, there is a Royal Establishment for the Orphan Daughters of the Legion of Honour, in which 300 females, daughters of the officers, are educated by nuns.

PALAIS des THERMES, Palace of the Warm Baths; Rue de la Harpe.—Let not our reader be surprised that we rank this little, but precious, relique of antiquity, among the palaces of the metropolis. Inconsiderable as it now appears, it was once the residence of the Roman emperors, and in later times the chosen habitation of the kings of France. It is supposed to have been built and inhabited by Julian the Apostate about the year 357. There remains only a noble hall roofed by a lofty arch, much admired by the antiquary. The arch, like those of all the Roman buildings, is composed of bricks and stone, cemented by a mortar which modern ingenuity has not yet equalled. For many revolving ages it has supported a garden, the mould of which is at least four feet thick; and, although this has been constantly moistened by the rain, and by artificial means, not the least damp has yet penetrated the vault. Beneath is a double row of caves, or vaults, nine feet in diameter, the intention of which is not known. These ruins were lately occupied by a cooper, as noticed at p. 447, but have been purchased by the French government for the reception of the monuments of antiquity, from the Petits Augustins.

The **HOTEL de VILLE**, or Town Hall; Place de Greve.—This edifice was begun in 1533, after the designs of an Italian architect named Boccadoro, sometimes called Cortona: it was not completed till the year 1606. It is regular in its architecture, convenient for the purpose for which it was designed, and rich in beauty and ornament. An equestrian statue of Henry IV. in bas-relief, is placed over the principal entrance; but that entrance is far too small for the great extent of the Hotel. The apartments are extensive, handsome, and commodious. The clock is a very celebrated piece of mechanism. The Hotel de Ville is worthy the traveller's attention, on account of its antiquity, and the extraordinary scenes which it has witnessed. When the king was brought from Versailles, he was exhibited to the populace from one of the windows of this mansion. Hither Robespierre retreated after he had been outlawed. In front of the Hotel de Ville is the famous lamp-iron; and within the building is preserved the still more celebrated guillotine.

The **Place de Grève**, in front of this building has been used for magnificent fêtes. It is also the appointed scene of public executions; and its name revives the most odious recollections. It is painful to learn that innocent blood was the first that flowed here: an unhappy female heretic named Margaret Porette, scarcely thirty years old, was burnt here in 1310, for having written, "that the soul, absorbed in God, is at the height of every virtue, and has nothing more to do; and, that when a certain degree of virtue is attained, one cannot go beyond it." Previously to this execution, criminals were put to death in the market-places, which still participated, for more than a century, with La Grève, the miserable prerogative of scaffolds. Here were decapitated, in 1398, the two Augustin monks, who had engaged, for a large remuneration, and on the penalty of their lives, to cure Charles VI. of an incurable malady with which he was struck. The two friars lost their heads; and the king did not recover his own senses. The last execution which took place in a market place, in 1477, was that of the unhappy duke of Nemours, whose children, placed on the scaffold by order of the cruel Louis XI. were covered with the blood of their father. Since that epoch, every sentence

of death passed at Paris has been executed at the Place de Grève, except those ordered by military tribunals.

The **Church of St. Gervais** is near the Place de Grève.—The portal to this church, which is the object that principally deserves the traveller's attention, was rebuilt by Louis XIII. in 1616. Some critics have censured the distribution of minuter parts: but the happy union of the Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian, orders, the immense span of the arches, and the character of boldness, yet severity, which prevails, must produce a pleasing impression on the mind. The interior of this building is in harmony with the purpose for which the edifice was erected. The little chapel of the Virgin, apparently suspended from the roof of the church, is an object of much curiosity.

HOTEL des MONNAIES, the Mint.—Till the year 1771, Paris was destitute of a Mint worthy of the capital of a great nation. The ancient edifice which was appropriated to that purpose, and which was situated in the street that now bears its name, opposite to the Pont Neuf, was in ruins. The architect Antoine was appointed to construct a new building on the site of the ancient Hotel Conti. The Hotel des Monnaies was erected, and it forms one of the noblest ornaments of the banks of the Seine. The principal front towards the quay is 360 feet long, and 84 in height. It is ornamented by a projecting building, formed by six Ionic columns, placed on a sub-basement of five arcades. A grand entablature crowns the whole length of the edifice. The projecting building is surmounted by an attic, on which are six detached figures, representing Law, Prudence, Fortitude, Commerce, Abundance, and Peace. The front towards the Rue Guenegaud offers an attic on a sub-basement, of the same height as the preceding. On a projecting building in the centre are figures representing the four Elements. The chief entrance to the Mint is formed of a superb vestibule, ornamented by twenty-four Doric columns. On the right is a magnificent staircase, decorated by sixteen Ionic columns, and conducting to the principal halls.

The Salle des Balanciers is distinguished by four columns of the Tuscan order, which support its vault, and at the end of which is a statue of Fortune by M. Mouchi. The upper apartment of the same size contains places for a hundred *ajusteurs*. The Moulins à Laminage are in another room contiguous to that of the balanciers. The entrance to the chapel is underneath one of the arcades on the right of the court: this chapel receives most of its light by a small cupola in the centre ornamented with caissons.

Every branch belonging to coining is performed within the circuit of this building. Here is also a kind of Assay-office for the gold and silver of Paris; and it is the seat of the Administration générale des Monnaies.

THE BANK, Rue de la Vrillière.—Francis Mansard built this hotel for the duke de la Vrillière. It was afterwards the property of the comte de Toulouse, and then of the duke de Penthièvre. When it was determined to fix the Bank of France here, the architect Delaunay was employed to prepare it for its new destination. He has neglected nothing for the security or convenience of this important establishment. The two figures upon the entablature represent Minerva and Mercury.

The Bank of France has, by the laws of the 14th of April, 1803, and of the 22d of April, 1806, the privilege of circulating bills, payable to the bearer, or at sight. This privilege was granted for forty years, to commence on the 23d September, 1803. According to these statutes, and the imperial decree of the 16th January, 1808, it has established houses for discounting in every town of the departments where the nature of the commerce requires them.

The currency of France is almost entirely metallic, there being only one bank, the circulation of which is, in a manner, confined to the metropolis; the branch

banks at Lyons and Rouen finding it very difficult to extend their issues. The Bank of France is a very solid establishment, possessing funds to the amount of 4,500,000*l.* while its paper in circulation seldom exceeds 3,000,000*l.* Though, on all permanent loans, the rate of interest in France is considerably higher than with us, being generally from 6 to 7 per cent, the bank discounts mercantile bills at so low a rate as 4 per cent. The discounting-days are Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, in each week. To be admitted to discount, and to have a running account, it is necessary to write to the governor, accompanied with a certificate signed by three well-known persons.

The amount of the metallic currency in France cannot be short of 90,000,000*l.* sterling; and saving-banks, *caisses d'épargne*, have been lately introduced. Another very laudable establishment is the

Mont de Piété, Rue des Blancs Manteaux.—Here small sums are advanced to the poorer classes at little interest, on the deposit of some security or property. It is open from nine till two, and from four to seven.

Its architecture is simple: the gate towards the street is surmounted by a large pediment, supported by two keys adorned with garlands. The hall on the side of the Rue Paradis, is sustained by Tuscan columns, which have a noble effect.

THE ROYAL PRINTING-OFFICE, formerly l'Hotel Soubise; Rue du Paradis.—This ancient hotel was the residence of the constable Oliver Clisson. It was then called the Hotel of Mercy, because, after a popular tumult, Charles VI. assembled the citizens, and converted the punishment of death, to which many of them were exposed, into a trifling pecuniary fine. It afterwards became the property of the dukes of Guise, whose name it bore until 1697. Francis de Rohan, prince de Soubise, then purchased it. In 1712, cardinal Rohan erected a new palace close to the former, which he called Hotel Cardinal. The front of this last hotel towards the court is very simple. On the garden side it is ornamented by Doric and Ionic columns, surmounted by an attic, and terminated by a pediment.

The front of the Hotel de Soubise is composed of sixteen columns of the Composite order, eight of which form a projecting building, surmounted by Corinthian pillars, and crowned by a pediment. The other eight columns support four statues, and some groups of infants by Le Lorrain. Above the pediment are two statues, representing Fortitude and Wisdom. The new court, of an elliptical form, is surrounded by a gallery of fifty-six Composite columns; over which are a terrace and a balustrade. The effect of the whole is unusually grand. The entrance is decorated, within and without, by double columns. The vestibule and staircase are large and beautiful, and ornamented with paintings by Brunetti.

The Hotel de Soubise is now appropriated to the reception of the archives of the city. The Hotel Cardinal is converted into the royal printing-office. The collection of types, of every age and character, is immense. It contains no less than 250 presses, and is well worthy the attention of strangers. During the reign of Napoleon, the pope visited this wonderful establishment, and the directors presented him with the Lord's Prayer printed in fifty different languages, and all of them struck off during his visit.

CHURCHES, CEMETERIES, &c.

There are thirty-nine parochial and other churches in Paris, in which there is solemn service twice every day, that is, at eight and ten o'clock in the morning, and evening service at three and five every Sunday and holiday; besides low masses every hour from six to twelve. On the week-days there are low masses only. Of these churches it will be sufficient to name those which are most remarkable for their antiquity or architectural beauty.

NOTRE DAME.—This celebrated cathedral, the mother-

church of France, is so surrounded with houses, that there is no spot from which it may be seen with advantage. It is the most ancient religious edifice in Paris. The episcopal see is also of the greatest antiquity, deriving its foundation from Denis, the tutelar saint of France. It was erected on the ruins of a temple consecrated to Jupiter, Castor, and Pollux, by the merchants of Paris, in the reign of Tiberius. Some ancient inscriptions to this effect were found in the beginning of the last century. This church was named after St. Denis till 522, when it was rebuilt under Childebert I. and dedicated to the Virgin Mary. The building of the present day derives its origin from the time of king Robert the Devout, about the year 1010; but some antiquaries date its foundation under Louis the Young about the year 1177.

Its architecture, although Gothic, possesses something so singular, so bold, and at the same time so delicate, that it has ever been esteemed one of the handfomest structures in the kingdom. It is 414 feet long, 144 wide, and 102 in height, without comprehending the space allotted to forty-five chapels, and the astonishing thickness of the wall. One hundred and twenty enormous columns, which support this edifice, form a double colonnade extending the whole length of the fabric. The western front presents a venerable portico, to which was formerly an ascent of thirteen steps. It contains three portals. The centre portal is of modern architecture; the other two are antique, and are remarkable for a multiplicity of ornaments in the style of the Lower Empire. The centre portal is likewise surrounded by innumerable decorations, but they are evidently of later date. Above them is a gallery, supported by columns, in the intervals of which are twenty-eight statues of the kings of France, from Childebert to Philip-Augustus. Over the side portals rise two immense towers, forty feet square, and two hundred and four in height. They command an extensive view of Paris and its environs, but their heavy appearance ill accords with the building to which they belong. Between these towers, and over the window that enlightens the nave, is a second gallery, supported by Gothic columns of exquisite delicacy. The whole of the exterior is surrounded by three galleries; the first over the chapel, the second above the internal galleries, and the third around the dome. These render almost every part of the structure easily accessible. This front is the subject of the annexed Plate.

The choir is truly superb. The modern ornaments of it were commenced by De Cotte, principal architect to the king, in 1669, and finished by his son in 1714. In the centre is a brazen eagle, seven feet high, and three feet from wing to wing. Two pilasters of wood at the entrance of the choir, adorned with grotesque sculpture, support two angels in bronze. The elegant stalls which line the two sides of the choir, are terminated by two of superb workmanship, appropriated to the archbishop. The wainscot is covered with numerous curious and well-executed bas-reliefs, representing the life of the Holy Virgin. The stalls are surmounted by a cornice of rich design, the upper part of which contains eight fine paintings, by the most celebrated masters of the French school: the Annunciation of the Virgin, by Hallé; the Visitation of the Virgin, the chef-d'œuvre of Jouvenet, who painted with his left hand after his right had become paralytic; the Birth of our Saviour, by Philip de Champagne; the Adoration of the Magi, by Lafosse; the Presentation of our Saviour in the Temple, by Louis Boullogne; the Flight into Egypt, by the same artist; the Presentation of the Virgin in the Temple, by Philippe de Champagne; and the Assumption of the Virgin, by Antoine Coyvel. The choir was formerly adorned with stone sculptures, representing the history of Genesis. On the outside, the history of the New Testament was described. A few grotesque figures yet remain, and show the extraordinary style in which these performances were executed.

Some



J. Chapman, Sc.

West Front of the Cathedral of Notre Dame.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, May 1821.

Some steps of Languedoc marble conduct to the sanctuary, the altar of which has been justly admired. It is three feet and eight inches long, three feet high, and stands on eight circular supporters of the same marble. In front are three bas-reliefs. That in the centre by Van-Cleve, represents Jesus Christ in the tomb; on each side are Angels in the attitudes of grief, by Desseine. The steps of the altar, which are of white marble sprinkled with golden stars, support six gilt candlesticks, nearly five feet in height. In the middle of a recess is a grating of gilt brass, on which is sculptured the Paschal Lamb. Above this is a gilded cross, more than seven feet high. The pavement is a rich mosaic, and the arches above are inlaid with white marble. The bottom of the sanctuary is occupied by a group representing the descent from the cross, in Carrara marble. It is the best work of the elder Coustou, and well merits the closest attention.

The devotee will not fail to inquire for the relics which this sanctuary contains. Among other inestimable treasures, a veritable portion of our Saviour's crown of thorns, and a piece of the true cross, are shown. The regalia of Charlemagne, and many gold and silver vases, are likewise exhibited.

The Chapel of St. Geneviève, on the right, has been lately repaired. The wainscot that now adorns it was taken from the ancient hall of the Chapter of Notre Dame, and was constructed about the beginning of the sixteenth century. It represents the apostles and some of the saints, separated by little pilasters tastefully ornamented. Under the tower, on the side of the cloister, is a tablet of stone sculptured in the sixteenth century, which describes, in a bold and striking manner, the universal judgment.

This noble edifice, prior to the Revolution, possessed much rich tapestry, stained-glass windows, tessellated pavements, magnificent monuments, and the most richly variegated shrines. Too many of these were, during the reign of anarchy, removed or destroyed. Every exertion has since been made to restore or replace them; and the church of Notre Dame is once more an object of curiosity to the traveller and the antiquary.

Adjoining to it is the Archiepiscopal Palace, a heavy building, which forms a strange contrast with the elegant structure of the cathedral. It is a curious circumstance, that, in the hall of this very palace, the National Assembly held that sitting at which all the possessions of the clergy were declared to be national property.

ABBAYE ROYALE de St. GERMAIN des PRÉS, Royal Abbey of St. Germain in the Fields.—This church was built by Childebert, in 558, on the ruins of an ancient temple of Isis. Nothing could be more magnificent than the interior decoration of this temple, built in the form of a Roman cross, 200 feet in length, 65 in breadth, and 59 high. It once contained some exquisite specimens of ancient sculpture, and a noble library of more than 100,000 volumes; but during the Revolution, it was shamefully pillaged and defaced. It is yet worthy of the traveller's attention, from the traces of true antiquity which it affords. It contains the remains of most of the ancient kings. The portal to the west has a majestic appearance; though, perhaps, it more resembles the entrance to a magnificent castle than a church. The principal altars are now re-established. Pope Pius VII. laid the first stone of the altar of the chapel of the Virgin behind the choir. The chapel of St. Marguerite is tastefully decorated; and the tones of one of the finest organs in Paris again resound along the fretted roof.

St. ETIENNE DU MONT; Rue Ste. Geneviève.—St. Geneviève, so celebrated in the French calendar, and whose name is intimately connected with the conversion of the first Parisian monarch, died in 512, and was buried in a chapel near this spot. The sanctuary which contained her remains was enriched by every succeeding monarch; and the Royal Abbey of St. Geneviève was founded in honour of the tutelary saint of Paris. The church of St. Etienne du Mont was afterwards erected as a chapel of

ease for the vassals of the royal abbey. To preserve it from the jurisdiction of the archbishop of Paris, it was built without any external door; and the only access to it was by a covered passage from the Abbey of St. Geneviève. When it was rebuilt in 1491, by Francis I. it yet retained this whimsical peculiarity; and it was not until 1610, that queen Marguerite, wife of Henry IV. constructed the present portico.

Of the Abbey of St. Geneviève, and its celebrated church, few vestiges remain; but this appendage to the grandeur of the ancient monastery has defied the ravages of time. Its architecture has been much admired. The front is peculiarly grand. It is composed of four banded Ionic pillars, supporting a triangular pediment; the ornaments of which, though a little confused, remind the spectator of the peculiar style of Roman architecture.

The interior of the church is remarkable for its boldness and singularity. It is a strange, yet not unpleasing, mixture of the Greek, the Gothic, and the Arabic. Behind the choir, on a platform supported by four pillars of the Tuscan order, is a new shrine, in the form of a Gothic church, containing the relics of St. Geneviève. In one of the side-chapels is the ancient tomb of this saint. In this church also were buried the venerable Pascal, the poet Racine, the painter Le Sueur, and the botanist Tournefort; but the place of their sepulture is not distinguished by the slightest monumental inscription.

Over the altar is the Martyrdom of St. Stephen, by Le Brun.

A library occupies the upper part of the ancient Abbey of St. Geneviève, and contains 80,000 printed volumes, and 2000 manuscripts. It is in the form of a cross, lighted by a small dome in the centre, the cupola of which was painted by Restout the elder in 1730. It delineates the Apotheosis of St. Augustine. The painting at one extremity of the building is by Lejoux, and forms a complete illusion. Many busts of eminent men, from the chisel of Girardon, Coysevox, Coustou, and other sculptors, ornament this library. At the entrance of the Cabinet of Antiques is a plan of the city of Rome, in relief, and coloured, the work of Grimani, in 1776. This library is open every day from ten o'clock till two.

St. LOUIS and St. PAUL; Rue St. Antoine.—This church is in the form of a Roman cross, with a dome in the centre. Its portal is lofty, and composed of three rows of columns above each other: two are Corinthian, and one Composite. A profusion of ornament, employed without regularity of taste, offends the eye of the connoisseur, and does little credit to the skill of the architect. Marble, silver, and gold, are employed with boundless prodigality in the decoration of the grand altar and the chapels. On the right of the sanctuary was the heart of Louis XIII. enclosed in a heart of gold, supported by two angels of silver, modelled by Sarrazin. On the left was that of Louis XIV. supported likewise by two angels, the workmanship of Coustou. This last monument cost 600,000 francs. Near the place where these stood, was a mausoleum, less rich, but remarkable for the propriety of its design and the delicacy of its execution. It was destined to receive the hearts of the heroes of the house of Condé. Sarrazin modelled the ornaments, and Persan cast the figures. Not far distant were the tombs of the princes of the house of Bouillon. Numerous paintings of the French and Italian schools once enriched this temple, and caused it (like St. Germain l'Auxerrois) to resemble a superb museum, constantly thronged by strangers and artists. Few of these have survived the ravages of the Revolution.

St. MERRY; Rue St. Martin.—A chapel existed here in the sixth century, dedicated to St. Peter. It afterwards took the name of St. Merry, who was here interred. The present building was erected in 1520. Its architecture is Gothic; and, although it does not often excite attention by its exterior, its interior is most splendidly ornamented. The choir was decorated with much taste by the brothers Slodtz, in the last century. It is covered with stucco resembling

sembling marble, and enriched with much gilding. At the bottom of the sanctuary is a Glory, which has a pleasing and even sublime effect.

In the Chapel of the Communion is a noble painting of the Pilgrims at Emmaus, by Coypel. The chapels in the transept contain some interesting paintings; particularly St. Merry, by Vouet; the Virgin and Infant Jesus, and St. Charles, by Carlo Vanloo; and St. Peter by Restout. On the left is a descent which conducts to a subterranean chapel.

EGLISE de la MADELAINE, Rue Royale.—This church which was to have been named "The Temple of Glory," and dedicated to those who died while fighting their country's battles, was begun before the Revolution, then taken down, and afterwards restored. It is mentioned here on account of its singular form, and bad architecture. It resembles a tower, surmounted by a spherical dome sixty-two feet in diameter. The cupola forms an unpleasing termination to the tower; and, when viewed from the top, its height gives it more the appearance of a well, than a skilfully proportioned building.

St. EUSTACHE, Parish Church of the Third Municipality.—This vast edifice offers a strange mixture of the Arabian and Greek architecture. The columns which support the interior are altogether without proportion. When the traveller compares their lightness with their height, he trembles lest they should yield to the superincumbent weight. The front is of modern architecture. It consists of the Ionic and Doric orders above each other, crowned in the centre by a small triangular pediment, with (formerly) two square towers at the extremities. One of these towers is now demolished. This church suffered much from revolutionary anarchy; but most of its valuable paintings and sculptures have been restored.

ABBEY du VAL de GRACE, Suburb of St. James.—This edifice, once appropriated to religious worship, is now converted into an hospital-magazine. The peculiar beauty of the structure is, however, carefully preserved. The marble pavement, and the paintings of the dome by Mignard, are uninjured. These last constitute the noblest work in fresco which France possesses. They contain more than 200 colossal figures, representing the glory of the saints in heaven. Molière has celebrated this performance of Mignard in a poem written expressly on the subject.

The edifice was destined to contain the hearts of the royal family of France, and particularly those of the house of Orleans, while their bodies rested in the cathedral of St. Denis. A beautiful enclosure in the chapel of the dome formerly contained more than thirty of these precious relics.

St. FRANÇOIS XAVIER, or the Church of the Foreign Missionaries; Rue de Bac.—The cure of this church is the superior of the seminary for the education of persons intended to spread the knowledge of the Gospel among the Indians. The building contains nothing remarkable but a fine painting, by Carlo Vanloo, representing the Adoration of the Magi.

La SORBONNE.—This chapel is degraded into an hospital. It was once much celebrated for its magnificence, but it is now rapidly becoming a mass of ruins.

St. ROCH, Parish Church of the Twelfth Municipality.—This edifice was begun by Mercier, in 1673, and not finished until 1736. The portico is composed of two orders of architecture, the Doric and Corinthian, supporting a triangular pediment, and is remarkable for its lightness and simplicity. In the interior of the church, a richness and lightness of ornament, almost theatrical, are substituted in the room of that grave and majestic style which should characterize a place of religious worship. Being placed in a part of the city principally inhabited by rich citizens, it was gradually filled with sculptures and paintings. It suffered much during the frenzy of the Revolution, and has not yet recovered its former splendour.

Behind the choir are three chapels. The first, dedica-

ted to the Virgin, is of a circular form, and its cupola ornamented by a magnificent painting in fresco, by Pierre: the Virgin appears to be surrounded by four distinct companies, consisting of the Patriarchs, the Prophets, the Holy Women of the Old Testament, and the Apostles and Martyrs of the New Covenant. The spectator deeply regrets the injuries which this sublime composition has received, the unity, arrangement, and execution, of which excite his warmest praise. The cupola of the second chapel describes the Triumphs of Religion, to which it is dedicated. Two small portals conduct to the third chapel, whose solemn style of architecture, whose obscurity, and the sombre tint of the walls, are calculated to impress the mind with religious awe. It contains a fine painting of the Crucifixion. The light falling on it from above, gives it a wonderful effect, and singularly contrasts it with the cavernous darkness of the chapel.

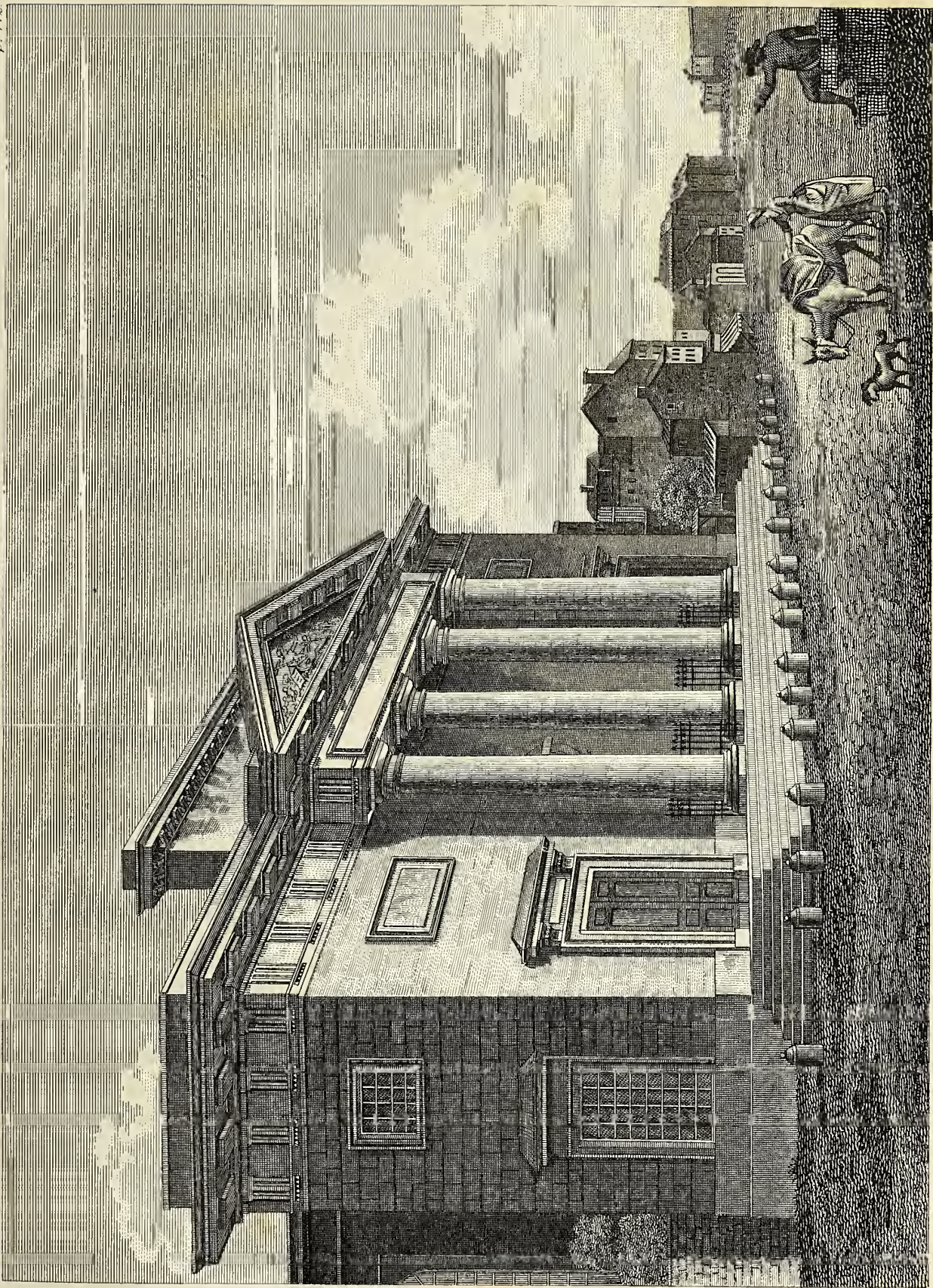
This church contains several other chapels. One on the right, covered with black marble spotted with white tears, announces that it was designed to receive the ashes of the dead. The philosopher Maupertuis lies here, with the celebrated Lenotre, to whom the principal gardens in France are indebted for all their beauty. The two statues, Augier, likewise repose in this asylum. To each of these a simple monument is erected; while the stranger is unable to repress his astonishment that not the slightest inscription records the talents of Corneille, who slumbers by the side of the painter Mignard. The steps and pillars of the portal bear the frightful impression of numerous musket and cannon balls, which were directed against the citizens of Paris on the fatal 13th of Vendémiaire.

St. PHILIPPE du ROULE, Parish of St. Madeleine.—This church will please from its simplicity, and its resemblance to the edifices of the ancient Christians. The portal is composed of four columns of the Doric order, surmounted by a triangular pediment. At the extremity of the peristyles are two chapels, dedicated to the Virgin and St. Philip, which were designed to support two towers. The arches of the roof are of wood, but painted in such close imitation of stone, that they cannot possibly be distinguished from it.

St. NICOLAS du CHARDONNET, Rue St. Victor.—This otherwise-pleasing church presents a strangely-unfinished appearance, from the want of a portal. It was richly decorated with the paintings of Lebrun, whose tomb constitutes its principal ornament.

St. JACQUES du HAUT PAS, Rue St. Jacques.—This church was built on the ruins of an ancient chapel, by Anne of Bourbon, duchess of Longueville, in 1684. Her heart was interred here. The ashes of the celebrated Cassini, and of the virtuous Cochin, the curé of this parish, who sold all his property, and even his library, to found an hospital for his indigent parishioners, repose here.

St. GENEVIEVE, Rue St. Jacques.—The church of St. Geneviève was begun in the year 1764. It is in the form of a cross, 340 feet long, and 250 broad. The portal, in imitation of that of the Pantheon at Rome, consists of a noble peristyle of twenty-two Corinthian columns. Each column is five feet and a half in diameter, and fifty-eight in height. The flowers of the chapiters are highly finished. These columns form a spacious porch, 112 feet in length, and 36 deep, crowned with a grand bas-relief, sculptured by Coustou. It is ornamented by four colossal statues, producing an imposing and grand effect. The front of the building within the porch unites the masculine air of the Gothic with the beauty of the Grecian architecture. The interior consists of four naves, decorated with 130 Corinthian columns, supporting an entablature, which serves as a basement to the galleries, skirted with stone balustrades. Above rises a lofty dome, resembling a circular temple, formed of fifty-two pillars, each fifty-four feet high, supported by a circular basement which rises above an octangular sub-basement. This dome is surmounted by another smaller; which, not being terminated by any figure or ornament, has a rather unpleasing appearance.



J. P. H. & Co.

Church of St. Philippe du Roule.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis.

appearance. The whole is surmounted by a terrace, protected by an iron balustrade. The total height of the building is 282 feet.

The bold and light style of the architecture, in which it was originally built, had nearly hazarded the destruction of the whole edifice. The pillars which supported the dome began to bend under its enormous weight; and it was only by sacrificing somewhat of its beauty, and introducing confusion into the style of the whole, that Rondelet was enabled to preserve it from ruin. He placed twelve new columns under the dome; and by the brightness of the gilding, and the beauty of the painting, very skilfully endeavoured to conceal the injury he was doing to the coup-d'œil of the edifice. The connoisseur will, however, perceive a disagreeable contrast between the original lightness of the naves and the massiveness of the centre of the building.

At the beginning of the Revolution, this magnificent building changed its name to The PANTHEON. A pedestal was fixed on the dome, which was intended to receive a colossal statue of Fame, twenty-eight feet high; and the interior was destined to receive the ashes of those who had deserved well of their country. The inscription in front was simple and sublime:

AUX GRANDS HOMMES, LA PATRIE RECONNAISSANTE.

Dedicated by a grateful Country to its illustrious Men.

The vaults are skilfully contrived; and are neither dark, damp, nor gloomy. They consist of galleries lined with cells. In these cells, all nearly of the same size, the bodies are deposited, each in a stone sarcophagus of exactly the same size and form. An inscription relates merely the name, the dignity, and age, of the deceased. Over the door of each cell is the cipher XP and the letters A and Ω.

We understand that the church of St. Genevieve has since recovered its original name, and is now in the course of being restored to its primitive use: the inscriptions, bas-reliefs, &c. are to be taken down; and it is said the bodies of Voltaire, Rousseau, &c. will not be permitted to remain.

The PROTESTANTS have four churches in Paris; and the JEWS have six synagogues.

RELIGIOUS COMMUNITIES.—There are eighteen religious communities or societies of females at Paris, whose principal employment is attending the sick at the hospitals, and the poor at their habitations, and in gratuitously instructing young females.

The convent of the Benedictines is in Rue du Regard; and that of the English Benedictines in Rue des Fossés St. Victor.

The Carmelites have three houses: Rue Maillet; Rue d'Enfer; and Rue de Vaugirard. The painted dome of the chapel of the last of these has been much admired. It represents the Transfiguration of the Prophet Elijah, by Bertholet Flamel. In this convent the cannibals of the 2d and 3d of September commenced their horrible massacres.

The Nuns of our Lady of Charity are in Rue St. Jacques. Their convent forms a species of female penitentiary, and is appropriated for the reception of those whom parental wisdom or caprice consigns to a temporary or lasting confinement and punishment.

The Dominicans are in Rue d'Angoulême and Rue Moreau. Their principal employment is the education of young ladies.

The interesting society of the Sisters of Charity, whose lives are devoted to assuage the pains and heal the diseases of the most miserable of their fellow-creatures, have their principal convent in Rue du Vieux Colombier.

MUSEUM OF FRENCH MONUMENTS, Rue des Petits Augustins.—During the phrenzy of the revolution, many churches were reduced to ruins; most of the monuments they contained were mutilated, and many of them destroyed. The tombs at St. Denis, in particular, were

torn up by the unhallowed hands of ignorant barbarian despoilers. When the body of Henry the Fourth was discovered, it was found in such a state of preservation, that the features of his face were not altered. It was a dry mummy; the skull had been sawed, and in the place of the brain, which had been taken out, contained some tow, steeped in an aromatic liquor, which sent forth a strong odour. A soldier, who was present, moved by a martial enthusiasm, at the instant of opening the coffin, threw himself on the body, and after a long silence of admiration, drew his sword, cut off a long lock from the beard, which was still fresh, and exclaimed at the same time, in a very energetic manner, "And I too am a French soldier! henceforth I will have no other mustachios." As he placed it on his upper lip, "Now," said he, "I am sure to conquer the enemies of France; I march to victory!" This flourish in favour of a beloved king was not, however, much relished by the *enfants de la patrie*, the excellent republicans, there assembled: the body was therefore presently set upright upon a stone, for the rabble to divert themselves with it; and a woman, reproaching the dead Henry with the crime of having been a king, knocked him down by a blow in the face; after which the corpse was left for some days to be the sport of these Yahoos, till it was thrown at last into the common pit prepared for the remains upon which their senseless vengeance had been exercised.

Louis XIV. was found in a state of perfect preservation, but entirely black. The body of Louis XV. was fresh, but red, lying bathed in a liquor formed by the dissolution of the salt with which it had been covered. In the coffin of Jeanne de Bourbon, wife of Charles V. a gilt distaff was found with the remains of a crown, bracelets, and embroidered shoes. The body of Louis VIII. was the only one which had been sewed up in leather: the leather was strong and thick, and retained all its elasticity; the body was almost consumed, as was the winding-sheet, but fragments of its gold embroidery were still existing. Dagobert and his queen Nanthildes were in one coffin with a partition between them. The workmen were long before they could discover the vault of Francis I. and his family: it contained six leaden coffins deposited upon bars of iron: in all these the remains were in a state of liquid putrefaction, which made its way through the lead as they were removed, and the odour was almost insupportable. The bodies of many of the latter Bourbons were also in a state of decomposition; and, when the coffins were opened, they are said to have emitted a thick black vapour, which, though vinegar and gunpowder were burnt to prevent ill consequences, affected the wretches employed in this inhuman work with fevers and diarrhoeas. Two large pits had been dug in front of the north entrance of the church, and quick-lime laid in them; into these pits the bodies were cast promiscuously, and the entrails, which had been deposited separately in leaden vessels; this lead and the leaden coffins were then carried to a furnace which had been erected in the cemetery, and cast into balls "destined to punish the enemies of the Republic;" and it was more than once proposed in the National Convention that the church itself should be totally destroyed!

The Convent of the Augustins, the Westminster Abbey of France, is the sanctuary in which were deposited those curious relics of ancient art which accidentally escaped, or were by artifice rescued, from the fatal effects of indiscriminate political fury; and it is to M. le Noir that we owe the collection, preservation, and admirable arrangement, of these interesting monuments of sculpture, brought together from all the churches and cathedrals of France. He has published an historical and chronological description of them, with a curious dissertation on the costume of each century.

The building which contains these monuments resembles a cathedral-cloister. It is encompassed by four walls; and has a garden, the funereal decorations of which are appropriate to the situation.

The monuments are distributed in different apartments; and, by their arrangement, exhibit the state of statuary in France from the earliest periods to the present time. They are arranged according to their respective antiquity, each containing specimens of a single century, which is numbered at the entrance; and receiving light through windows of painted glass, executed during the same period.

The eye of a stranger is first arrested by the mouldering altars of the ancient Gauls,—altars probably stained with human blood. Passing over many of the rude vestiges of early times, he dwells with enthusiasm on the tomb of Clovis: he beholds that prince humbling himself, and supplicating pardon for the atrocities which he had committed. He pauses on the remains of the cruel Chilperic; his attention is rivetted on the monument of the murderers Fredegonde, till he is roused by the martial air and menacing attitude of the illustrious Charlemagne, who, with brandished sword, appears to be dictating laws to the world. On these relics of remote ages time has committed many ravages; but, with all their mutilations, they are interesting to the historian and the artist.

An anachronism, not pleasing to the eye of taste, is admitted here, on account of its supposed effect. The beautiful mausoleums of Francis I. and Diana of Poitiers, equally versed in the mysteries of politics and love, form a striking contrast with the rude efforts of earlier ages. The statue of Corneille likewise occupies a place in this hall, with many other exquisite pieces of sculpture.

The apartment dedicated to the thirteenth century contains not much worthy of attention. We observe the tombs of Louis IX. his son Philip, his wife Isabella of Arragon, and his brothers Charles; but the art of sculpture has made little progress.

With the apartment containing the relics of the fourteenth century are found the effigies of Philip the Fair, and of John. The middle of the hall is enriched by the statue of Charles V. furnished the Wise, the noble Du Guesclin, and his friend Sancerre.

In the hall of the fifteenth century we perceive the dawn of that light and elegant architecture which distinguishes modern times. The monuments, which are there preserved, interest by their number, and by the names with which they are connected. The connoisseur first pauses at the tombs of Louis d'Orleans, and his brother Charles the Poet. After which appear Renée d'Orleans, grandson of the intrepid Dunois, and Philip de Comines, the father of modern history. The statue of Louis XI. is placed near that of his son Charles VII. and, not far distant, the heroic and unfortunate Joan of Arc stands by the side of Isabel of Bavaria. In the centre of this group the superb tomb of Louis XII. in the form of a Gothic chapel, is one of the noblest specimens of the improved taste of the 15th century. His recumbent figure, characteristic of death, reminds the spectator of that melancholy hour, when thousands of his weeping subjects, following his remains to St. Denis, exclaimed, "Our good monarch Louis XII. is dead. In him we have lost our father and our friend."

The Hall of the Sixteenth Century contains the statues of Francis I. and Claude his queen, the good Henry, the brave Coligny, the witty but immoral Rabelais, the sage l'Hôpital, the unprincipled Catharine of Medicis, and many others. Some painted glass, respecting the history of Pityche, although beautifully executed, does not quite accord with the solemnity of the place.

Entering the hall appropriated to the seventeenth century, the stranger is bewildered amid the crowd of philosophers and heroes which present themselves to his view. He contemplates the form of Richelieu resting in the arms of Wisdom, Turenne reposing in those of Immortality, and Mazarine suppliant at the throne of Heaven. The names of Corneille, Molière, La Fontaine, Racine, Fenelon, Pascal, and Boileau, fill him with pleasing veneration. In the centre of the hall is placed the exquisitely-finished statue of Louis XIV. rendered still more sublime

by the immortal geniuses which surround him. The tombs of Le Brun, the French Apelles; Poussin, the painter of philosophers and poets; Colbert, the profound financier; Descartes, the antagonist of Newton; De Thou, the philosophical historian; Bossuet, the eloquent preacher; Coysevox, the inimitable statuary; and Le Nôtre, to whom the most beautiful gardens of France owe all their elegance, will not be overlooked.

The eighteenth century presents us with the illustrious names of Voltaire, Crebillon, Montesquieu, Rousseau, Maupertuis, Coustou, Lepautre, Saxe, Helvetius, Fontenelle, Buffon, and d'Alembert. The remarkable difference in the design and execution of the monuments of Maupertuis, Caylus, and the Marechal d'Harcourt, and those which decorate the extremity of the hall, shows the rapid progress of the art during the last century.

The garden is converted into a kind of Elysium, where, shaded by the cypress and the willow, repose the ashes of Molière, La Fontaine, Boileau, Descartes, Maffillon, and Montfaucon; the warrior Du Guesclin, and the monarch Dagobert. In a small sepulchral edifice, constructed with materials from the very mausoleum which enshrined them, were deposited the bones of Abelard and Eloisa; but they have been removed to the cemetery of Père la Chaise.

CATACOMBS AND CEMETERIES.—The cemeteries of Paris were originally without the walls of the city; but, as its boundaries were gradually extended, they became surrounded by buildings. Of these the cemetery belonging to the church of the Holy Innocents was the most capacious as well as most distinguished: for more than seven centuries it served as a receptacle for the dead for upwards of twenty parishes. Philip Augustus, as far back as 1186, inclosed it with high walls, and the gates were closed at night. About forty years afterwards the bishop of Paris, Pierre de Nemours, enlarged it; but from that time no further enlargement of its precincts was ever made. In 1440, Denis Desmoulins, then bishop of Paris, raised the burial-fee; at which the people murmured, and resented the imposition, as they deemed it, so strongly, that they entered into a combination, and during four months no person was buried there, and no funeral service performed over those who died, a revenge for which the bishop excommunicated them all. This quarrel did not continue long; and, as generations after generations were piled one upon another within the same ground, the inhabitants of the neighbouring parishes began to complain of the great inconvenience and danger to which they were exposed; diseases were reasonably imputed to such a mass of collected putridity, tainting the air by exhalations, and the waters by filtration; and measures for clearing out the cemetery would have been taken in the middle of the sixteenth century, if some disputes between the bishop and the parliament had not prevented them. To save the credit of the burial-ground, a marvellous power of consuming bodies in the short space of nine days was imputed to it, as Hentzner tells us when he describes the place as *sepulchrorum numero et scelestis admirandum*.

The mode of interment was of the most indecent kind, not in single graves, but in common pits. "I am astonished," says Philip Thicknesse writing from Paris, "that, where such an infinite number of people live in so small a compass, they should suffer the dead to be buried in the manner they do, or within the city. There are several burial-pits in Paris, of a prodigious size and depth, in which the dead bodies are laid side by side, without any earth being put over them till the ground-tier is full; then, and not till then, a small layer of earth covers them, and another layer of dead comes on, till, by layer upon layer, and dead upon dead, the hole is filled with a mass of human corruption, enough to breed a plague. These places are inclosed, it is true, within high walls; but, nevertheless, the air cannot be improved by it. The burials in churches too often prove fatal to the priests and people who attend; but every body and every thing in Paris is so much alive, that not a soul thinks about the dead."

dead." Mr. Thicknesse was mistaken in one point; there was no intermediate earth between the layers of the coffins: they were closely packed, one tier above another, in pits thirty feet deep and twenty square, and, when the pit was full, it was covered with a layer of soil, not more than a foot in thickness. These *fosses communes* were emptied once in thirty or forty years, and the bones deposited in what was called *Le Grand Charnier des Innocens*, an arched gallery, which surrounded the burial-place, having been erected at different times, as a work of piety, by different citizens, whose names, and sometimes their escutcheons, were placed upon the parts which they had founded. One of these pits, which was intended to contain two thousand bodies, having been opened in 1779, the inhabitants of the adjoining streets presented a memorial to the lieutenant-general of the police; they stated that the soil of the burial-ground was raised more than eight feet above the level of the streets and the ground-floor of the adjacent houses, and represented that serious consequences had been experienced in the cellars of some of the houses. The evil indeed was now become so great, that it could not longer be borne. The last grave-digger, François Pontraci, had, by his own register, in less than thirty years deposited more than 90,000 bodies in that cemetery: for many years the average number of interments there had been not less than 3000; and of these from 150 to 200 at the utmost were all that had separate graves: the rest were laid in the common trenches, which were usually made to hold from 12 to 1500! It was calculated that since the time of Philip Augustus 1,200,000 bodies had been interred there; and it had been in use as a cemetery many ages before his time.

A memorial upon the ill effects which had arisen, and the worse consequences which might be expected to arise, from the constant accumulation of putrefaction, was read before the Royal Academy of Sciences, in 1783, by M. Cadet de Vaux, who held the useful office of Inspecteur Général des Objets de Salubrité. The Council of State in 1785 decreed, that the cemetery should be cleared of its dead, and converted into a market-place, after the canonical forms which were requisite in such cases should have been observed: the archbishop, in conformity, issued a decree for the suppression, demolition, and evacuation, of the cemetery, directing that the bones and bodies should be removed to the new subterranean cemetery of the Plaine de Mont Rouge, and appointing one of his vicars-general to draw up the procès-verbal of the exhumation, removal, and re-interment; and the Royal Society of Medicine appointed a committee to explain the plans which should be presented for this extraordinary operation, and to superintend a work as interesting to men of science as it would have been shocking to common spectators.

It fortunately happened that there was no difficulty in finding a proper receptacle for the remains thus disinterred. "No great shock is wanting," says Prudhomme, "to throw down all the stones of Paris into the place from whence they were quarried. The towers and domes and steeples are so many signs which tell the beholder, that whatever he sees above his head has been taken from under his feet." The quarries had been worked from time immemorial without any system, every man working where he would and as he would, till it became dangerous to work them farther; and it was only known as a popular tradition that they extended under great part of the city, till the year 1774, when some alarming accidents roused the attention of the government. They were then properly surveyed, and plans of them taken; and the result was the frightful discovery, that the churches, palaces, and most of the southern parts of Paris, were undermined, and in imminent danger of sinking into the pit below them. A special commission was appointed to direct such works as might be required. The necessity of the undertaking was frightfully shown the very day that the commission was installed,—a house in the Rue d'Enfer having that day sunk down eight and twenty metres

below the level of its court-yard! Engineers were now employed to examine the whole of the quarries, and probe the streets, roads, churches, palaces, and buildings of all kinds, which were in danger of being engulfed! One set of workmen were employed in this curious service; another in exploring the labyrinth of excavations, some of which were under the others, and opening galleries between them, that the extent of the peril might be known; and, to prevent future evils of the same kind, all the quarries which were still in use in the environs of Paris were placed under the inspection of the commissioners, that they might be worked upon some safe system. Never had any men a more arduous or more important commission! The pillars which had been left by the quarriers in their blind operations, without any regularity, were in many places too weak for the enormous weight above, and in most places had themselves been undermined, or perhaps originally stood upon ground which had previously been hollowed. In some instances they had given way; in others the roof had dipt and threatened to fall; in others great masses had fallen in. The great aqueduct of Arcueil passed over this treacherous ground; it had already suffered some shocks, and, if the quarries had continued to be neglected, an accident must sooner or later have happened to this water-course, which would have cut off the supply from the fountains of Paris, and have filled the excavations with water.

Such was the state of the quarries when the commission was appointed in 1777, under M. Charles Axel Guillaumot as inspector general. The thought of converting them into a necropolis originated with M. Lenoir, lieutenant-general of the police; and the proposal for removing the dead from the Innocents was the more easily entertained, because a receptacle so convenient, and so unexceptionable in all respects, was ready to receive them. That part of the quarries under the Plaine de Mont-Souris was allotted for this purpose, a house known by the name of La Tombe Isoire, or Isouard, (from a famous robber, who once infested that neighbourhood,) on the old road to Orleans, was purchased, with a piece of ground adjoining; and the first operations were to make an entrance into the quarries by a flight of seventy-seven steps, (the depth being seventeen metres,) and to sink a well from the surface, down which the bones might be thrown. Meantime the workmen below walled off that part of the quarries which was designed for the great charnel house, opened a communication between the upper and lower vaults, and built pillars to prop the roof. When all these necessary preliminaries had been completed, the ceremony of blessing and consecrating the intended Catacombs was performed with great solemnity, on the 7th of April, 1786; and on that same day the removal from the great charnel-house began. This work was always performed at evening; the bones were brought in funeral cars, covered with a pall, with priests in their surplices following and singing the service of the dead.

The removal of the bones from the Holy Innocents was continued during the cooler months, while another set of workmen was preparing the quarries to receive them; and the business of exhumation was completed in January 1788. The utmost order prevailed in carrying on the different works, the arrangements of which frequently presented a truly picturesque appearance. The vast number of flambeaux and of rows of torches which were every where burning, and shed a dim funereal light around the surrounding objects; crosses, tombs, and epitaphs, intermingled; the silence of the night; the thick cloud of smoke that concealed the place where the labourers were at work, whose operations could not be distinguished, and who appeared to flit along like shadows; the various ruins caused by the pulling down of edifices; the subversion of the soil in consequence of the exhumations; all together formed a scene most impressively awful. The solemnity of the spectacle was augmented by religious ceremonies; by the conveyance of coffins;

by

by the splendour which accompanied the removal of the tombs of the most distinguished personages; by the funeral cars and cenotaphs; by the hearths filled with bones, and slowly proceeding at the close of day towards the new catacombs prepared for their reception; by the appearance of these vast excavations, and the solid arches which seemed to cut off the abode of the living from the dead; by the dismal light of the place; the frightful creaking of dry bones, which, as they were thrown in, rolled along with a terrific noise that was re-echoed through the long series of arches; every thing, in short, concurred to place before the eyes the image of death, and to inspire the most solemn recollections of man's universal doom and final catastrophe.

All the crosses, tombstones, and monuments, which were not reclaimed by the families of the dead to whom they belonged, were carefully removed, and placed in the field belonging to La Tombe Ifoire: some among them were very curious. Many leaden coffins were buried in this field: one of them contained the remains of Mad. de Pompadour, who, by her own desire, had been interred at the foot of what was called the cross of the Holy Innocents. Thus far things had been conducted with the greatest decorum; but, as the revolution proceeded, La Tombe Ifoire was sold as a national domain, the leaden coffins were melted, and all their monuments destroyed; those which could not be sold, or applied to any purpose of use, were demolished; a *salle de danse* was then opened on the spot.

Fortunately there was nothing in the Catacombs which could provoke the wretches whom the Revolution had let loose upon society; but they were so much neglected, that in many places the soil had fallen in, and choked the communications; water came in by filtration, the roof was cracked in many places, and threatened fresh downfalls; and the bones themselves lay in immense heaps, mingled with the rubbish, and blocking up the way. It was not till the year 1810 that M. de Thury was enabled to pursue his plans; and the workmen then had to make galleries through the bones themselves, which in some places lay above thirty yards thick. It was necessary also to provide for a circulation of air, the atmosphere not having been improved by the quantity of animal remains which had been introduced. The manner in which this was effected is singularly easy. The wells which supplied the houses above with water were sunk below the quarries, and formed in those excavations so many round towers. M. de Thury merely opened the masonry of these wells, and luted into the opening the upper half of a broken bottle, with the neck outwards: it is only necessary to uncork two, three, or more, of these bottles, when fresh air is wanted. Channels were made to carry off the water; steps constructed from the lower to the upper excavation; pillars built in good taste to support the dangerous parts of the roof, and the skulls and bones built up along the walls. In short, by a series of long-continued labours, they have so admirably disposed the solid works in these excavations, that each subterranean street corresponds with the street above, and the numbers of the houses under ground also correspond with those on the surface of the earth: hence, if the ground should sink in any part of Paris, a suitable remedy may instantly be applied. These excavations reach beneath the extensive plain of the Faubourg St. Germain, forming nearly the whole of the southern half of Paris, and under a small part of the department of the Seine in the northern division.

Three staircases form the channels of communication between the Catacombs and the surface of the earth; but that of the Barriere d'Orleans or *d'Enfer*, (Hell Gate,) is the staircase by which visitors generally descend into these dreary yet interesting caverns. A narrow staircase of eighty steps, winding down a circular well, leads to a gallery, or avenue, hewn out of the solid rock, and varying from three to four feet in width, and from six to seven in height. The stone is clean, white, and dry, and

thickly studded with shells, and various marine antediluvian remains. Numerous passages branch off on either side, some of which are said to extend more than three miles; but many of these avenues were prudently stopped when they became the resort of banditti.

The stranger is accompanied by a guide, who conducts him in safety through this immense labyrinth, and who is himself directed by a black line traced on the ceiling through the whole of the course which he is to pursue. The guides generally commence their task about twelve o'clock. Every stranger, on entering the Catacombs, will find it necessary to have a wax taper in his hand which may be purchased on the spot, and never to lose sight of the guide. After the traveller has proceeded a quarter of a mile, he should inquire for the Gallery of Port-Mahon. A soldier, who had accompanied marshal Richelieu in the expedition against Minorca, was, on his return, compelled by necessity to work in these quarries. During the hours of refreshment, he employed himself in modelling in relief a plan of Port-Mahon. The execution is, as might be expected, sufficiently rude; but the accuracy of the representation is acknowledged by every competent judge, and the whole is highly creditable to the ingenuity, the memory, and the patience, of the soldier, who, ignorant of architecture, completely without assistance, and almost without instruments, nearly accomplished the singular and arduous undertaking. It is painful to add, that he was crushed by a mass of rocks, and perished the victim of his ingenious enterprise.

At a little distance is another curiosity, which probably will not be shown unless the traveller inquires for it. Some enormous fragments of stone are so nicely balanced on a base, hardly exceeding a point, that they rock with every blast of wind, and threaten to overwhelm the curious observer; yet in this equilibrium they have hung for more than two centuries, and it would probably require a gigantic force to remove them from their position.

After proceeding more than half a mile, the stranger arrives at another low-roofed hall, in which is a black door, supported by two Tuscan pilasters, with this inscription: *Hæc ultra metas requiescunt, beatam spem expectantes*; "Beyond these bounds rest the dead, awaiting the joyful hope of immortality." This is the entrance to the Catacombs. On the lintel of the gate the following verse of Delille is cut in the rock: *Arrête! c'est ici l'Empire de la Mort*.

On entering the Catacombs, the mind is awfully impressed with the long galleries and numerous apartments, all furnished, or (if we may be allowed the expression) ornamented, with bones. The largest skulls and thigh-bones are symmetrically disposed in compartments, and form as it were the facing of these mournful walls, behind which are placed the smaller bones. "What frightful decorations!" (exclaims a recent traveller;) walls, arcades, and pillars, of bones, adorned, not with garlands of roses and myrtles, but with arabesques of arm and leg bones, and, instead of heads of genii and cornucopias, with ghastly skulls! Altars of death's heads in symmetrical order gradually growing smaller towards the top, and crowned with crossed bones: a *mosaic work*, which, by its regularity and harsh contrast of the white lime-wash with the dark brown colour of the bones, that never blanch in these humid vaults, heightens the gravity, the musing melancholy and awe, that penetrate the inmost recesses of the soul in these repositories of mortality." A few of these altars are of an antique form, and composed of the solid rock. They stood here before these caverns were appropriated to their present destination. One of them has certainly occupied its present situation from time immemorial, and has given rise to the not-improbable conjecture, that these secret and deep recesses were used as places of worship, either by the Gauls or by the early Christians, during the persecution which followed the first preaching of the Gospel in these parts.

These chapels contain numerous inscriptions; some of

of them simply indicating the cemetery whence each mouldering pile of bones was removed; others too strongly reminding the reader of the atheistical era of the Revolution; and a very few displaying considerable feeling and good taste. The following are the principal objects of attention.

1. The *Crypt of St. Laurence* is an ancient and very spacious excavation, the great depth of which recommended it as a repository of the bodies removed from the cemetery of St. Laurence, at the time of its suppression in November 1804, and when the street of the same name was opened. All the dry bones taken out of that cemetery have been collected and arranged so as to form a separate crypt, the entrance to which is supported by two columns of the Doric order of Pœstum. At its extremity is a pedestal constructed of bones, the mouldings of which are formed of tibiae, or leg-bones, of the largest size; and the dado or square trunk of the pedestal is surmounted with a head in a fine state of preservation.

2. The *Altar of the Obelisks*.—The northern part of the Catacombs having sunk down in several places, there was reason to apprehend a general falling-in of the superincumbent earth. To prevent this disaster, M. Guillaumot, the inspector-general in 1810, directed pillars, walls, and counter-walls, to be built wherever there was any appearance of danger. The high altar and obelisks which decorate this crypt are therefore nothing but works of consolidation concealed under the ornamental form of these monuments. The altar is copied from a magnificent ancient marble tomb, discovered a few years since between Vienne and Valence, on the banks of the Rhone; the obelisks are reductions of ancient obelisks; and the two pedestals on the right and left of the altar are constructed of bones in a similar manner to that in the crypt of St. Laurence. This chapel or crypt of the obelisks contains several appropriate inscriptions, chiefly taken from the Scriptures.

3. The *Sarcophagus of the Lachrymatory* is likewise one of the great works of consolidation to which a sepulchral form has been given: it is also known under the name of the *Tomb of Gilbert*.

4. The *Pedestal of the Sepulchral Lamp*.—The necessity of obtaining a more free circulation of air in the Catacombs induced the workmen to place a large vessel of fire on a block of stone; and the appearance of this suggested the idea of substituting a sepulchral lamp in its place. The lamp is in the form of an antique cup, and was the first monument erected in the Catacombs. Opposite to it is the *Pillar of the Memento*, a large and massive cruciform column, or triangular cross, which has received its name from the following sentence, extracted from the mass for Ash-Wednesday; *Memento, homo, quia pulvis es, et in pulverem reverteris*. And behind the latter column is the *Pillar of the Imitation*, so called because the four inscriptions that ornament it have been taken from the celebrated work of Thomas à Kempis *De Imitatione Jesu Christi*.

5. The *Fountain of the Samaritan Woman*.—This appellation has been given to a spring that was discovered in the soil of the Catacombs by the workmen, who established a reservoir here to collect the water for their use. As the waters gushed out of this basin into the works, it became necessary to take their level; and advantage was taken of the difference of levels to construct over this spring a staircase, a basin, and a subterraneous aqueduct; and, the roof or top being intersected in different directions by fissures and cracks, the workmen were obliged to erect pillars and contreforts, the monumental forms of which have greatly contributed to the embellishment of this fountain.

On the 25th of November, 1813, four gold fish were thrown into the basin of this fountain, where they have become perfectly domesticated. They answer to the signs and calls of the keeper, and appear to have grown in this unnatural situation, but they have not spawned. Three

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of them have retained their brilliant colours, but some spots have appeared on the fourth; and it seems probable that exclusion from light may produce, though more slowly, the same effect upon them that it does upon vegetables.

6. *Tombs of the Revolution*.—This appellation has been given to the spacious crypt which contains the tombs of those who were the earliest victims of the French Revolution. The place of interment, and the period when the remains of these unhappy persons were committed to the Catacombs, are respectively marked by the following inscriptions. I. Combats de la Place de Grève, de l'Hotel de Brienne, et de la rue Meslée chez le commandant du Guet, le 28 et 29 Aout, 1788. II. Combat de la Manufacture de Papiers peints (Paper-hanging Manufactory) de M. Reveillon, Faubourg St. Antoine, le 28 Avril, 1789. III. Combat du Chateau des Tuileries, le 10 Aout, 1792.

7. The *Tombs of the Victims of the Massacres on the 2d and 3d of September, 1792*.—Under the direction of M. Guillaumot, Inspector General of Quarries, M. Laplace, keeper of the Tomb of Ifoire, protected by the silence of the night, caused the remains of those who had perished on these different days to be interred in the Catacombs, with as much decency as circumstances would permit. Their bones are concealed from view behind a wall painted black, which for a long time presented only the following brief notice: D.M. II. ET III. SEPTEMBR. MDCCXCII. During those days of terror, no expiatory altar could be raised; but two marble tablets now commemorate the names of the most illustrious of these victims.

We shall copy but one more inscription. It is very curious, but certainly very revolting: *Ici sont inhumés LXXXVII mètres cubes d'ossements, recueillis dans le cimetrie des Innocens, du 19 Janvier au 19 Mars, 1811.* "Here are deposited 90 cubic yards of bones, collected from the cemetery of the Innocents, between the 19th January and the 19th March, 1811."

The calculations of different visitors and authors vary as to the number of bones collected in this vast charnel-house. It is certain that there are more than three millions of human skulls; some writers have asserted that the Catacombs contain six millions.

A faint mouldering smell pervades these gloomy caverns, but not to any unpleasant or deleterious degree.

Before he quits the Catacombs, two Museums are shown to the stranger. The first is a collection of all the fossil remains, mineral productions, spars, &c. which these quarries afford: some of the specimens are curious and beautiful. The other, which is principally interesting to the medical traveller, are specimens of the various diseases of the bones, selected from this immense repository, and scientifically arranged.

Having quitted the Catacombs by a portal bearing this beautiful and appropriate quotation,

*Felix qui potuit rerum cognoscere causas,
Atque metus omnes, et irrevocabile fatum
Subjecit pedibus, strepitumque Acherontis avari!*

the traveller again follows a black line traced on the roof, which conducts him to another staircase; ascending this, he finds himself on the east of the road to Orleans, which he had crossed under ground, and more than half a mile from the place at which he descended.

CEMETERIES.—In the year 1790, the National Assembly passed a fresh law prohibiting interment within the churches, and commanding all towns and villages to disuse their old burial-places and form new ones at a certain distance from the dwellings. During the revolution which soon ensued, when it was proclaimed that there is no God, and that death is eternal sleep, men were buried any where and any how, without any ceremony or memorial to mark the spot where they lay. But in the spring of 1800, an *arrêté* was published by the prefect of the department of the Seine, which is curiously characteristic in all respects. The prefect begins by announcing,

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that

that *Les institutions funéraires sont un des premiers besoins de la civilisation*. Those, he said, which had fallen into disuse in consequence of the revolution, surrounded the funerals of the rich with splendour, and accorded nothing to the poor but the melancholy emblems of misery and desertion. Those which were in use treated rich and poor with the same neglect; and public opinion, in consonance with morality, condemned the nakedness of the actual mode of burial. It was worthy of the first city of the republic, to command by its example the decency of interment; and, above all, to consecrate the care of the burial of the poor as a duty of public piety. Three public cemeteries were to be inclosed for the use of Paris, of a certain extent, and at a distance of one mile from the walls. In the centre of each a *Lutuaire, ou Salle de Deuil*, was to be erected, destined to receive the funeral procession, and consecrated to the ceremony which might precede the act of interment. Six funeral temples were to be built in Paris, to serve as depots before the funeral. A mode of burial common to all was to be established. The commune of Paris was to defray the expense of the poor; but in all other cases it was to be reimbursed for the expenses, and consequently was empowered to levy a burial-tax. Families might incur any additional expense that they pleased; *il sera permis de consacrer des souvenirs dans les enclos de la sépulture publique, par des inscriptions, des énéotaphes, et autres monumens frivoles*; of course, in such cases, a price was to be paid for the ground. The costume of all the persons attached to this department was regulated with as much precision as that of the Directory themselves.

In 1804 an imperial decree was issued repeating the prohibition of interment in churches, or within the circuit of a town. High ground by this decree was to be chosen for cemeteries, and exposed to the north, and every corpse was to be interred in a separate grave, from a metre and a half to two metres deep, and the earth well trodden down. There was to be a certain distance between the graves, and they might not be re-opened till after five years. Another imperial decree in 1811 conigned the whole funeral business of the metropolis to one undertaker-general, arranged funerals into six classes, and appointed a *tarif* whereby the expense of every separate article and assistant was determined; the sum total in either class might not be exceeded; but might be diminished if the family of the deceased chose to strike out any thing in the list. The whole expenses of the first class amount to 4282 francs; of the second to 1800; of the third to 700; the fourth to 250, the fifth to 100, and of the sixth and last only to 16. The *tarif* will be considered hereafter as singularly precious, if posterity should be as curious concerning the costume of the present age as we are concerning the manners and customs of our ancestors.

The cemeteries, then, are without the walls; and the chief of them are those of Monceaux, Montmartre, Poincourt, St. Catherine, and Mont Louis. The most remarkable of these is the last, which is generally called the Cemetery of Pere la Chaise. This cemetery lies to the east of Paris, in front of the barrier d'Aunay, and on the north side of the boulevard of that name, near the road to Montreuil. Louis XIV. built a handsome house on this spot for his confessor, la Chaise, a Jesuit, who for the long term of thirty-four years had the keeping of this monarch's conscience. He was a persecutor of the Protestants, and advised the revocation of the edict of Nantes.

This cemetery is about fourscore acres in extent. It resembles not the burying-grounds of England and other countries, which are literally fields of the dead, and have nothing to distinguish them from other fields but a great number of square smooth white stones standing upright upon them; for it has in reality a most beautiful and interesting appearance. Over the ground, which is very much broken and hilly, are scattered various kinds of

fruit-trees,—the remains of the garden and orchard belonging to the house of father la Chaise. The principal entrance, where funerals are admitted, is through a handsome gate, opening to a broad road, planted on each side with a double row of linden-trees, at the end of which is a wood, with another avenue of lindens through it; under their foliage is appropriately placed the tomb of Delille, the poet of gardens.

From the west platform, near the southern wall, the *coup d'œil* is strikingly grand; for, the eye of the spectator being on a level with the heights of Montmartre and Clichy, Paris, and the vast extent of country beyond it, are brought into the view. Beneath your feet are tombs of various kinds, most of them of elegant forms, each encircled with funereal or other trees, according to fancy; and all, even those which are in a ruinous or neglected state, having sweet-scented flowers and shrubs growing on or near them. Many have roses, myrtles, jasmines, geraniums, and mignonette, planted round them. The truly classical idea of hanging garlands of flowers on the tombs of friends and relatives is here most completely realised; many of these tombs have the appearance of being recently thus adorned. The choicest and most scarce flowers are generally selected to form these garlands: tuberoses, and other green-house plants, are common in them.

The grandest monument on the ground is the sepulchre of the family of Greffuhl; it is a chapel of Gothic architecture, situate on the north side, and near a beautiful range of sycamores. Towards the east is a small platform, formerly called The Belvidere; it is a shady square formed by eight linden-trees; in the midst of the tombs occupying the space is a fine monument to Mestrezat, the Genevan pastor; and the Protestants have selected the ground about here for their burial place.

The poet Chenier's tomb has this simple inscription: "Marie Joseph Chenier, né à Constantinople en 1764, mort à Paris en 1811." Near that lies Fourcroy, with his bust in a niche, under which is simply inscribed his name. Not far from the latter are the tombs of Labe-doyere and Ney, famous for their bravery and their unfortunate fate. Here likewise repose the ashes of Madame Cottin and Mademoiselle Clairon, together with many others, whose names will live when their monuments, like their mortal remains, are mouldered away.

The monument of Abelard and Eloise, which was transported from the Abbey of Paraclete, and placed in the internal court of the Petits Augustins, has now been removed hither. This tomb actually contains the ashes of the two lovers. See the article ABELARD, vol. i. p. 14. 6th edit.

St. Foix, in his *Essais Historiques sur Paris*, says, that Charles IX. had formed the design of converting the Bois-de-Boulogne into a burying-place for heroes. The idea was that of a great man; but that unfortunate monarch, like many others, followed bad counsels, and turned his abilities to a wrong purpose. The cemetery of Pere la Chaise, on a small scale, and of recent date, shows what that idea would have produced had it been put in execution.

Madame Raucourt, the celebrated actress, Lenoir, Dufresne, and Volney, the deistical writer, were buried here.

Though it is but thirteen years that this has been a cemetery, it is now the favourite and most fashionable one in Paris; for in Paris every thing has its fashion, and the Parisians have displayed great taste in the arrangement and construction of the tombs, and great affection and feeling in the epitaphs that are engraven upon them.

Cimetière Montmartre, or Field of Repose.—This is also to the north of Paris, and was the first opened after the new regulations in 1773. There are in this cemetery a number of tombs, with inscriptions that depict in elegant language the grief of the relatives left behind; but there are none erected to any person of great note.

There

There are two other cemeteries, that of *Vaugirard* and of *St. Catharine*; but in extent, situation, and other circumstances, they are less interesting than that of *Père la Chaise*. General Pichegru was interred in the cemetery of *St. Catharine*, where there is a plain tomb erected to him by the affectionate piety of his daughter. In *Vaugirard*, is interred Jean François de la Harpe. Here also are the monuments of Leroy and Lavalette.

Lastly the cemetery called *La Morgue*, situated on the Quai du Marché Neuf, is destined to receive the dead bodies of such individuals as have fallen victims to accidents and murders, or been induced by despair to put an end to their own lives; here they are publicly exposed, that they may be recognised by their relatives or friends.

On Sundays, in fine weather, the cemeteries are much frequented; and on the second of November, the day of *la Fête des Morts*, there is a sort of melancholy and sentimental pilgrimage, which is of the most impressive description.

It appears that the bills of mortality at Paris hold out a tremendous lesson of morals to the Parisians, if, as may be fairly inferred, they agree in their results with the tombstones of the different cemeteries. In the burial-ground of Montmartre, which is the deposit for the gay part of Paris, the purlieus of the Palais Royal, the Rues *St. Honoré*, *Vivienne*, *Richelieu*, and Montmartre, the Boulevards, and the *Chaussée d'Antin*, nine tombs in ten are to the memory of persons cut off in the flower of their youth: but in the burial-ground of *Père la Chaise*, which serves principally for the sober citizens of Paris, the inhabitants of the *Marais*, and of the *Faubourg St. Antoine*, nine out of ten record persons who had attained a good old age. In both cases this fact relates to subjects in easy or affluent circumstances; and the difference of mortality is solely attributable to the difference between a dissipated and a regular life. If nosological tables had been kept in different places, and in different parts of the world, with the same care as meteorological ones, how many more important results might have been deduced from them!

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

The hospitals and other charitable institutions of Paris are supported and maintained by government. Their number is scarcely credible. More than 15,000 beds are made up at the different hospitals, and the annual expenditure is computed at 300,000*l.* sterling. These charities may be considered as forming two distinct classes: the one comprehends the hospitals for the sick, called *Hopitaux*; the other, those for the indigent, *Hospices*. The former are devoted to the relief of the afflicted; the latter serve as an asylum to children, to the infirm, and to the aged poor. All persons who are not ill enough to be admitted of necessity into the hospital nearest to their residence, are obliged to present themselves at the *Bureau Central d'Admissions*, or General Office of Relief, where they are examined, and, if there be occasion, they receive a ticket of admission for the hospital where their particular disorder is treated.

HOTEL DIEU.—Formerly this was rather a charnel-house than an hospital. It was founded, as far back as the year 660, for the reception of the sick and maimed of both sexes, without any distinction of persons. All of every country, and of every religion, were admitted without form or recommendation. Though it contained but 1200 beds, the number of patients very often exceeded 5000, and on the average it was never less than 2500. Until the year 1786, no steps were taken for enlarging the hospital, or providing elsewhere for those who could not be conveniently accommodated in it. The air of the neighbourhood was contaminated by the noisome exhalations continually arising from this abode of pestilence; and that which was breathed within the walls of the hospital was so contagious, as to turn a trifling complaint into a dangerous disorder, and a simple wound into a mortification. In 1785 the attention of the government being

called to this serious evil by various memoirs, the academy of Sciences was directed to investigate the truth of the bold assertions made in different publications. A report was made, and the hospital enlarged so as to contain 2000 beds.

Since the revolution, the improvements introduced into the interior government of the *Hotel Dieu* have been great and rapid. Each patient now has a bed to himself. Those attacked by contagious disorders are transferred to the *Hospice St. Louis*. Infane persons are no longer admitted; men thus afflicted, are sent to a special hospital established at Charenton, and the women to *Salpêtrière*. Sick children of both sexes are no longer admitted promiscuously into different hospitals; but are received into a special hospital, extremely well arranged, and in a fine airy situation beyond the *Barrière des-Sevres*. At the *Hotel Dieu* every method has been put in practice to promote the circulation of air, and expel the noxious miasmata. In all the French hospitals, one ward, at least, is now always kept empty. The moment it becomes so by the removal of the patients into another, the walls are lime-whitened, and the air is purified by the fumigation according to the plan first proposed by Guyton Morveau. This operation is thus alternately performed in each ward in succession; that which has been the longest occupied being purified the first, and left empty till it is wanted.

Besides those mentioned above, the following may be considered as branches of or annexes to the *Hotel Dieu*.

Hopital Cochin, *Faubourg St. Jacques*.—This hospital was founded by the venerable *Cochin*, curé of the parish in 1782, who saw with regret his indigent parishioners exposed to the danger which the *Hotel Dieu* then presented. To provide them with a safer and more comfortable asylum, he disposed of all his property, and even his books. The hospital contains 130 beds.

Hopital Beaujon, *Faubourg du Roule*.—Founded in 1784 by the individual whose name it bears, with a revenue of 20,000 francs. It is a substantial building, and in good taste; the architecture has been as much admired as the humane purpose to which it is devoted. It is established on the same principle as the *Hotel Dieu*; and contains 120 beds.

HOTEL des INVALIDES, Hospital for wounded and superannuated Soldiers.—This *Chelsea Hospital of France* has generally been ranked among the most magnificent edifices of Paris. The building was projected by Henry III. commenced by Henry IV. and completed by Louis XIV. They whose blood had flowed for the safety and honour of their country, deserved a peaceable and comfortable asylum in their old age. The edifice happily unites the bold and masculine character that suited the purpose to which it was devoted, with the magnificence of the sovereign who erected it. It is composed of five courts, of equal form and dimensions, surrounded by buildings. A vast esplanade, bordered by rows of trees, and the centre decorated by a fountain, gives to the principal façade towards the *Seine* a noble perspective. A superb railing encloses the court before the hotel. The front consists of three floors above the basement, which is pierced with arcades. An advanced building presents itself in the centre, and at each extremity. That in the centre, and in which is the principal entrance, is decorated by Ionic pillars supporting a magnificent arch, in which was a bas-relief containing an equestrian statue of Louis XIV. accompanied by Justice and Prudence, the workmanship of the younger Coustou. These two figures yet remain. On each side of the gate are other figures representing the nations conquered by Louis XIV. with colossal statues of Mars and Minerva.

A spacious dome adorns the church, surrounded by forty columns of the Composite order, covered with lead, and ornamented with gilding. Above is a cupola with pillars, supporting a pyramid surmounted with a cross, which is 308 feet from the ground. From this lofty situation is an extensive view of Paris and its environs.

The church

church is regarded as the chef d'œuvre of French architecture, although it has been justly remarked that the portal is too small and too much divided to suit the lofty building to which it conducts. The interior of the dome was painted by Charles La Fosse, and represents the Apotheosis of St. Louis. Beneath it are the Twelve Apostles, by Jouvenet. From the dome were suspended the colours taken from different nations. They exceeded three thousand. It was a sublime idea to make the asylum of these veterans the depository of the choicest spoils of war. As they walked beneath the waving banners, perhaps the trophies of their own valour, every glorious exploit, in which they had borne a share, was recalled warm to their memory. They forgot their wounds, they forgot their age; again they fought the battles of their country; again they exulted in the shout of victory. When the allies were about to enter Paris in 1814, the French invalids tore down the banners, and made a bonfire of them, that it might never be said they were retaken. The sword of the great Frederic was likewise deposited here: it was claimed by Blücher on the entrance of the allies into the capital, and restored to Berlin, whence it had been taken by Bonaparte. The outside of the dome, which is seen at a great distance, was completely gilt by order of Bonaparte, and has on a fine day a most splendid effect; from the top is a grand view of Paris. The floor is extremely beautiful, entirely formed of tessellated marble, and exquisitely finished.

In the vaults of the church are deposited the remains of the great Turenne; a name which ever recalls to the mind of the Frenchman and the soldier the ideas of invincible courage and unfulfilled honour. On each side of the monument are figures representing Wisdom and Valour deploring the loss of the hero. In front is a bas-relief of the battle of Turckheim. The marshal is expiring in the arms of Victory. The simple name of TURENNE is the only and the sublime inscription which the mausoleum bears. Not far from him reposes Marshal Vauban.

Other objects of curiosity in this building are, the infirmary, attended by eighteen sœurs de la charité, the bakehouse, kitchen, and refectory, (the former particularly worthy of notice;) the wells, the clock, the library, given by Bonaparte for the use of the officers, containing more than 20,000 volumes; the council-chamber; and, before the last capture of Paris by the allies, a grand gallery filled with plans in relief, most beautifully executed, of the principal fortresses and strong towns in the French empire; but most of these became the prey of the Prussians, Austrians, &c.

The hospital is governed by a lieutenant-general, who has 7000 brave men under his care; and the revenues are under the inspection of a vigilant and regular administration. The sick are attended by able physicians, assisted by the sisters of St. Vincent de Paul. Here these old warriors find an asylum and a plentiful table; besides being treated in proportion to the rank they held in the army, or as their infirmities and the nature of their wounds may require. Nothing is spared that can ameliorate their affliction, comfort their age, or tend to their repose. In this Hotel, which is open from ten till four in the afternoon, every thing is interesting: whilst the order that prevails excites pleasure, the spectator always feels some veneration for the brave men who occupy this edifice, whose wounds recal their military virtues and their exploits in the field.

LYING-IN and FOUNDLING HOSPITAL.—In this hospital there are two distinct departments, the lying-in and the nursery, each of which occupies a separate building. The lying-in rooms are kept very clean, and perfectly well-aired, containing not more than six women each. Upon an average, the number of women is about 200; in general fewer in summer than in winter; 1500 women are annually delivered in this hospital. Here married pregnant females are received, as well as those who have become mothers without the sanction of the law. Hence

the horrid crime of infanticide, and other abominable practices, so common in England, are unknown in France, and indeed on the continent in general. This plan, however, was only adopted in 1792. A female performs the office of midwife. The nursery department is by far the most considerable; the plan of it is very ingenious. There is one room appropriated to the reception of the new-born children, and the feeding them till they are provided with nurses. This ward of fifty or sixty infants, who are all in their cradles, ranged in lines, forms a most interesting spectacle. The total number of children, annually born or received into the hospital, is between 5 and 6000. In the year 1790 the number received was 5842; but in the year 1793, a supposed period of general dissoluteness, there were not more than 3000 taken within the walls of the hospital. Another foundling hospital is the

Hospice des Orphelins.—Infants deprived by death of their parents, or abandoned by them, are received here without question, recommendation, or inquiry; and are nursed with tenderness, well fed, properly educated, and lastly qualified for some trade or profession, in which they are afterwards placed at the public expense. Their infancy is passed in the hospital; but they are sent into the country at a certain age for the benefit of the air, and then return to complete their education.

Bureau des Nourrices, Establishment for Nurses.—Ladies, who are unable to nurse their own children, may at all times find here nurses, in whom they can place unlimited confidence. The health and morals of these nurses are scrupulously examined, and their conduct diligently observed by agents of the bureau, from whom they receive their salary, and who are responsible for their behaviour. Infants may likewise be sent here to be nursed. Young married women of good character easily gain admission here for themselves and their infants, on the condition that they will take the charge of another child. They are comfortably lodged, and have a sufficient gratuity. The ward presents a curious and interesting spectacle. Every bed is placed between two cradles, one for the élève, and the other for the nurse's own child.

La Société maternelle—visits pregnant women, and provides for their lying-in, and for the suckling of their infants.

HÔPITAL de la CHARITÉ—was founded by Mary de Medicis in 1602. It receives only men attacked by acute diseases, or who have suffered by accidents; and can accommodate 230. A Clinical School is now established here. The disposition of the different baths is very ingenious.

Etablissement pour les Blessés Indigens, Establishment for the Wounded Poor.—M. Dumont, a celebrated surgeon, had long gratuitously attended to the accidents of the poor. His patients became so numerous that his private fortune was not sufficient to supply them with the necessary bandages and medicines. To enable him to continue his benevolent undertaking, government now allows him 2000 francs per annum.

MAISON de SANTÉ, Faubourg St. Martin.—The regulations of this house are peculiar. Every patient is compelled to pay two francs a-day for admission into the common wards. For three francs each patient has a chamber to himself. This establishment is ingeniously and humanely contrived for those who are unable to procure proper medical assistance, yet whose pride will not permit them to apply to a common hospital.

HOSPICE des QUINZE-VINGTS, Hospital for the Blind; Rue de Charenton.—It was founded so long ago as 1260, by St. Louis. Here are maintained 420 blind persons, most of whom are taught to do something towards their support; 120 out of this number are young persons, and are formed into a school, called *Institution des Jeunes Aveugles*. The public examinations are on the 26th of every month. Among the different employments in which they are engaged, is a cloth-manufactory. At these public meetings, blind persons, men, women, and children, may

be observed to read, write, count, print, and perform on different pieces of instrumental music. The mode by which they read is by feeling the letters, which are purposely raised on a card: and this they do with such rapidity, that it is difficult on hearing them to discover their misfortune.

There is a manufactory of steel carried on in the building; they also make whips, writing-cases, purses, and paper toys of all sorts, which are sold for their private emolument. There is likewise a press, or printing-machine, in which the whole process is performed by the blind. The women knit, sew, and perform other kinds of needlework; and all of them either sing or perform on some instrument: they often join in a numerous concert.

Institution des Sourds-Muets, Establishment for the Deaf and Dumb; Rue. St. Jacques.—The celebrated abbé de l'Épée, a name never to be pronounced without veneration, was the first man who formed a system of instruction for the deaf and dumb in France, which he published in 1776. He experienced its success for twenty years; during which time he had surrounded himself with all the deaf and dumb he could assemble. That respectable man employed his fortune in clothing and maintaining most of those unhappy beings; and all Europe has witnessed his talents, his constancy, and his success. At his death, which happened in the month of December, 1789, the abbé Sicard, his pupil, took his place as instructor, and some benevolent persons undertook to maintain the deaf and dumb. At the end of January, 1791, the National Assembly granted to that establishment the site of the Celestins, and founded an hospital for twenty-four children, with a pension of 350 francs for each child. Soon after the number of children gratuitously admitted was augmented to a hundred and twenty, and their pension increased to 500 francs. During the time of their living in the institution, which is five years, the pupils of both sexes are clothed and maintained; they are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, and drawing. Any parent who can afford to pay a pension of 800 francs for his child, may send him to this establishment.

A few of the pupils have been taught to read and pronounce aloud any sentence written for them; but, as may be expected, the pronunciation, not being imitation, and being wholly unheard by the person who utters, is incorrect. It is the effect of a compelled mechanical exertion of the organs of speech, produced by the abbé's placing his lips and mouth in certain positions, and appearing to the scholar to make certain motions, who, in endeavouring to imitate such motions, necessarily brings forth a sound, more or less like that required. The degree of force which it is necessary the scholar should apply to pronounce distinctly any word, is regulated by the abbé's pressing his arm gently, moderately, or strongly. We believe that Dr. Watson, of our Deaf and Dumb Asylum, is by no means behind the abbé Sicard in his successful endeavours at opening the mouths of the dumb. See the article *DEAF AND DUMB*, vol. v. and *DUMBNESS*, where Dr. Watson's method is detailed, vol. vi.

The institution is open to the public every Thursday from eleven to one. At the end of every month, a public examination takes place, at which the spectators may appreciate the nature and utility of the plan and mode of culture. Exclusive of religious and moral instruction, also in logic and reasoning, writing, reading, and arithmetic, the art of design, the elements of geometry, geography, and history, the deaf and dumb are also employed in mechanics, joiner's work, and in a number of small fabrications, curious and ingenious. These exercises are extremely well attended, chiefly by persons of respectable appearance. At one of these lectures, the abbé Sicard stated a very curious occurrence. After having observed that our blind Sanderson, on being asked to describe the sound of a trumpet, compared it to the colour red, he stated, that a deaf and dumb pupil, having been desired

to define his idea of red, immediately answered, it resembled the sound of a trumpet.

The number of deaf and dumb throughout France is estimated at 9000. The abbé Sicard, is at present preparing a synopsis of all such institutions as have been established, not only in France, (where there are upwards of twenty,) but throughout all the known countries.

HOSPICE de St. PÉRINE.—This, though not exactly a charitable institution, deserves notice in this place, from its very excellent regulations. Here men and women, when they have reached seventy years of age, or sooner if infirm, can, *by right*, and without asking the favour of any one, place themselves, in order to pass the remainder of their days in comfort and repose. A subscription is the essential and indispensable condition of acquiring the right of admission; according to which, every subscriber must pay regularly and punctually, 10d. per month, from ten till thirty years of age; 1s. 3d. per month from thirty to fifty; 1s. 8d. per month from fifty to seventy years of age. These different payments will amount to 45l. which must be completely paid before a person can acquire the right of admission. Hence, if any one more than ten years of age should offer as a subscriber, he or she must deposit, at the time of subscription, and according to his or her age, the sum which would have been paid if the subscription had commenced at ten. In order to give encouragement to benevolence, all persons who may be disposed to subscribe, may transfer their right to as many persons as they have made subscriptions, on condition that the person who shall be benefited by the transfer, shall be, as nearly as possible, of the same age as his benefactor, and that he shall not be admitted before he has reached seventy years of age, and paid the 45l. This transferred subscription is extinguished by the death of the substitute. The funds are placed on securities, and subjected to an administration which is in every respect safe and undeniable.

The house of this institution is most beautifully situated at Chaillot, about two miles from Paris, commanding a most extensive view of the city, the Seine, and the Champ de Mars. In front there is a very large and elegant parterre, terminating in an extensive kitchen-garden; behind, there is another large house, formerly the monastery of St. Perine, which forms a part of this establishment; and a field, of about four acres, bordered by a well-cultivated garden. In this establishment are nearly one hundred aged persons, male and female, whose manners and appearance evidently bespeak that they have figured in the genteeler walks of life, and whose countenances indicate the most perfect happiness and contentment. The chambers occupied by the female part of the society compose the right wing of the house: each female has a bed-chamber to herself exclusively; and there is one sitting-room or parlour appropriated to two females. The left wing of the house is occupied by the males, who are distributed in the same manner as the females, each person having a bed-room to himself, and a common parlour being allotted to two persons, in which they receive the visits of their relatives and friends, without the inconvenience of being obtruded upon by strangers. A husband and wife have always a room to themselves.

Their diet corresponds in every respect with the neatness and simplicity of their apartments. At one o'clock a plentiful dinner is served up in the hall for the whole society; and at seven they again assemble to supper. Besides a sufficient quantity of meat and vegetables, each person is allowed a pound and a half of bread, the men a bottle of wine, and the women half a bottle, daily. In case of sickness, they are removed to a particular part of the house, which is used as an infirmary, where they are provided with every medical assistance, and experience every possible attention; and, in case of their decease, they are decently interred in the neighbouring church at the expense of the society, or elsewhere at the expense of their friends.

Their time is entirely at their own disposal. They may even employ themselves in any lucrative occupation, provided it does not interfere with the quiet and general rules of the house. Several females very profitably engage in needle-work for their friends and families. What little pecuniary emoluments they may acquire by their industry supply them with pocket-money. The men usually pass their time in reading, walking in the neighbouring fields, or occasionally working in the garden.

There are several other excellent establishments of this nature, among which are the *Hospice des Menages*, Rue de la Chaise; and the *Maison de Rétraite*, on the road to Orleans, near the Barrière d'Enfer. The first of these was formerly called *Les Petites Maisons*, from the lowliness of the building.

Hospice des Incurables Femmes, Hospital for Incurable Women; Rue de Sévres.—Cardinal Rochefoucault founded this hospital in 1637. Five hundred and ten aged women, lame, palsied, or blind, are comfortably lodged, fed, and clothed, here.

Hospice des Incurables Hommes, Hospital for Incurable Men; Faubourg St. Martin.—This building was formerly a convent. In 1790 it was devoted to its present and better purpose. Four hundred infirm old men find here a comfortable retreat.

Hospice de la Salpêtrière, near the Garden of Plants.—This immense pile of building was begun by Louis XIII. in 1656, and finished in the year following. It derives its name from a saltpetre manufactory in the neighbourhood. The building is fine, presenting a majestic façade; and its boundaries are so extensive, that it is almost a little city. Here 1600 girls are employed in making linen and in working lace. Old married men, young women affected with madness, and female idiots, here receive those little comforts of which their respective situations still allow them to partake. A part of this building is for prostitutes. There are usually about 8000 persons in this place, most of whom are employed in some useful works. Here are 600 insane persons under the care of the celebrated Pinel, from whose works we largely borrowed under our article INSANITY.

The *Bicêtre*, which has already been noticed as a prison, is a similar institution to the Salpêtrière, but confined to men only. At a distance it has the appearance of an immense pile of fortifications. On a nearer approach the hospital is found to be unusually lofty, and surrounded by a fossé. The proportion of *old* men in this institution is great, and almost incredible. It is said that there are often more than two hundred who are upwards of 70 years of age. The accommodations for the insane are not so convenient as humanity requires. They are damp and ill ventilated; but the infirmary is remarkably well arranged. The immense kitchens, and the well, 207 feet deep, are generally shown to strangers.

SOCIÉTÉ PHILANTHROPIQUE, the Philanthropic Society—supplies the poor with soup at a low price, visits the sick and indigent, and affords them relief in food, money, and medicine, and administers to them the consolations of religion. There are four Dispensaries belonging to this society, which is composed of the principal people in Paris. Two hundred thousand francs, more than 8400l. were distributed in this way in 1813. It bears some resemblance to the Strangers' Friend Society of London, conducted by the Wesleyan Methodists.

Secours à Domicile, Relief to the Poor at their own Habitations.—The relief distributed by the benevolent committees of the 48 districts of Paris, from the general funds of the different hospitals, is destined for old men and women of more than 70 years of age, the infirm, and poor women with large families; it consists of bread, meat, milk, flour, and, in winter, wood for firing. It also includes gratuitous advice and medicines in case of illness.

We have been thus particular in describing the principal hospitals and benevolent establishments of Paris, (a place which, exclusive of strangers, does not contain more

than half the population of London,) for the benefit of the philanthropic traveller, as well as for the information of our prejudiced countrymen, who are too apt to fall in with the common cant of the day, and assert that benevolence and religion are to be found in no country but their own. Benevolence and human kindness flourish and spread their friendly shade in every climate under heaven; and we are too often led to doubt their existence, only because we are unacquainted with the place of their growth.

It is a remarkable circumstance, that, notwithstanding this long list of charitable institutions, and the numerous public and gratuitous schools which exist, the poor of Paris are more in number, and more idle, than in any other city in Europe. This arises from the ease with which relief is obtained, without character and without exertion, and from the means of dissipation which the poorest person always finds in that gay metropolis.

Much has been said for and against the system of poor-laws that prevails in our own country. By many they are considered to be "the result of a humane but mistaken policy, grown into an intolerable abuse." Yet we must be permitted to observe, that there have been laws for the compulsory relief of the poor in all countries; and we find them at this moment in full operation in Switzerland. At Paris, however, the evil seems at its height; public documents show, that there are in that city considerably more than 100,000 individuals, or more than one-seventh of the whole population, who receive support from public charity; and it is, if possible, a still more appalling fact, that *one-third* of the inhabitants of that splendid and luxurious metropolis dies in its hospitals. The number of common beggars about the streets of Paris, and on the high-roads of France, is beyond all comparison greater than with us.

The Rapport au Conseil General des Hospices, &c. states the number of sick admitted into the different hospitals of Paris, in ten years, from 1804 to 1814, to have been

Those admitted into the different hospices during the same period	352,913	dead	47,861
	50,464	dead	12,577

	403,377	60,438
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A more recent report shows a great increase: 42,442 individuals have been admitted in the different hospitals and hospices of the capital in the year 1818: 7043 have died; and the total number of deaths at Paris has been 22,382. In 1819, 7310 have died in the hospitals and hospices, out of a total number of deaths at Paris of 22,137. The number of individuals more or less assisted at public expense at Paris, has been for the first period of ten years, 104,000 annually; in 1818, the number was 108,742, including 17,247 foundlings.

PLACES OF AMUSEMENT.

It has already been stated that the French are a dramatic people. The numerous theatres which are open and crowded every night, and the superior manner in which the business of each theatre is conducted, are sufficient proofs of this. At one period of the revolution not less than thirty houses were nightly filled; and it is said that two thousand new pieces were offered to the public in one year, of which not more than a twentieth part survived the first representation. Government, at length, prudently interfered, and limited the number of the great theatres to four, and the minor houses to six.

In one respect the French stage is certainly superior to the English. Very few of the plays have an immoral tendency; and vulgar and gross double-entendres would excite universal disapprobation. It is a problem which we leave to the metaphysician or the moralist to elucidate, that, while in France all the principles of private and domestic virtue are plainly and proverbially loose, their theatrical pieces breathe the purest sentiments, and inculcate the noblest maxims; yet, in England, where the domestic

domestic virtues have established their peculiar empire; the moral of many of the most favourite dramas is worse than equivocal, and female delicacy is too frequently shocked with the most vulgar and palpable ribaldry. Connected with this is another circumstance, the explanation of which we likewise leave to others. In England, where female chastity is justly considered as the sex's point of honour, and a lapse from it is never forgiven, the managers of the national theatres have built accommodations expressly for the most degraded class of society. They nightly encourage scenes offensive to delicacy, and subversive of good morals; and may truly be said to share, not only in the gains, but in the very business, of the brothel-keeper. In France, however, where fidelity to the marriage-vow is little regarded; where the female who has forgotten the duty which she owed her husband, and dishonours herself, is on that account treated with no contempt, and excluded from no society; the theatres are perfectly free from the intrusion, or, at least, from the disgusting conduct, of the women of the town.

Sentinels, more numerous than at the English theatres, guard all the avenues, and preserve order in the interior. The people who wait the opening of the doors are regularly arranged in files of two or three abreast; and, although the crowd probably consists of several hundreds, no pressure or inconvenience is felt, and every person is gently and quietly admitted in his turn. At leaving the theatre not the smallest confusion or uproar takes place. No person is permitted to call his carriage until he is actually waiting for it at the door; and, should not the owner step into it in an instant, it is ordered off by the police, and makes way for another. By this arrangement, the company is dispersed in an inconceivably short space of time.

No very profuse decoration is bestowed on the interior of the Parisian theatres; and the mode of lighting them has some resemblance to that at Astley's Amphitheatre, which is now adopted at Covent Garden and Drury Lane. An enormous chandelier, or rather a double row of Argand lamps, is suspended from the centre, which diffuses a gentle and agreeable light through the whole house. The light is not so brilliant as at the London theatres, nor so favourable to the display of female beauty which the boxes occasionally exhibit; but it much increases the effect of the scenic representation.

When a favourite actor appears at the commencement of his part, he is usually greeted, as in London, with enthusiastic applause; but, according to the proper etiquette of the French stage, he seems to be perfectly insensible to the rapture with which he is hailed. He returns not the slightest gesticulation, but stands in the proper attitude of his character until the acclamations subside, and he can be heard. But, when he has finished his part, and is again summoned on the stage once more to receive the applauses of his admirers, when he is no longer the monarch or the hero, he can, without impropriety, express his genuine feelings, and he acknowledges the kind patronage of the audience by many a bow of respectful gratitude. After the successful performance of a new piece, the name of the author is loudly demanded, and his appearance on the stage required. The moment he is seen, the house rings with acclamation; he replies with a few humble conges, and retires.

The manner of remunerating the authors of successful pieces deserves notice. They are allowed a certain share of the profits during life, and the benefit descends to their family for ten years after their decease. This regulation extends through every theatre in the whole French empire. No provincial manager can exhibit the production of any living author without making him this allowance. The proportion depends on the celebrity of the author, and the specific agreement between him and the manager. It sometimes amounts to one-sixteenth, but occasionally does not exceed a sixtieth. A few authors, as Dacis and Picard, derive a handsome revenue from this source.

The boxes at the principal theatres usually contain six persons; but a small party may take any box on paying for five places. A ticket is immediately placed on the door stating that it is let; and no other person is permitted to intrude during the whole of the night, although the box may not be occupied by more than two or three.

L'OPERA, ou *Académie Royale de Musique*; the Opera House; Rue Richelieu.—Cardinal Mazarine first introduced the Italian opera into Paris, for the amusement of Anne of Austria, in 1646. The present house has nothing remarkable in its exterior but a heavy colonnade of eight arcades. The interior presents a far more splendid appearance than either of the other theatres, but is decidedly inferior to the national theatres in London. This theatre presents a striking exception to the remark we have made on the want of variety in the scenery. Nothing can exceed its splendour or beauty, or the adroitness with which it is managed.

The performances of the opera resemble those of the house of the same name in London, except that the poetry and music are frequently French. The orchestra is superior to that in London, and probably unequalled in Europe; but the singing is scarcely above mediocrity. This will be easily accounted for, when it is recollected that few Italian singers are engaged here. For the beauty and splendour of the ballet, and the excellence of the dancing, the Opera is deservedly celebrated. It is far superior to any thing which the rest of Europe can afford. France is the native land of dancing, and in her grand national theatre we may expect to see the very perfection of the art; nor will that expectation be disappointed. The principal charm of the ballets of the opera consists in the uniform excellence of *all* the performers; but it is only where dancing is an object of universal and passionate admiration that we may hope to see almost every figurante on the boards displaying an elegance, agility, and knowledge of the art, which would apparently enable her to fill the most important parts.

The performances are on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays. The prices of admission are—balcony, 10 francs; first and second tier of boxes in front, amphitheatre and orchestra, 7 francs 10 sous; first and second boxes at the sides, and third boxes in front, 6 francs; third tier of boxes at the side, 4 francs; fourth and fifth boxes, and pit, 3 francs 12 sous. The doors open at six, and the opera commences at seven.

THEATRE FRANÇAIS, in the same street.—This theatre likewise presents nothing striking in its exterior. Its peristyle towards the street is of the Doric order, and is composed of eleven intercolumniations, forming ten arcades. Above are pilasters of the Corinthian order, whose entablature is cut by a range of small windows. The principal saloon is of an elliptical form, and is surrounded by three rows of Doric columns. The first row is coupled; the two others are insulated. The ceiling is adorned with sculpture and arabesque ornament. Four staircases ascend from the saloon to the different divisions of the house. The theatre is 69 feet wide, and as many in depth, and the stage presents an opening of 38 feet. The internal decoration of the house is far from attractive, and consists principally of a dingy yellow marble.

This theatre is consecrated to the exhibition of the classical productions of the best French writers. Racine, Corneille, Voltaire, Crébillon, and Molière, are the sources from which its most frequent and most approved performances are selected; and no attempt has been made to disgrace the immortal productions of genius, by false ornaments, and contemptible pageants.

Among the tragic actors here, *Talma* stands alone; the actresses, Mad. Duchesnois, George, and Volnais. The most celebrated female performer in comedy, is *Mademoiselle Mars*, whom it is impossible to name, without paying her a tribute of applause: "Mademoiselle Mars is probably as perfect an actress in comedy as any that ever appeared on any stage. She has united every advantage of

of countenance, and voice, and figure, which it is possible to conceive; and no one can ever have witnessed her incomparable acting, without feeling that the imagination can suggest nothing more completely lovely, more graceful, or more natural and touching, than her representations of character. Mademoiselle Mars has been most exquisitely beautiful; and, though the period is past when that beauty had all the brilliancy and freshness of youth, time appears hardly to have dared to lay his chilling hand on that lovely countenance, and she still acts characters which require all the naïveté, and gaiety, and tenderness, of youthful feeling, with every appearance of the spring of human life." *Travels in France*, vol. i.

This theatre is open every night. The prices of admission are—to the balcony, orchestra, and first boxes, 6 francs 12 sous; first gallery and second boxes, 4 francs 8 sous; third boxes, 3 francs 6 sous; pit, 2 francs 4 sous; and second gallery, 1 franc 16 sous. The doors are here likewise opened at 6 o'clock, and the entertainments commence at 7.

The ODEON, burnt down March 20th, 1818, but now rebuilt; Faubourg St. Germain.—A French company plays here four times a-week; but the situation of the house is not favourable: it is on the south of the river; and its own regulations form another obstacle to its success. Obligated to play such pieces as have been rejected by the Theatre Français, or others still inferior, they can neither satisfy the small number of the amateurs of good comedy, nor the public at large, who are not easily put off with fingering or mere stage-effect. This theatre, though not so well laid out as it was before the revolution, is still the handsomest and the most commodious in Paris. The exterior is superb, and makes us regret that this house is not situated in a more frequented part of the town.

The performers of the *Opera Buffa* play alternately with those of l'Odeon. Madame Fodor, who performed with such applause at the King's Theatre in London, was engaged from the Odeon.

OPÉRA COMIQUE, called Théâtre Feydeau, from the name of the street it stands in.—The exterior of this theatre is almost concealed by surrounding buildings. The interior much resembles that of the French Theatre. Its name well expresses the entertainments that are usually given here. They are principally operas, representing country scenes, like the English operas of *Rosina*, *Love in a Village*, &c. It must, however, be acknowledged, that the French give an interest to these rural pictures seldom felt on the English stage.

THÉÂTRE DES ITALIENS, Rue Favart.—This edifice was erected by M. Heurtier, in 1782, on the site of the Hotel de Choiseul. A peristyle of six columns, of the ancient Ionic order, forms the only ornament of the façade: the proportions of the columns are grand, but altogether without decoration: the entablature has a heavy appearance. Some years ago this little theatre was taken by Madame Catalani, who engaged a small company of Italians, and exhibited here her unrivalled powers of voice. The speculation did not prove so lucrative as she expected. The prices were too high: first boxes, 10 francs; second boxes, 6 francs 14 sous; pit, 3 francs 12 sous; amphitheatre, 5 francs 10 sous.

THÉÂTRE VAUDEVILLE, Rue de Chartres.—This is the chief of the minor theatres, and always attracts crowded audiences. The performances consist of short yet interesting comic sketches interspersed with little songs (vaudevilles), either amatory, sentimental, or epigrammatic. These songs are usually furnished by a club of wits, whose meetings are known by the name of *Les Diners du Vaudeville*. The passing events or occurrences of the day often form the subject of little comic or serious pieces. Happy parodies are frequently given of the spectacles of the larger houses. The performances begin every night at seven; and the prices are moderate; first

boxes, 3 francs 10 sous; second boxes, 3 francs; third, 2 francs 4 sous; fourth, 1 franc 10 sous; pit, 1 franc 12 sous.

THÉÂTRE des VARIÉTÉS, Boulevard Montmartre.—This little theatre, designed for pieces of a burlesque and popular kind, was built by Cellerier in 1807. The exterior has four Ionic over four Doric columns, crowned with a triangular pediment. The style of building is simple, light, and theatrical.

The pieces performed here profess not to rank higher than farces. *Les deux Boxeurs*, a theatrical caricature of the English boxers, and *Les Anglaises pour rire*, had great runs. The English in Paris are constant in their attendance at these grotesque representations.

THÉÂTRE de la GAIÉTÉ, Boulevard du Temple.—Of the melo-dramas, such favourites with the public for many years past at this place, it may be said nothing is more interesting, humorous, or amusing, or more pathetic, than the pieces produced by MM. Caignez, Pixerecourt, Varez, &c. The Dog of Montargis is not yet forgotten at this theatre; but what animal will be made use of next, is beyond conjecture, though there is no doubt that the actors will do their duty, whether bipeds or quadrupeds. This, however, is the chief of the melodrame theatres; and we are assured by Mr. Planta, that, in this particular line, "they are decidedly superior to any of the minor theatres in London." The ballets, and the dancers of both sexes, are also of a superior kind. The doors open at five, and the performance begins within half an hour after. Prices: first boxes, 3 francs 12 sous; first and second boxes in front, 2 francs 8 sous; orchestra and front gallery, 1 franc 16 sous; second gallery, front, 1 franc 10 sous; pit, 1 franc 4 sous.

L'AMBIGU COMIQUE, Boulevard du Temple.—This worthy rival of its neighbour never ceases to attract a crowd, even in summer; and, like it, owes its popularity to the productions of MM. Caignez and Pixerecourt. Many rival writers, and among these some ladies, have endeavoured to share the palm of the *melodrame* with these gentlemen; but hitherto none of them have been able to deprive them of their titles, as the Racine and the Corneille of the Boulevards. These two theatres, whatever may be the aspect of the political horizon, never know any relaxation.

THÉÂTRE de la PORTE St. MARTIN.—This house was originally designed for the opera; but it was afterwards considered to be too distant from the court. It is now appropriated to the same kind of performances as the Ambigu Comique. The interior of the theatre is peculiarly elegant. The favourite melo-drama of the Maid and the Magpie was brought out here, and attracted crowded audiences at the period when the cannon of the allies could be distinctly heard from the Boulevards.

THÉÂTRE de BIENFAISANCE, Theatre of Benevolence; Rue St. Denis.—The pieces represented in this structure are performed by blind persons; and the profits are appropriated to the support of this unfortunate and interesting part of the community.

CIRQUE OLYMPIQUE, the Olympic Circus; Faubourg du Temple. The entertainments exhibited on this stage resemble those of Astley's, and are scarcely inferior to them. The house is spacious and elegant, and the whole is under the direction of M. Franconi, whose family are the principal performers. The intelligence, docility, and activity, of two young stags, are much admired. Prices: stage boxes, 4 francs; first boxes, 3 francs; circular boxes, 2 francs 8 sous; second boxes, 1 franc 16 sous; third boxes, 1 franc 4 sous. The doors are opened at six, and the entertainments commence at seven.

THÉÂTRE PITTORESQUE et MECANIQUE, Picturesque and Mechanical Theatre; Rue Montesquieu.—M. Pierre, the inventor of this pleasing exhibition, is dead, but his former assistants continue it with undiminished attraction. It was exhibited in London, at the Sans Pareil Theatre in the

the Strand, and at Spring Gardens; but did not excite the attention which it merited. It consists of a representation of landscapes, cities, sea-ports, &c. the different parts of which are in relief, and admirably contrived to render the perspective complete, and the general appearance of the whole highly interesting. This scene is enlivened by numerous animated figures; carriages of every description cross the bridge; boats sail up the river; pedestrians crowd its banks; the sun gradually rises; the appearance of the sky perpetually changes, and occasionally the grand accompaniments and effect of a storm are portrayed. The exhibitions are changed every month, and a pleasing panorama is given of all the principal cities in Europe, with the peculiar costume of each. First places, 3 francs; second, 2 francs; third, 1 franc.

There are various other inferior exhibitions of Panoramas, Cosmorama, Pansteromas, Phantasmagorias, &c. which are not worth enumerating. Punch and his family, who are itinerary with us, are stationary at Paris, under the elegant title of *Théâtre des Marionnettes*, on the Boulevard du Temple.

M. *Olivier* exhibits his sleight of hand, and feats of strength, at the Rue des Petits Champs.—M. *Comte* has also an exhibition of legerdemain, to which he adds the most wonderful specimens of ventriloquism, in the Rue de Grenelle.

Modèles des Ruines Antiques, Models of Ancient Ruins; Palais des Beaux Arts.—Here is a beautiful, interesting, and curious, model, on a large scale, of the ruins of Palmyra, or Tadmor in the Desert, built by Solomon; a city famous for its founder and for its fall, as well as for its unrivalled magnificence. That city, which Gibbon calls “the seat of arts, of sciences, and of Zenobia,” exhibits even at this distance of time, a forest of majestic columns, such as are not to be seen in any other part of the world. See the article PALMYRA, and the correspondent Engraving, at p. 297-300.

There are some other curious models of ruins to be seen, by application at the Palais Royal.

Spéctacle Instructif, Boulevard Montmartre.—This is an exhibition similar to that which Bologna attempted during the lent-season of 1820, in Catharine street, Strand. The electrical, galvanic, and optical, experiments, although not new, are the most brilliant which those branches of philosophy present. Some of the acoustic machines are curious. The Chinese shades are superior to those usually seen, and the Phantasmagoria is sufficiently terrifying. It is open every night at half-past six.

COMBATS des ANIMAUX, Combats of Animals; near the Barrier St. Martin.—This singular and disgraceful spectacle is more frequented than is honourable to the humanity of the Parisians. It consists of an enclosure surrounded by a gallery, under which are the dens of various wild and ferocious animals. At a short distance are kennels containing fighting dogs of every description. Any person who wishes to try the courage of his dog, may, for a certain gratuity, select an antagonist from the kennels. But on Sunday, and every festival, a public exhibition takes place, when it is crowded by gentlemen of a certain description, and by those whose education and rank in society should have taught them better feelings. The entertainments commence about five o'clock by various dog-fights. To these succeed bull-baiting, bear-baiting, wolf-baiting, and wild-afs-baiting; hyænas, wild-boars, &c. are added to the sport. The humanity of the spectators, or the avarice of the proprietors, usually interferes to preserve the lives of the various animals; but they are often sadly worried and mutilated. The amusement usually concludes, on grand festivities, with a ludicrous but cruel scene. A bear is compelled to climb a pole. He is then surrounded with fire-works, which not only terrify him by their explosions, but evidently torture him by their flames. He is afraid to escape by one bold leap, and he is equally afraid to slide down through the fires which are blazing underneath him. The clumsy

and grotesque attitudes by which he expresses his terror and his pain, excite shouts of pleasure from the greater brutes with which the galleries are thronged. The baited animals are fastened with ropes to a ring in the centre of the amphitheatre, and the keepers manage them with wonderful dexterity.

LA VEILLE'E, the Evening's Rendezvous; Place du Palais.—This establishment, situated in the centre of Paris, presents a most interesting display of blooming verdure even in the winter-months, when the frost and snow seem to defy the power of vegetation. By a happy contrivance, the scenery changes at every step; and nothing has been omitted to render La Veille'e a complete fairy-land. New and superb decorations, costumes the most brilliant, pleasing and variegated scenery, amusements without number, every thing here unites to rivet the attention, and give an additional zest to gaiety.

Two orchestras are placed in the building for the accommodation of the youthful dancers. Children are captivated with amusements adapted to their time of life; while in two apartments, artfully constructed, are to be found those resources from reading and conversation which are calculated to interest the mind of age. Within this fascinating edifice are also two theatres, in which are represented light and playful pieces. In a rustic cot a dairymaid sells cream. In various grottos every cooling liquid is to be procured. A restaurateur offers every kind of refreshment. Shops, playfully contrived, exhibit arms and millinery, books and toys. Notwithstanding, however, all this display of diversified allurements, the establishment was not capable of supporting itself. It is now seldom open, except at periods of public rejoicings, and during the season of the winter-balls.

TIVOLI, Rue St. Lazare.—This delightful garden is open only during the summer. It has been termed the Vauxhall of Paris. It is infinitely superior to that celebrated place in the day, but certainly yields to it in the decorations which it presents at night. It has none of the formality of the English Vauxhall. The walks, bordered with roses, honeysuckles, and orange-trees, pleasingly wind in various directions, discovering an interesting succession of objects at every turning. The lawns exhibit rope-dancers, mountebanks, grimacers, groups riding at the ring, or playing at shuttlecock, and innumerable parties in the little bowers around, gazing on the amusements, and sipping their lemonade or orgeat. In the centre is a stage for dancing. The waltz is still the favourite dance; nearly two hundred couples may sometimes be seen following each other through the giddy and voluptuous whirls of this fascinating but dangerous amusement. The visiter must bring his partner with him, or he will not easily meet with a fair one willing to admit a stranger to the freedoms which this dance allows. Several little canals intersect the garden. Several diminutive boats are on the bank, with which the visiter may amuse himself, while the shallowness of the water secures him from every danger beyond that of a complete ducking.

In the evening these gardens are splendidly illuminated; a tolerable concert is given; additional bands of musicians await the command of the dancers; and an exhibition of fire-works takes place at ten. On gala and festival days, additional decorations and amusements are presented. The price of admission in the day is one franc, three francs at night, and five francs on festivals.

GUINGUETTES et. BASTRINGUES.—The Guinguettes are the gardens in the suburbs or environs of Paris, to which the lower classes are accustomed to resort on Sundays and festival days, and regale themselves at a trifling expense. Provisions of every kind may be procured here, ready dressed. When a guinguette adds an orchestra and a room for dancing to its other attractions, it is called a Bastringue.

The most celebrated are—the Grand Saloon, Faubourg Montmartre; the Hermitage, at the foot of Montmartre;

Fanchon la Veilleuse, Boulevard du Mont Parnasse; Le Salon de Varlet, Boulevard de l'Hopital; the Great Rotunda, in the Elysian Fields; and those at Vaugirard, under the walls of Paris to the west. The stranger will probably occasionally look in at some of these places, for there he will form the most correct idea of the real characters and manners of the mass of the French people.

BRIDGES, QUAYS, AQUEDUCTS, MARKETS, &c.

PONT NEUF, the New Bridge.—“Of all the bridges,” says Sterne, “it must be acknowledged that the grandest, the lightest, the longest, and the broadest, that ever joined land to land, is the Pont Neuf.” The first stone of this bridge was laid by Henry III. in 1578; and the foundation of the piles was begun to be formed on the opposite side, when the troubles of the League forced the architect, De Cerceau, to withdraw to foreign countries. The work was not resumed till the reign of Henry IV. it was finished in 1674. The length of the bridge is 1020 feet, and its breadth 72 feet, which is sufficient to admit of five carriages passing abreast; it is formed of twelve arches, seven of which are on the side of the Louvre, and five on the side of the Quai des Augustins, extending over the two channels of the river, which is wider in this place, from their junction. In 1775 the parapets were repaired, and the footway lowered and narrowed. Soufflot, the architect of the Pantheon, availed himself of the opportunity to build, on the twenty half-moons which stand immediately above each pile, as many rotundas, in stone, to serve as shops. On the outside, above the arches, is a double cornice, which attracts the eye of the connoisseur in architecture, notwithstanding its mouldering state, on account of the fleurons in the antique style, and the heads of sylvas, dryads, and satyrs, which serve as supports to it, at the distance of two feet from each other. As the mole that forms a projection on this bridge, between the fifth and the seventh arch, stands facing the Place Dauphine, which was built by Henry IV. it was chosen for erecting to him a statue, which was the first public monument of the kind that had been raised by the French in honour of their kings. The statue was of brass, representing the king on horseback. It was erected in 1635. The figure of the king was beautiful, and of excellent workmanship; it was cast by Dupré. The horse was executed by the famous Jean de Boulogne. Cosmo II. duke of Tuscany made a present of this fine piece of foundry to Mary de Medicis, then queen dowager and regent of France. Although the portraiture of the king did great honour to Dupré, yet the greatest praise was generally bestowed upon the horse; which circumstance gave occasion to the following epigram:

Que sert-il que Paris, au bord de ce canal,
Expose de nos rois ce grand original,
Qui sçut si bien regner, qui sçut si bien combattre ?
On ne parle point de Henri-quatre,
On ne parle que du cheval.

At the beginning of the revolution, the statue of this beloved king was pulled down, and a colossal figure of Victory, or Liberty, or some other fashionable lady, was erected on the spot. But this disappeared with the glory of Napoleon; and, when the king entered Paris in 1814, a plaster-cast of the former equestrian statue was fabricated with astonishing celerity, and put up immediately; and there it remained, according to Tronchet's Guide to Paris, (6th edit.) in 1817; but Planta's Picture, (12th edit.) 1820, tells us, that an obelisk, 180 feet high, stands there.

This bridge is incessantly crowded with passengers, and exhibits a busy and interesting scene. It is the favourite resort of itinerant fruiterers and pedlars of every description, who line each side of it, and force the attention of the passenger by the most exaggerated and deafening history of the excellence of their wares. The dealer in books is posted next to the vender of hot sausages or fried plaice. Beside him is the polisher of shoes, while his neighbour

offers the most delicate cakes and preserves. Beyond him is a print-merchant, with engravings of every price, and suited to every taste. He is elbowed by a ballad-singer or a hawk of news. No sooner has the traveller escaped from his harsh and discordant note, than he is annoyed by the importunity of some canine tonfor, who, for a small gratuity, will clip his poodle, or his barbette, to the very height of the fashion. The professors of this last art are numerous in Paris; and some of them enjoy as much reputation, and reap as much emolument, as the scientific and justly-celebrated professor of canine and animal medicine in the western part of the English metropolis.

To the east of Pont Neuf the small islands in the middle of the Seine are connected to its banks by several bridges; to the west there are two, the Pont Royal and the Pont Louis Seize, both of which have been already described.

PONT NOTRE DAME, Our Lady's Bridge.—This is situated at the extremity of the Quay de la Megisserie. It was called in the fourteenth century, *Pont de la Plancher Milray*, and leads from Rue Plancher Milray to the city. It was rebuilt, on the plan of a cordelier named Joconde, under the reign of Charles XII. in 1499. Sixty-one brick houses, which it formerly bore, were taken down in 1786. In the middle is a pump, which supplies most of the fountains of Paris.

PETIT PONT, the Little Bridge.—This bridge forms a communication between Rue St. Jacques and the city. The time of its foundation is uncertain. It existed in the time of the Gauls; and when Lutetia was rebuilt by the Romans, a fortress was erected at its extremity. It was eight times carried away by floods; and in 1718 it was destroyed by fire in four hours, together with all the houses upon it: the conflagration originated from two boats laden with hay, which had anchored under one of its arches. In 1719 it was rebuilt, unencumbered by houses.

PONT MARIE, Mary's Bridge; near the Quai des Ormes. This structure was so named after the builder, who erected it in the reign of Henry IV. It was partly destroyed in 1658, but afterwards repaired, and quite divested of houses in 1789.

PONT de la TOURNELLE.—Stands on the quay bearing that name, and was so called from the castle which adjoined the gate of St. Bernard. The character of its architecture is very grand. It communicates from the port of St. Bernard to the island of St. Louis. It is the third bridge that has been erected on this spot. A wooden bridge, which existed in 1369, gradually decayed. A second wooden bridge was carried away by the ice. The city of Paris caused this of stone to be built in 1656.

PONT du JARDIN des PLANTES, originally *Pont d'Aufertlitz*.—This modern bridge forms a communication between the Boulevard of Bourdon and the Garden of Plants. It was completed in 1807. The piles are of stone, and the arches of cast iron. It has an air of great solidity and strength. A toll is exacted from all passengers. There is an extensive view to the east over the country bordering on the Seine; and to the west over the port of St. Bernard, and the beautiful quays of the island of St. Louis.

The name of this bridge was altered on the arrival of the allied troops in Paris; but the Austrians blew up part of the bridge before the authorities in Paris consented to the alteration.

PONT des INVALIDES, originally *Pont Jena*.—This bridge, opposite the Champ de Mars, was begun in 1806, and has not long been finished. It consists of five arches of equal size, and happily combines elegance with strength. On the second entrance of the allies into Paris, Blucher, offended at the name given to the bridge, ordered it to be blown up: it was, however, preserved by the prompt interference of the allied sovereigns. It leads from the Champ de Mars to a precipitous chalk-cliff on the other side,

fide, at the base of which are laid the foundations of a palace never likely to be finished, the Palace of the King of Rome.

The remaining bridges not already noticed are—The *Pont Grammont*, a wooden bridge which passes over a narrow channel from the Port St. Paul to the Isle Louviers. It is the only wooden bridge in Paris.—The *Pont de la Cité*, a curious structure of stone, iron, and wood, which connects the two isles (St. Louis and la Cité), and runs not across, but in the direction of, the stream of the Seine. Though built in 1803, it is already so insecure, that carriages are not permitted to pass over it: foot-passengers pay a sou every time they cross it.—The *Pont aux Doubles*, a small old bridge, with houses upon it, which, like the Pont Grammont, crosses only a small channel on one side of the river, and joins the Isle de la Cité to the main land on the south. The fare for passing it was formerly a *double*, a coin no longer in circulation; whence the name.

The bridges at Paris, owing to the elevation of the quays above the river, have very little ascent, and are therefore very convenient; they are, however, with the exception of the Pont Neuf, far inferior to the bridges of Rome or Florence; and in magnitude and grandeur they sink into insignificance when compared with the stupendous masses of Waterloo, Blackfriars, or Westminster.

QUAYS.—Forty-nine quays line the shores of the Seine, extending from east to west about five English miles, on both sides of the river, and which are at different parts distinguished by different names, though in reality they form only two immensely long quays.

The river Seine, which is a running river, and not a tide river, has no commerce but what is carried on by boats. The quays are merely stone embankments, without cranes for raising goods, or warehouses for receiving them, which are essential parts of what is properly termed a quay. These stone embankments were first begun in 1312, in the reign of Philip the Fair. The height of the stone-work is about fifteen feet, in some places built on piles, and in others on a solid foundation of earth.

Various sorts of goods are landed at different parts of the river; and these are termed *ports*, though there is no apparent mark of any thing like a port.

When it is considered that the waters of the river rise in winter about ten or twelve feet higher than in summer, it will be seen that an absolute necessity exists for having stone embankments; and the whole is so well executed, that the borders of the river, or quays, are the pleasantest and best walks in Paris, with the exception of the Boulevards and public gardens.

In the time of Philip the Fair, the *Quay of the Augustins* was a marsh covered with willows, and in summer a kind of promenade, though muddy at other times of the year, and subject to the inundations of the river.

The *Quai de la Mégisserie* was constructed in 1369. In 1642 the shores of the Seine, between the Pont Notre Dame and the Pont au Change, presented a shelving surface containing two dirty streets, with occupants equally disgusting; when the marquis de Gevres obtained leave to build between the two bridges, upon the condition that he should confine the river within a proper embankment.

The *Quai Desfieux*, on the other side, was begun in 1800 by the engineer Lamande. At present nearly 400 toises of new quays occupy the whole contour of the Isle de la Cité, and which afford many agreeable points of view.

The *Quai des Orfèvres* extends to Pont St. Michel; that connects with the other side of the same bridge, since the houses were pulled down that skirted the river in the Rue Sturepoix.

At the extremity of the *Quai des Celestins* is the Arsenal. The objects that will particularly interest a traveller in this building, are—a magnificent ceiling, painted by Mignard, and the cabinet in which Henry IV. used to unbohem his most secret thoughts to his incomparable

friend and counsellor, Sully. The chimney, near which he usually sat, is shown to the visiter. The marquis de Paulmy, who afterwards inhabited this hotel, would not permit the slightest alteration to be made in the arrangement or decoration of any of the apartments, but placed his chief happiness in living surrounded by those objects, on which that good king had gazed, or which he had touched.

No new quay has been made near the Pont Royal, a space always reserved by the French king; but since 1708 the *Quai d'Orsay* has undergone many alterations, and magnificent hotels have been raised on the banks of the Seine, under the promise of its completion. Till 1801 the intended designs were incomplete; but since that period, and within the course of three or four years, M. Lamande has executed the orders of government in the construction of a magnificent quay, upwards of 400 toises in length. As the different elevations of the two bridges serve as *points d'appui*, and the inequalities of the soil filled up between the two extremities of the line, the centre presents a fine front perfectly horizontal, which constitutes a regularity not to be found in any of the other quays. The height of this quay is about fifteen feet, and its foundation is partly upon terra firma, and partly upon piles. The space in front is about 92 feet by 100. Two handsome flights of double stair-cases lead to the quay, enriched with embossments, and ornamented in a similar manner with the extensive and beautiful façade. This imposing line of building, viewed from the opposite side the Seine, being raised in the most exact proportions, is undoubtedly the finest basement of all the edifices on this side of the river, amongst which is the pretty palace of the Legion of Honour.

Another quay is now carrying on beyond the Pont Louis XVI. to be continued as far as the Invalides.

AQUEDUCTS AND CANALS.—The *Aqueduct of Romainville* is the most ancient in Paris, being anterior to the year 1274; and this supplies the fountains of the Innocents, des Halles, and Maubue, with a quantity of water equal to 646 hogheads in twenty-four hours; but the supply from the aqueducts of Belleville and Mefnelmontant are not so copious.

Aqueduc d'Arcueil.—This was begun by Catharine de Medicis, and the first stone laid in 1613 by Louis XIII. Jacques Desbrosses was the architect. The length of this aqueduct is 1847 feet, its height about 74. It is composed of twenty arcades, with a cornice ornamented with modillions, and surmounted by an attic. The distance between Paris and Rungis, from whence the water is brought, is more than eight miles; this aqueduct supplies thirteen fountains; and near Rungis are the vestiges of that constructed by the Romans.

Aqueduc et Canal de l'Ouëre.—This canal, which is upon an elevation considerably above the Seine, supplies Paris with 972,000 hogheads of water in the course of every twenty-four hours. The length of this canal from its head to Lizy is about twenty-four leagues. In its course it receives the rivulets Grifette, de May, Terrouane, and Bevrone; it terminates in the great basin de la Villette, and is at the same time a port for vessels from the Marne, a reservoir for the people of Paris, and a handsome ornament to the barrier of St. Martin. The celebrated engineer M. Girard is now engaged in bringing the Canal de Courcy to supply Paris with water; magnificent works are constructing, extending from the canal in a line below Montmartre through Mr. Grefnuel's park, which will form a reservoir running the whole length of Paris, and save the expense of steam-engines; one league and a half has already been finished.

The borders of the basin near the barrier of St. Martin are planted with a double row of trees, forming an agreeable promenade in summer; boats are also used on the smooth surface of this fine sheet of water; and in winter, when frozen, it is covered with clouds of skaters darting along in every direction.

Before

Before this fine basin was constructed, the art of *skaiting* was very little known or practised in the French capital. Some young people born in the north, as fond of this exercise as others are of the chafe, used to be reduced to the necessity of skating upon the basins in the Tuilleries, or at the place called La Garre. Many of these, however, not wishing to be confounded with the lowest of the company, contented themselves with remaining spectators. This is now no longer the case; the winter season, so prolific in a variety of diversions, has witnessed this accession of a new one, of which every class are now partakers. No sooner has the north wind begun to set in, than the amateurs of skating find it necessary to consult their thermometers. Even the most circumspect among them seldom wait till the ice is five or six inches thick. It is then that the young and gay of both sexes assemble from all points. The females in their rich furs cautiously venture their trembling feet upon the glassy surface, while the other sex, light as the gossamer, glide across it with the velocity of Eolus. Beneath a tent, a female distributes cakes, brandy, and *cervelats*; while her husband assists the skaiters in putting on their accoutrements.

Another curious winter amusement is recently got up, called *Les Montagnes Russes*, which have been all the rage. These are artificial mountains on which the party slides down in a car with an amazing velocity. It is a favourite amusement in winter on the banks of the Neva; where a timber mountain is constructed, and on its side water, during a keen frost, is poured down, which freezing, forms a slide for the Russian, of which he is amazingly fond. A Frenchman tried this amusement in France: he expended nearly 4000*l.* sterling in making the experiment; it succeeded beyond his most sanguine hopes, and he has realized a fortune of 20,000*l.* by it. This has induced many speculators to invent or construct similar ones. Hence the Illyrian Mountains, the Swiss Mountains, the Falls of Niagara, &c. &c.—In consequence of several accidents having happened, this dangerous amusement was suppressed by the police; but we believe that it has been revived.

FOUNTAINS.—Eighty fountains distribute their pure and gratuitous streams to the numerous inhabitants of this great metropolis. Of these seventeen were constructed by order of Bonaparte; or, as the French would now say, “between the years 1804 and 1812.” The others are ancient. We can describe only a few of the most remarkable.

1. The *Fontaine de Grenelle*, Rue de Grenelle, presents a rich and stately front, though in a very confined situation, and with no exuberance of water. It was built by Bouchardon in 1739; it is of a semicircular form, 90 feet in length, and 36 in height. The City of Paris is represented by a figure sitting on a pedestal; below are two figures emblematic of the Seine and the Marne; all three of white marble. In niches are the Four Seasons. The two spouts of water that issue from this monument are too insignificant for the size of the building.

2. The *Fontaine des Innocens*, is situated in the market of that name, and was erected in 1551, by command of Henry II. from the designs of Jean Goujeon. As this elegant fountain was partly concealed among the adjoining houses, Napoleon had it taken to pieces and reconstructed, carefully preserving, however, the curious bas-reliefs of Goujeon: hence also the letter H and the lilies appear as before, in those parts where N and the eagle might have been expected to have been substituted. The profiles and proportions of this fountain are much admired, as well as the Corinthian elegance of its decorations. It is a perfect square, and rises about ten feet above its basement. Each of its fronts presents an opening with two Corinthian pillars on each side. Upon the pedestal are bas-reliefs; and another above the cornice in the attic crowned by a triangular pediment; and the whole edifice terminates in a cupola covered with sheets of copper formed to resemble the scales of a fish; the height of the whole is 42 feet. Three of the Naiads which have

been added to the bas-reliefs were the work of M. Pajou, in imitation of the one made by Jean Goujeon. At the corners of the lower basement are four lions of lead, from which jets of water are directed into the basins; and yet higher, in the middle of an arch, is another basin, elevated on a pedestal, from the centre of which springs a jet d'eau, and from the side are several little streams. The naiads, water-gods, and tritons, in bas-relief, are remarkable for the gracefulness of their attitudes, the beauty of their forms, their finished execution, and the true antique air of their drapery. Little tablets of black marble bear the inscription, *FONTIUM NYMPHIS; To the Nymphs of the Springs, or Fountains.*

3. *Fontaine du Chatelet.*—In noticing the Egyptian column, which stands in the middle of the Place du Chatelet, p. 601, 2, we omitted to observe, that the column stands in a basin of water, and forms one of the fountains of Paris. The base of the column is composed of a single stone in the centre of the basin. Above that appears the imperial eagle, with a cornucopia on each side terminating in a dolphin's mouth, which spouts out water. Surrounding the foot of the column itself are the statues we have mentioned, which are admirably proportioned, and among them is introduced the Gallic cock. This column is intended to commemorate some of the earlier victories of Bonaparte, the inscriptions being in the following order, beginning from the bottom: *LODI, PYRAMIDES, ULM, DANTZICK.*

4. *Fontaine de l'Ecole de Médecine.*—The form of this fountain is remarkable. It consists of a kind of grotto, formed by four Doric pillars, from the roof of which the water descends like rain, and is received in a semicircular basin at the base.

The *Fontaine St. Eustache*, in the market of that name.—In a niche of a rustic form, surrounded by icicles and incrustations, is placed a vase, whence descends a sheet of water. It is first received in a shell, and thence escapes into a semicircular cistern. Above the shell is placed the head of a Tantalus, crowned with flowers, with his mouth open, and his eyes eagerly fixed on the descending water, which he is utterly unable to reach.

6. The *Fontaine de la Rue Censier.*—A satyr, surrounded by all the attributes of Bacchus, offers the water with an air of derision.

7. The *Fontaine de Popincourt.*—This quarter of the city is industrious, but very poor. The ornaments of the fountain are appropriately chosen: Charity is leading one little child, hiding another in the folds of her robe, and offering the nutritious draught to two others.

8. The *Fontaine de l'Esplanade du Boulevard de Bondi.*—The plan of this immense fountain is simple, and the effect is striking. It is composed of three circular and concentric basins. Four lions pour a stream of water into the uppermost, and thence it pleasingly flows from basin to basin.

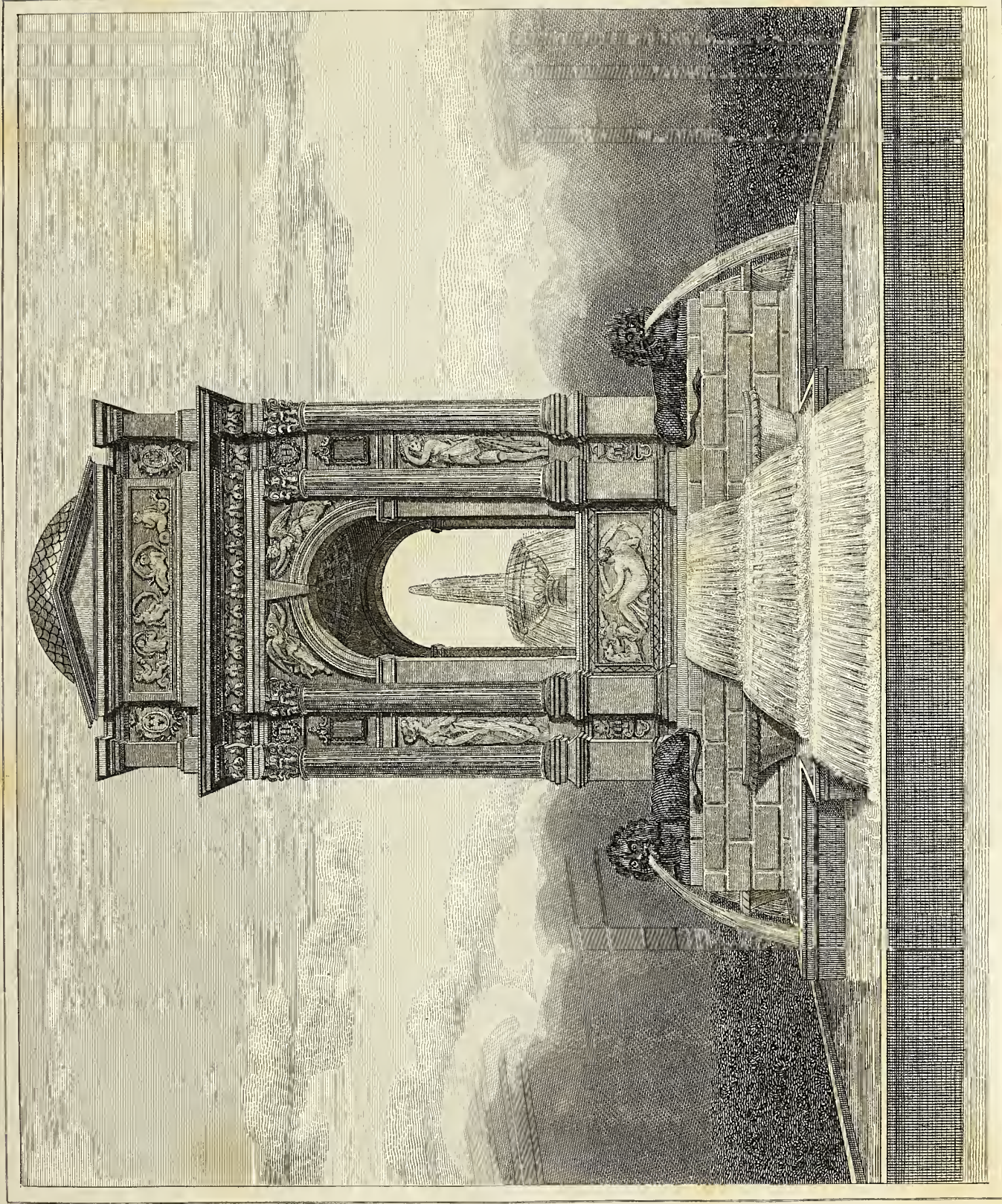
9. The *Fontaine de la Place Royale.*—The only thing remarkable in this fountain is, that the water, in issuing from the jets, forms a beautiful fleur-de-lis. The effect is pleasing, and the imitation perfect.

10. The *Fontaine de St. Martin.*—The new fountain on the Boulevard de St. Martin, is the noblest ornament of the kind in Paris, and derives a considerable degree of beauty from its magnitude, its form, its materials, and its decorations. The form is circular, the ornaments are lions, the materials are granite and bronze, and the quantity of water is abundant. The trees which line the Boulevard are a very pleasing accompaniment.

All these fountains were intended to be surpassed by,

11. The *Fontaine de l'Elephant.*—Near the spot on which the Bastille once stood, is erected an arch, on which was to have been placed an immense elephant of bronze, 72 feet high, with a tower on his back, out of whose trunk the water was to have flowed.

The model is complete, and is exhibited near the spot under an immense shed. The stupendous dimensions of the



Fontaine des Innocents.
Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. May 1821.

the animal may be imagined, when it is mentioned that the staircase to the tower is contained in one of the legs. This undertaking was commenced by order of Bonaparte; but it is probable that the idea will now be relinquished.

Notwithstanding that fountains are so numerous, water for domestic purposes is dear; it is carried about in carts, and sold at a halfpenny a-pailfull. Our convenience of water-pipes under-ground is not known in Paris.

BATHS.—The frequent use of a warm bath is considered by the French as essential to comfort and health. There are baths in almost every part of the town. They consist of ranges of small rooms, each neatly fitted up with a bath, towels, gowns, a fire, and conveniences of every kind. In each bath are two pipes, one for cold and the other for hot water. Every person makes his bath as he pleases; and, if he choose to breakfast, read the papers, or make a morning's lounge in the bath-room, every thing which he can wish is furnished from the house. The charge for the mere use of the bath, the room, and the necessary articles for bathing, is generally 1s. 3d.

On different parts of the Seine are large and elegant house-boats, fitted up as baths in a very complete manner. Each boat, in addition to the baths, contains a kitchen and dining-room. The edge of the boat resembles a little garden, with all sorts of plants, flowers, and trees, birds hanging in cages, and little fountains playing. When lighted up at night, this has a very pleasing effect.

There are also Ecoles de Natation, or swimming-schools, which in the summer are much frequented by the young Parisians. The art of swimming is expeditiously taught, and at a very small expense.

MARKETS and HALLS.—The Markets for provisions, and the Halls for the sale of various articles of merchandise, were formerly mean and badly constructed, in narrow, dark, and dirty, situations, not at all proportioned to the daily increasing extent and population of Paris. Within the last fifteen years, numerous works of this kind were commenced by Bonaparte, which are mostly completed.

La Halle au Bled, the Corn Market.—M. Maizieres constructed this hall in 1562, for the sale of wheat and other corn. It was celebrated for its circular form, the lightness of its arches, the elegance of its architecture, and its pleasing appearance both within and without. This building proving too small, it was resolved to cover the court, although it was no less than 120 feet in diameter. This was accomplished by one immense arch.

Being burnt down in 1802, it has been rebuilt, and covered in such a manner with sheet-copper as to prevent a similar accident; and a large floor under the cupola has been appropriated as a dépôt. The new cupola, justly the theme of universal admiration, and the improvements of this building, cost 800,000 francs. Upon the exterior, and half inserted in one of the walls, is an astronomic column, constructed by order of Catharine de Medicis in 1571; it is 95 feet in height; and at its base is a public fountain, and towards the summit a sun-dial. This market is kept open on Wednesdays and Saturdays for grain, and every day for flour.

Grénier de Réserve, Granary of Reserve.—This immense building was erected in 1807, near the Boulevard Bourdon. It cost more than twelve millions; and is supposed to be capable of containing sufficient corn to supply Paris for six months.

Halle aux Draps, the Cloth Hall, was built in 1786.—The entrance is by a double flight of stairs, and the vast apartments in the interior are lighted by fifty windows. Cloth is sold every day; but linen only occasionally, and then for five days successively, reckoning from the first Monday of each month.

Marché de Vieux Linge, Rag Fair; Rue du Temple.—A multitude of pillars support the four enormous halls of which this immense bazar is composed. It contains 1800 shops, or stalls.

Foire et Depot permanent des Laines, Wool Market.—Vol. XVIII. No. 1259.

This establishment, which began in June 1813, has for its principal object the favouring the progress of one of the most important branches in the rural industry of France, by insuring a ready sale, and setting a certain value upon its productions. Two weekly markets are held here, on Wednesdays and Fridays.

Halle aux Vins, the Wine Hall.—The ancient hall having fallen to utter ruin, Napoleon commanded the first stone of the present magnificent dépôt to be laid in 1811. It is divided into fourteen halls and eighty-one cellars, and will contain 200,000 hogheads of wine. It consists of three large piles of building: the principal of these runs along the Rue St. Victor; but the offices are upon the Quai St. Bernard. All the foreign wine intended for the consumption of Paris is brought to this vast entrepôt.

Halle à la Viande, the Flesh Market; is open on Wednesdays and Saturdays for butchers' meat, and every day for poultry, giblets, &c.

In the *Carreau de la Halle*, near the Rue de la Tonnelerie, from two in the morning till nine, river and sea-fish are sold wholesale. Cheese is sold on Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Saturdays. Bread is also brought here by country bakers, and butter from Gournay and Isigny. Eggs are sold on Wednesdays and Saturdays.

A new market called the *Marché des Prouvaires*, has lately been opened for the sale of butchers' meat. It is on a large scale, and excellently planned. The pork-market is on Wednesday and Saturday.

Marché à la Volaille, the Poultry Market; Rue des Grands Augustins.—Nothing can be more elegant than this edifice, consisting of four galleries, separated by four ranks of pillars, and forming innumerable arcades. Between the pillars are placed iron railings with numerous gates. The building is 190 feet long, and 141 wide. A fresh assortment of poultry and game usually arrives every Monday, Wednesday, Friday, and Saturday.

Marché St. Joseph, St. Joseph's Market; Rue Montmartre.—This little market was built in 1794, on the site of a chapel dedicated to St. Joseph. Molière and La Fontaine had been buried here; and their remains are now trodden under foot by the venders of poultry and fish.

Marché des Innocens, between les Rues de la Ferronnerie et aux Fers.—Here, in the ninth century, a tower was standing for the purpose of warning Paris of the hostile approach of the Normans. This being destroyed, the place was converted into a burial-ground, and more than half of the population of Paris was interred here. A church dedicated to the Innocents was likewise built. In 1785 this church was demolished; and the putrid exhalations which spread around rendered it necessary to shut up the cemetery, which had long been a scandal and a nuisance to the very centre of the city. It was therefore determined to remove the bones, and to convert the vast expanse into a market for vegetables. In the centre is a beautiful fountain, which has already been described.

Marché aux Fruits, the Fruit-market, Quai de Tourneville.—This market is well supplied every day with such fruits as are in season, most part of which arrive by water.

Marché aux Fleurs, the Flower-market; Quai Desaix.—This is the empire of Flora; and the beautiful coup d'œil which it presents in spring-time, on Wednesdays and Saturdays, about five or six in the morning, is scarcely conceivable. Two fountains here are well adapted for watering these flowers, &c. during the heat of summer; the only works of art that are to be seen among these beauties of nature.

Marché St. Germain; Enclos de la Foire.—On a spot which was once occupied by a multitude of the meanest huts, and which was the resort of the lowest orders of the dissolute and abandoned, an edifice, designed as a market, and which promises to be spacious, elegant, and commodious, was begun in 1813, and is probably completed by this time.

Marché aux Chevaux, the Horse Market; Boulevard de l'Hôpital.—Held on the afternoons of Wednesday and Saturday,

turday, from two till four in winter, and till six in summer. Here a very rigid police is employed to verify the state of the horses, and to prevent any from being sold that are unsound, or have any contagious distemper. A register is kept of all that are sold, and the sellers are made responsible for nine days, in case of the horses proving otherwise than warranted when sold.

Marché des Bœufs, Cattle Market.—Held on Mondays at Sceaux, and on Wednesdays at Poissy, two villages near Paris.

Abattoirs, Slaughter-houses.—The slaughter-houses, which are considered the nuisance and disgrace of the English metropolis, are placed in the outskirts of Paris, and under the inspection of the police. The slaughter-house of Montmartre, at the end of Rue Rochechouart, rivals many of the public buildings in its external appearance. It is no less than 1074 feet in length, and 384 in depth, and is watered by sluices from the Ourcq. On entering it, the stranger perceives no disagreeable smell; he witnesses no disgusting sight; and often he would not suspect the purpose to which the building is devoted. The slaughter-houses of Popincourt, Rue des Amandiers, St. Antoine, and of Vaugirard, between the barriers of Sevres and Paillassons, almost rival that at Montmartre.

The above public establishments of markets and slaughter-houses are well worthy the attention of our own government: the paucity and inconvenience of our markets, and the impropriety and danger of having a large cattle-market and slaughter-houses in the very centre of a great city, have long been felt and acknowledged. Where we do not invent, we should not be too proud to imitate.

GATES.—The Greeks and the Romans, and, before them, the Egyptians and the mighty people of Asia, ever eager to display their taste, their zeal, and their prodigality, in adorning the principal cities of their respective kingdoms, were extremely ingenious in the construction of gates, as may be perceived from the testimony of ancient writers, supported by what still remains of this branch of national magnificence. Indeed the gates were not only the protection of the inhabitants within the walls, and the admiration of strangers without, but also high courts of justice, where the elders, and the kings themselves, used to sit in judgment for the execution of the laws; and the Ottoman court has preserved to this day an undeniable proof of the foregoing assertion, in the truly Asiatic style of "The Sublime Porte." The gates of Athens, of Thebes, of Agrigentum, of Syracuse, &c. were undoubtedly wonderful specimens of architecture; and, when the Romans exchanged the manly penuriousness of their republican liberty for the glorious servitude imposed upon them by their magnificent emperors, then the famous seven-hills began to be approached, not by small apertures, flanked with uncouthly-built towers and *propugnacula*, but by sculptured gates and storied triumphal arches. Those of Titus and Vespasian, looking still so proudly upon the havoc made around them by the rapid and devastating hands of barbarity, and the slow but constantly-working scythe of time, have given, in latter days, origin, through a noble imitation, to the erection of the Parisian gates under the reign of Louis XIV. But, of several which have adorned the capital of the French empire, two only remain; the gate of St. Denis and that of St. Martin. Those of St. Antoine, St. Bernard, la Conférence, and a dozen more, having been many years since levelled with the ground.

Gate of St. Denis.—This majestic and elegant structure, after the design of Blondel, master of mathematics to the Dauphin, son of Louis XIV. is a square of 72 French feet. The bay, or principal entrance, twenty-four feet, is flanked by two pyramids, attached to the work, and ornamented with trophies, in the pedestals of which two small gates are elegantly contrived for foot-passengers.

The name of gate is now improperly given to this edifice; it is truly a triumphal arch. It was erected by the city of Paris in commemoration of the uninterrupted se-

ries of victories which distinguished one period of the reign of Louis XIV. On each side of the arch are pyramids in bas-relief, filled with trophies. The arrangement of the different pieces, and the execution of the whole, will scarcely yield to the celebrated column of Trajan. On the side towards the city, colossal figures of Holland and the Rhine sit at the base of the pyramids, and the pediment over the arch represents the passage of the Rhine. Towards the suburbs, the pyramids rest on lions, and the bas-relief over the arch represents the taking of Maastricht. On both sides we read in golden characters the well-known inscription, *LUDOVICO MAGNO*. The whole was erected between the years 1672 and 1674. The execution was entrusted to the famous sculptor, Gerardon; but the latter part of the work is from the hands of Michel Anguier, a most eminent artist at that time. The top of the building is flat and spacious; and many people who have not much to do, nor much money to spare, by ascending a flight of stairs contrived within one of the limbs of this large body, enjoy, on a fine morning, a fine view over the capital, which is but seldom crowned with fog or smoke.

This monument has been regarded as one of the noblest works of the age of Louis XIV. whether we consider the harmony of its proportions, or the admirable execution of all its parts. Having suffered some injury from time and from the ravages of the Revolution, M. Cellerier was employed to repair it. It does much credit to his taste and his modesty, that he has contented himself with restoring its original inscriptions and sculptures, without one addition or embellishment.

On arriving from Calais, you enter Paris by the Porte St. Denis; and it was by the Porte St. Denis that kings and queens made their public entry. On these occasions the houses in all the streets through which they passed were decorated with silk hangings and tapestry, as far as the cathedral of Notre Dame. Scented waters perfumed the air in the form of jets d'eau, while wine and milk actually were made to flow from different public fountains. On the 3d of May, 1814, when Louis XVIII. made his grand entrée into the capital, the Porte St. Denis presented on each side a shield, with the arms of France supported by two figures of Fame. A crown suspended by garlands, defended from the arch, and on this edifice, as on all others, as well as at the doors of most of the houses, the spotless banner waved, decorated with the emblematic lily.

The *Gate of St. Martin*, is at a short distance from that of St. Denis. It was erected in 1674, as a triumphal arch, after the design of Pierre Bullet, a famous architect of that age, at the northern extremity of the street so called from the convent of Benedictines anciently named *St. Martin des Champs*, St. Martin's in the Fields. It is a square building, as to height and breadth on both fronts, of about fifty French feet, with three apertures like Temple Bar; the middle one being fifteen feet wide and thirty high, and the others eight feet wide and sixteen high. The spaces above the smaller arches are occupied by bas-reliefs, representing, towards the city, the taking of Befançon, and the Triple Alliance; and on the side of the suburb, the taking of Limbourg, and the defeat of the Germans. Above is a pediment, and an inscription extending through the whole of the front.

The gate of St. Martin is inferior to that of St. Denis in richness, but it does not yield to it in harmony of proportion, or delicacy of execution. It is the grand entrance into Paris from all parts of Flanders.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.

Since the introduction of machinery into France, chiefly by Englishmen, aided by the discoveries of modern chemistry, and a more extensive knowledge of mechanics, MANUFACTURES of all kinds are now carrying on by large capitalists in the spacious premises of the old monasteries. Twenty-one thousand persons are daily occupied at Paris in spinning, carding, and weaving, of wool, silk, and cotton;

cotton; seven thousand are employed in hosiery; and the Parisian manufactory of porcelain rivals that of Sevres. Even the earthenware is more elegant than ever; and alkalis, mineral acids, and salts, are manufactured at a cheap rate. Taffetas, gauzes, and linen, are rendered water-proof, and also impenetrable by the humidity of the air. Richness of colouring, and the most beautiful designs, are also seen in the stained paper for houses. The workmen of the Faubourg St. Antoine give to steel articles almost all the beauty of English polish. The manufacture of cutlery and fire-arms has also improved in the same proportion. The productions of the goldsmiths and jewellers have long maintained considerable credit in Europe; but now, favoured by the progress in the art of designing, and assisted by the finest models of antiquity, the taste, elegance, and richness, of their works, has no precedent. About 3000 workmen in these branches manufacture to the amount of 27 millions of francs. Breguet, Janvier, and Berthoud, still maintain the reputation of the clock and watch makers of Paris; and the optical, mathematical, and musical instruments are made in the best style. A time-piece in France is a much more frequent article of ornamental furniture than in England; and the number of new watches made annually in the kingdom is not less than 300,000; all together, the value of these different kinds of workmanship amounts to 1,500,000. of which more than the half is made in the capital. The works in bronze, belong still more particularly to the capital; and form, in their different branches and stages, of which gilding is the chief, a farther annual value of 1,500,000. sterling. We shall now describe a few of the chief manufactures more particularly.

1. *The Royal Manufactory of the Gobelins.*—This manufactory stands at the southern extremity of Paris, on the margin of the little river Bièvre, so well known from the numerous mills of every description which are set in motion by its current. It was originally founded by one Gobelin, a dyer, from Rheims, who established himself at Paris in the reign of Francis I. He however confined himself to simply dyeing the worsteds. The celebrated Colbert established the grand work, the weaving of tapestry in imitation of that of Flanders; and it is but justice to say, that the tapestry of the Gobelins now infinitely surpasses that of which it was at first an humble imitation.

The principal subjects on which their looms are employed, are copies of the most celebrated paintings of the French and Italian school: and, for brilliancy of colour and delicacy of execution, their productions are often not far inferior to the originals. The simplicity of the machinery, and the grandeur of the building, are well worthy the attention of the inquisitive traveller. A single piece of tapestry sometimes requires the labour of two years, and has cost nearly 3000. sterling; even then the manufacturers are inadequately remunerated for their skill, industry, and expense.

There is a similar manufactory at Beauvais, which is said to rival the parent institution.

At Quai Billy, is a manufactory of carpets, on the same principle, and of very great ingenuity. Both this and the Gobelins are open to the inspection of the public every day, from ten o'clock until one. The productions of these elegant establishments are necessarily confined to the houses of the most opulent classes of society; or rather, in the present impoverished state of France, they are carried on by the government at a loss; and both are now on a reduced scale, the articles being far too costly for private individuals, who are more frequently purchasers of *passementerie*, by which is understood artificial flowers, fringes, gold and silver lace, with a variety of trifling but tasteful articles, all sufficiently adapted to a city where so much more is thought of display than of utility.

2. *Manufactory des Glaces*, Manufactory of Plate Glass; Rue de Reuilly.—In this establishment are polished and perfected those large plates which are formed at St. Gobin,

and Cherbourg. Colbert established this manufactory also; prior to which, plate-glass was only to be procured at Venice; but now the largest sizes are the production of French artificers. In his time, indeed, the manufactory of St. Gobin was confined to blown glass, the greatest size of which did not exceed ten or twelve square feet; but since M. de Nêhou has invented a method of casting the plates, they are sometimes produced ten feet in length and six or seven in breadth, containing sixty or seventy square feet, and valued at 250l. or 300l. sterling. All the curious processes of this manufactory are open gratis to the public; a staircase entirely of glass is among the wonders of the place.

3. *Royal Porcelaine Manufactory*, at Sèvres, near St. Cloud.—The exquisite productions of this establishment are well known. A few of them have found their way to Great Britain, particularly the service of china presented to Lord Liverpool by Bonaparte. In delicacy of execution and brilliancy of colour, except perhaps in a deep rich purple, some of the English manufactories equal that at Sèvres.

A manufactory resembling that at Sèvres, and not a great deal inferior to it, may be seen at M. Dilh's, Rue du Temple. A third establishment belongs to M. Olivier, Rue de Reuilly. It resembles that of Wedgwood, and in some respects equals or even surpasses it. M. Olivier is principally celebrated for his imitation of Etruscan and other ancient vases, and for porcelain figures, which are accurate copies, in miniature, of some of the most exquisite statues of former times.

4. *Manufactory of Crystals*, Rue Montorgueil.—In this place may be seen entire historic subjects, cut on vases, cups, and ewers, of the most elegant forms; and, like the most skilful engraving, a finish is given to the drawing of the naked figure, to the folds of the drapery, and even to the expression of the countenance. The art of engraving on glass has never been carried to a higher degree of perfection.

5. *Manufactory of Painted Papers*, in Rue Louis le Grand.—Two hundred workmen are daily employed in this manufactory, who execute, in the greatest perfection, every ornament resembling painting, sculpture, or architecture. These productions are in much request, for adorning public chambers, galleries, and theatres. The fancy-papers of the most celebrated London makers are greatly inferior to those at Paris.

6. *Manufactory of Arms.*—The finest establishment of this kind in Europe was that of Versailles, where the stranger was much gratified by inspecting the various departments of the manufactory, and the celerity with which the artificers completed the several engines of destructive warfare. It was destroyed by the Prussians on their second occupation of Paris. It is, however, again re-established, but not on its former scale of magnificence.

The Prussians likewise destroyed the manufactory of powder at Essone, and carried off all the machines and implements, some of which were of a new and improved construction.

7. Wine and brandy (not beer) are the chief drink of the French. But there are at Paris a number of establishments very recently formed for the singular purpose of distilling from potatoes a spirituous liquor which (Chaptal, vol. ii. p. 197.) has been generally approved, and has been brought into competition with brandy.

To judge of the activity and industry of the inhabitants of Paris to its full extent, the stranger should visit the Faubourg St. Antoine, l'Enclos de la Trinité, and the quarters of St. Denis and St. Martin; and there he will see the houses from the top to the bottom occupied by a gay patient crowd, continually employed in the fabrication of a number of articles calculated to administer to luxury and frivolity.

Labour in Paris is as much dearer relatively to the provincial towns of France, as labour in London relatively to those of England. It still remains for us to remove from

from our capital some manufactures which have been most injudiciously established there; but the French have carried this false calculation much farther, Paris being the centre not only of ornamental fabrics, such as jewellery, bronze, sculpture, cabinet-making, &c. but of a number of coarser employments, which a very slight change of plan might transfer to a cheaper quarter. There are at Paris periodical exhibitions of French manufacture held once in three or four years; the last (in August 1819) was very brilliant, and honoured by the presence of the king, the princes, the nobility, and all eminent men of science.

The manufacturing industry of France is confined, far more than ours, to the home-market, whether we look to the supply of the raw material, or to the export of the finished articles. Her imports are large only in cotton and silk; in wool and iron they are not considerable; while in flax, hemp, and leather, they may be termed insignificant. In exports the limitation is still more striking; her hardware, her linen, her woollens, her cotton, her leather, and, in a great measure, her silk, being confined to the home-market; a restriction owing partly to our manufacturing superiority, but more to the capital of our merchants, and their ability to give long credit. The productive industry of France is consequently much less subject than ours to sudden fluctuation. It follows nearly the same routine year after year. On the occurrence of a war, or other political change, the commerce and manufactures of our neighbours, to borrow a phrase of Talleyrand, (Letter to Mr. Fox, 1st of April, 1806.) *se relèvent sur eux-mêmes*. Need more be added, to show the error of those who maintain that, half a century ago, her manufactures were of great amount, that they were almost entirely suspended by the revolution, and indebted for their subsequent revival to the exertions of the government. The fluctuations, at no time of great amount, have related chiefly to the export-trade, and owed their origin to the general hostilities of 1793.

Land-carriage in France costs only from 2s. to 2s. 6d. per cwt. for 100 miles; a cheapness which facilitates the transport of merchandise to the various annual fairs which are still held in every great town in the kingdom, exactly as was done by our forefathers a century ago. This periodical routine begins by the Foire de Longchamps, which is held annually at Paris in spring, and is followed by a long list of provincial fairs, of which the chief are those of Beaucaire in Languedoc, and Guibray in Normandy.

The weights and measures of France were reduced, as is well known, to a very simple and uniform scale soon after the revolution; but there has been much difficulty in accustoming the inhabitants, particularly in country-districts, to the adoption of the new system, which unfortunately preserved none of the names with which they were familiar. In 1812, a kind of compromise took place; government sanctioning the retention of the old names, such as pounds, ounces, ells, and bushels; but requiring that their contents should be calculated by a reference to the decimal standard. It is, accordingly, on this footing that business is now transacted in France.

COMMERCE.—The chief commercial business of Paris is necessarily inland; but it is the centre of exchange transactions for France, foreign as well as inland; as London is for England, and Amsterdam for Holland. The principal business of Paris is carried on by forty respectable banking-houses, and about seven hundred and forty-five mercantile firms. Fifty-four agents of the Exchange take upon themselves the negotiation of public and private business; they alone regulate the course of exchange, the discount upon bills, &c. Every open day at change, they are to be found there from two to four; and every week a chamber of fifteen of the most respectable merchants in point of opulence and character, assemble at the Hotel de Ville, to prepare for government their views and observations upon the means for augmenting the prof-

perity of commerce, &c. For the adjustment of disputes among people in trade, a court is chosen consisting of a president, eight judges, and sixteen *suppléans*; and here some of the principal bankers and merchants are not above giving their attendance.

We shall conclude this section with noticing three literary societies which have been established at Paris for the benefit of agriculture and commerce.

1. The *Bureau des Longitudes*, or Committee of Longitude; at the Observatory, in the Faubourg of St. James.—The labours of the learned men who compose this society have for their object constant astronomical observations at the Observatory, and in the Military School; and for this purpose they have at their disposal all the instruments of which government is possessed. They correspond with other observatories in France and abroad. They are charged with the publication of the "*Connaissance des Temps*," for the use of astronomers and navigators, and with bringing to perfection the discovery of the longitude, and the most scientific way of making and recording astronomical and meteorological observations, &c. The bureau is composed of two geometricians, four astronomers, with four assistants, two retired naval officers, a geographer, and three artists.

2. The *Société d'Encouragement*, or Royal Society for the Encouragement of National Industry; Rue du Bac.—This society, which has not existed more than twenty years, comprises most of the ministers of state, many public functionaries, the first men of property, and the most celebrated literary characters. Its object is to second the efforts of government, for the improvement of French manufactures, agriculture, and industry. At an annual meeting in July numerous prizes are distributed. The more private meetings of the society are held on every alternate Wednesday.

3. The *Agricultural Society*, at the Hotel de Ville.—It is composed of fifty resident members, thirty French, and twenty foreign associates. It is the centre of correspondence for all the agricultural societies in the kingdom; and is occupied, under the superintendence of the minister of the interior, with every thing relative to the improvement of agriculture. It holds its sittings on the first and third Wednesday in every month. The king is the patron, and the comte de Neufchateau president.

INTERESTING OBJECTS IN THE ENVIRONS.

The BOULEVARDS, or Malls.—The Boulevard's were formerly the boundaries of Paris; but, as that city gradually extended itself on every side, parts of them were at length found in the very centre of the population. They consist of a road, or rather of a superb street, as wide as Portland Place, with a row of elms on each side. This road extends through the whole of the city, and nearly round it, forming a circumference of almost seven miles. Little of the national luxuriance of the elms is pruned; and, arching over head, they form a pleasing shade. Some of the walks are carefully gravelled for the accommodation of foot-passengers; and on each side of the malls is an uninterrupted succession of noble mansions, splendid hotels, cafés, restaurateurs, theatres, shops, booths, tea-gardens, flower-gardens, and fountains.

The Boulevards on the north, which are called the Old or Great Boulevards, were begun in 1536, and intended to serve as fortifications against the English, who were ravaging Picardy, and threatening the capital: hence the name *boulevard*, which signifies a bulwark. As the walks were extended, they were soon covered with turf, and were much resorted to for playing at bowls; hence another derivation of the name, *bouler au vert*, to bowl upon the green, or, in short, a bowling-green.

The Great or North Boulevards were first planted about the year 1660; the trees have therefore attained a majestic size. Some of those on the south side of the river were not completed till 1761; but the walks are wider, and the trees more luxuriant.

The

The principal charm of the Boulevards consists in the gay and festive crowd which constantly fills them, and the inexhaustible fund of amusement which every step supplies. From noon until night they are the favourite resort of the Parisians of every description. In the heat of the day, and the early part of the evening, the walks are lined with a double or treble row of chairs, occupied by various groups, reading, chatting, drinking, smoking, or gazing on the pedestrians. The Parisian *petit-maitre* is always to be seen here, carelessly lolling with his legs on one chair, while a second supports his body, and his arm is, with studied negligence, thrown over a third. The chairs are hired at a *sous* each.

At the side of the malls is a motley and indescribable group, which contributes not a little to the amusement and interest of the scene. Ballad-singers, dancing-children, and dancing-dogs, tumblers, posture-masters, conjurors, puppet-showmen, merry-andrews, players, and fortune-tellers, stand in long and interminable succession; each unweariedly exerting himself to please, and thankful for the few *sous* which are occasionally thrown to him. Trades and commodities seem all to have deserted the houses. Not only birds in cages, and flowers and trees in pots, but the choicest prints and books, articles of dress and furniture, add their hues and their interests to the groups. *Bureaux des écrivains* (letter-writers) offer the most pressing invitations to the lover, the merchant, the politician, or the man of science, who has by some accident omitted to learn to write, to enter and avail himself of the talents which are in readiness for any employment. Roasted chestnuts every-where tempt the palate, by assailing the nostrils. Flower-girls, that will take no denial, push nosegays into your hand. The fruit-women extend towards you delicious bunches of grapes; the shoe-blacks flatter the national prejudices of the English, by bawling aloud *Cirage Anglois!* A man carries a painted castle on his back, from which you may draw such delicious beverage as lemonade, tisane, &c. Add to these, musicians performing on every instrument which the art of man has invented to please or torture the ear; professors of natural philosophy, who contrive to make their hydrostatic experiments sufficiently impressive on the visages and clothes of their auditors; the sage diviners of the lucky numbers of lottery-tickets; men with castles inhabited by white mice, who play a thousand antics in the different apartments; fortresses, guarded by a regiment of canary-birds, who perform their different evolutions with the precision of veterans; and last, not least, caricaturists, or *grimaciers*, who change the human face divine into a rapid succession of odd and inconceivably-grotesque forms, which no risible muscles can possibly withstand.

Towards night the crowd increases, and almost the whole extent of the Northern Boulevards, from that of the Capuchins to St. Antoine, forms one closely-wedged moving mass. Dancing now commences in the booths, and the gardens by the side of the walks; every angle and nook of the Boulevards, on which the crowd does not press, is occupied by a group lightly tripping to the music of some guitar or violin. The stalls are tastefully, if not splendidly, lighted up. Each candidate for public favour displays his lamp or his candle, and redoubles his efforts to attract attention. The face of every passenger is clothed with smiles; the Parisian has forgotten the vexations and fatigues of the day, and abandons himself to the dominion of pleasure. No city in Europe habitually presents so lively and amusing a spectacle. It is only exceeded at Naples or at Venice, and then only in carnival-time.

The Southern Boulevards are not so much frequented, and will be visited by the stranger when he wishes for a pleasant and more solitary walk.

The animating features of the Boulevards, always interesting, were strikingly so, in the summer of 1815, after the celebrated battle of Waterloo. "Parties of Russian

cuirassiers, Prussian lancers, and Hungarian hussars; Cossacks old and young, from the grey-beard to the beardless boy, cantering along after their singular fashion, their long lances poised on their stirrups, and loosely fastened to their right arms, vibrating over their heads; long files of Russian and Prussian foragers, and long trains of Austrian baggage-waggons, winding slowly through the crowd; idle soldiers of all services, French as well as allied, lounging about in their loose great-coats and trowsers, with long crooked pipes hanging from their mouths; patrols of infantry parading about under arms, composed half of Russian grenadiers, and half of Parisian national guards. Russian coaches and four, answering to the description of Dr. Clarke, the postillions riding on the off-horses, and dressed almost like beggars; Russian carts drawn by four horses abreast, and driven by peasants in the national costume; Polish Jews, with long black beards, dressed in black robes like the cassocks of English clergymen, with broad leathern belts; all mingled with the Parisian multitude upon the Boulevards; and, in the midst of this indiscriminate assemblage, all the business and all the amusements of Paris went on with increased alacrity and fearless confidence." *Travels in France*, vol. i. p. 19.

Although the environs of Paris do not afford that variety of magnificence to be found in the vicinity of our own metropolis, yet there are many objects well worthy of attention, whose parallel would be in vain sought for in the neighbourhood of London, or, indeed, of any other city in the world. The most interesting part of the suburbs of Paris, and that which deserves especially to be visited, is the road through the Tuileries, and Champs Elysées, to the Bois de Boulogne, about three or four miles distant. The suburb of Montmartre partakes of the magnificent; and an afternoon or two will be agreeably spent in the Champ de Mars, and its vicinity.

BOULOGNE.—The village of Boulogne, about six miles from Paris, was well known in the annals of superstition. Certain pilgrims, on their return from a holy journey to the chapel of Our Lady at the seaport of the same name, founded a religious house here, and gave the present village, then called *Mêmes le St. Cloud*, the appellation which it now bears. It is from this village that the adjoining forest derives its name, being formerly called the Forest of Rouvnet.

The name of the *Bois de Boulogne* would lead the traveller to expect lofty trees and luxuriant foliage; but much of the fine wood which once adorned it is destroyed, and it is now merely an extensive copse, thinly scattered with young plants.

An annual procession, called the *Promenade de Long Champ*, draws together the Parisians of every rank. In former times, nuns from the neighbouring convent went in grand procession through the wood. It is now nothing but a long string of coaches, carts, cabriolets, and horsemen. Every one puts on all his finery, and seems determined to be gay and merry.

This wood is frequently the scene of the royal hunt; and to the English sportsman a more tame and ludicrous business can scarcely be conceived. The park is sufficiently enclosed on every side to prevent the possibility of the escape of the animal from its narrow limits; it has innumerable avenues of trees, and in every principal avenue a person is placed to watch the direction which the deer takes, and communicate the intelligence to the royal hunters. The sport, therefore, consists in galloping up and down these walks, without the possibility of a leap in a run of many a mile. When the Prussians pitched their tents on this spot in 1815, they destroyed much of the timber for fire-wood.

The wood, or park, is a fashionable morning-ride for the dandies: it is, in short the *Parisian Hyde Park*, in which the fashionable equestrian, upon his Norman hunter,

With heel insidiously aside,
Provokes the canter which he seems to chide.

The villa of *Bagatelle* stands on the borders of the Bois de Boulogne, and near the banks of the Seine. It was built by Bellanger, whose designs unite at once grandeur and grace. Three court-yards lead to the pavilion, from the innermost of which a flight of steps conducts to the grand entrance, splendidly embellished with columns. The saloon is ornamented with exquisite bas-reliefs, and other specimens of art in the Italian style. On the left of this apartment is the bathing-room, fitted up in the most tasteful manner, and decorated with several large paintings from the pencil of Robert. The second apartment is a boudoir, embellished with six pictures by Collet. The mansion also contains a handsome billiard-room. The furniture of the sleeping-apartment is completely *en militaire*, consisting of trophies, and every attribute connected with war. The inscription on the portal gives the true character of the place; *Parva, sed apta*. The different windows present the most enchanting views in every direction, comprising the windings of the Seine, the abbey of Longchamp, the bridge of Neuilly, and the Valerian Mount. The garden always delights by the variety and beauty of the objects which it presents. Temples, grottos, bufs, are scattered with tasteful profusion; and nothing is wanting to complete the beauty of the scene.

Bagatelle, which was the property of the count d'Artois, suffered during the reign of revolutionary fury; but it has since been restored to all its original perfection, and is again become the property of its ancient possessor.

Two deserted and now half-demolished royal mansions, are situated in the Bois de Boulogne; the *Chateau of La Muette*, a favourite residence of Louis XV. and *Madrid*, built by Francis I. soon after his return from captivity in Spain.

Passy.—This delightful village is situated upon an eminence on the banks of the Seine, between Paris and the Bois de Boulogne. It is esteemed for its mineral waters, the salubrity of its air, and the most charming views in every direction. In this village are many handsome houses, one of which was the residence of the celebrated Dr. Franklin after his return from America. At the extremity of Passy is a spacious esplanade covered with turf, whence the view of several fine structures presents a most agreeable contrast with the wavy verdure of the Bois de Boulogne, which in this direction assumes a very picturesque appearance.

Anteuil, a little to the south of Passy, dates its origin from very remote antiquity, and was formerly celebrated for the excellence of its wines. If it has, however, lately lost much of its reputation on this score, it will never be deprived of the fame which it derives from having been the retreat of numerous persons eminent for their talents and their virtues; among whom may be reckoned the satirist Boileau, the learned Helvetius, the inimitable La Fontaine, the witty Molière, and the tragedian Racine. In the church-yard is a pleasing monument to the chancellor d'Aguesseau.

MALMAISON.—Directly west from the Bois de Boulogne, and about nine miles from Paris, on the road to St. Germain-en-Laye, stands the chateau of Malmaison, celebrated as having been long the residence of the emperor Napoleon, and afterwards of the empress Josephine. It had a gallery filled with some of the finest paintings and sculpture in France, and a most beautiful English garden. But Malmaison in 1815 was delivered up to the savage fury of the Prussians, who, assisted by British bayonets, destroyed pictures, statues, plants, &c. and made this terrestrial paradise a scene of ruin and destruction.

The abbé Delille has immortalized the rivulet of Malmaison. It is not, however, the stream which flows through the gardens that employed his pen, but a little rivulet winding through a long avenue of spreading chestnut-trees.

MARLY.—About a mile farther west is the village of Marly. At the foot of a superb cascade, and below the most delightful gardens, formerly stood a sumptuous cha-

teau, the residence of Louis XIV. It was demolished during the reign of revolutionary fury. On its site now stands a cotton-mill. The park and gardens, however, still retain much of their original beauty, and will not disappoint the traveller's expectation.

The principal curiosity of the place is the machine of Marly, to supply Marly and Versailles with water from the Seine. It was constructed by Renneguin Sualem. It raises the water to the astonishing height of 600 feet, and discharges nearly 30,000 hogheads in twenty-four hours. See the article *MARLY*, vol. xiv. p. 384.

The chateau of *Luciennes*, near the machine of Marly, was built by Le Doux, in three months, for the residence of Madame du Barry. The delightful prospect which the place affords, the talents of the architect, the sculptures, the paintings, and decorations, all united to make Luciennes a model of magnificence, elegance, and beauty. Since the Revolution, however, almost every moveable has been sold, the bas-reliefs have been mutilated, the fine cornices broken, and the hand of anarchy has left its destructive traces on every work of art. The entrance presents a peristyle of four pillars with niches, in which are marble statues and a bas-relief representing a group of Bacchanalian Children. From the sumptuous saloon the eye is gratified by the view of an extensive tract of country. On the left is St. Germain, on the right Paris, and in front Vevinch and St. Denis, with the river Seine in all its delightful meanderings.

Setting out again from Boulogne, we soon reach the village and palace of

St. Cloud.—This place derives its name from very remote antiquity. Clodoald, or St. Cloud, grandson of Clovis, having escaped when his brothers were murdered, retired to this place to avoid the persecution of his uncles, and founded a monastery at the village of Nogent, now called from him St. Cloud.

The palace of St. Cloud is justly celebrated for its beautiful prospect, its gardens, its park, its cascades, and the master-pieces of painting and sculpture which it contains. It stands on a steep declivity overhanging the Seine, and commands an extensive prospect of mingled wildness and beauty. The situation is picturesque and romantic, and worthy of becoming the favourite residence of the monarchs of France.

The entrance to the palace is by an extensive court, composed of a great range of buildings, and a façade 144 feet in length, and 72 in height. Two pavilions at the extremity form the commencement of two wings less elevated. The ascent to the state apartments is by the grand staircase to the left, the pillars and balustrades of which are composed of the choicest marble.

The ex-emperor preferred this place of residence to every other, and decorated it with all that inventive luxury was capable of producing; for it was in the halls of this palace that the directory was annihilated, and himself chosen consul, and here he properly commenced his wonderful career: and here also he may be said to have ended it, if indeed it be ended; for here the second capitulation of Paris was signed, (of which we shall in another part of this article speak more particularly,) which blasted his schemes of aggrandisement, and devoted him to imprisonment on the rock of St. Helena.

It would be difficult to convey any idea of the unparalleled splendour of the interior of this palace: gold, velvet, the most costly stuffs richly draped, adorn the walls, together with looking-glasses of prodigious dimensions, works in bronze, and master-pieces in every branch of the imitative arts ancient and modern. Guérin's celebrated Phædra hangs in the apartment where Bonaparte held his council; the arm-chair here, completely covered with carving and gilding, in which he used to sit, is also a great curiosity. All the embellishments on both the arms are cut and scratched to pieces; for that restless spirit, which was continually impelling him to the work of destruction, allowed him even here not a moment of repose;

repose; he kept hacking away incessantly at the chair with his pen-knife, so that he broke one almost every day. By his command the most exquisite productions of art were brought alternately from the grand magazine of plunder, the Louvre, to St. Cloud, that he might enjoy them exclusively. All the apartments were by him adorned with a magnificence becoming a royal residence. The empress Maria Louisa's chamber is a fairy-palace, and her boudoir the cabinet of the Graces.

The *gardens* are universally admired. Nature and Art combine to render them highly picturesque and beautiful. Antique and modern statues, temples, altars, sheets of water, groves, and parterres of flowers, are tastefully arranged in every direction; while an extensive and pleasing landscape opens to the view, and the whole city of Paris displays itself, intersected by the Seine, whose innumerable windings give peculiar interest to the prospect. The most striking object is the cascade. It is divided into two parts. The upper cascade is 108 feet wide, and the same in height. Its head is decorated by sculptures of a river-god, and a naiad, representing the Seine and the Marne. The sheets of water which proceed from them unite as they fall into a great shell in the centre, whence flow nine other sheets, which, in their descent into a large basin, assume many fantastic forms. An alley divides the upper from the lower cascade. Three distinct sheets of water here fall into a circular basin, thence into a second and a third, and lastly into a canal ornamented with a variety of jets. In the intervals between the cascade are enormous leaden figures, representing dolphins, frogs, &c. which spout large quantities of water to an immense distance. In one place a number of jets intersect each other in a pleasing manner, and on the right a single jet rises to the height of 97 feet.

St. Cloud is much frequented, especially on Sundays. An auberge at the foot of the bridge affords rest and refreshment. The annual fête is on the three first Sundays after the 7th of September. The gardens are then filled with booths of every description, and the whole population of Paris crowds to a scene at all times delightful, and now enlivened by joy and festivity.

Leaving St. Cloud, and walking through the park, the visitor will arrive at a gate exactly opposite the celebrated porcelain-manufactory of Sevres, which has been already noticed. We are then on the road which leads directly to

VERSAILLES.—This enchanting place, which in the time of Louis XVI. contained near 100,000 persons, was formerly but an inconsiderable village. It is about twelve miles from Paris; and the road leading to it is perhaps the finest and most elegant in the world.

The *palace* is the first object which naturally attracts the curiosity of a traveller. It is built on an elevated site, and displays on all sides a gorgeous and massy pile. The following is the account given of its origin. Louis XIII. purchased the land of John de Soissy in 1627, and erected upon it an uncouth hunting-seat, part of which still exists; but Louis XIV. was the founder of that magnificent piece of architecture, which has always excited the admiration of foreigners. Delighted with the position of the chateau, he collected together a number of skilful artists, and converted the village into a city, and the hunting-seat into a vast palace, which united every thing that was most exquisite in art and taste to splendour and magnificence. The work commenced in 1673; and the buildings of the park and gardens were completed in 1680, during the ministry of the great Colbert. The artists employed were Mansard for the architecture and management of the erections; André le Nôtre for the arrangement and decoration of the gardens; and Charles le Brun, for the departments of painting, design, and the arts dependent on them.

The *stables*, which were planned by Mansard, were commenced in 1679, and completed in 1685; they are remarkable for the regularity of their structure, and are relieved by some good pieces of sculpture. The buildings will contain from 4 to 5000 horses.

After having traversed the Place d'Armes, you enter the first court, called the Court of the Ministers. From this court you next enter that of the Palace, the right wing of which was rebuilt on a new plan. This court is terminated by the Marble Court, so called because it was paved with squares of coloured marble. On its lateral angles are two arcades, one of which leads to the south, and the other to the north, terrace. From the latter side is a vestibule decorated in the Ionic order, with a ceiling in compartments which leads to the chapel, the opera-house, and the theatre. On the right of the vestibule, in the space between the pillars, is a bas-relief of the celebrated Puget, representing Alexander in the presence of Diogenes. This piece of sculpture is considered as a chef-d'œuvre. We next proceed along the north terrace, in order to view the extent of the palace and its decorations. It is above 800 feet in length, and is composed of a ground-floor, a first story, and an attic, ornamented with Ionic pilasters, and crowned at the summit with vases and trophies.

The first apartment, the Saloon of Hercules, the admiration of foreigners, and the glory of the French school, is sixty-four feet in length and fifty-four broad, superbly decorated, and enriched with a painted ceiling, representing Olympus and all the heathen deities, and the apotheosis and labours of Hercules. The second apartment is the Hall of Plenty, in which are several paintings. From this apartment you enter the Hall of Diana; the ceiling of which is painted, and represents the Moon, under the figure of Diana, on a car drawn by two flags, and accompanied by the Hours, and the attributes of the Chase and of Navigation. In the fourth apartment, which is called the Hall of Mars, Audran has painted on the ceiling this deity in his car, surrounded by all his martial attributes; and Jouvenet and Houasse have likewise executed four paintings analogous to this subject. The next apartment is the Hall of Mercury, with a ceiling painted by Champagne, after the designs of Le Brun, representing this heathen divinity on his car, surrounded by his characteristic attributes. This room possesses many pictures. The hall of Apollo comes next, with a ceiling which represents the God of Day seated in his car, with all his attributes. Adjoining to the grand gallery is the Saloon of War, the ceiling of which is by Le Brun, and its subject Bellona and her attributes.

In no part of Europe is there any apartment to be compared with the Grand Gallery of Versailles, either for taste, arrangement, or magnificence. The architecture and paintings were designed by Le Brun. It is 222 feet in length, 30 in breadth, and 37 in height, and contains seventeen large windows; opposite which are as many arcades with glasses within that reflect the gardens and their water-pieces, and all the objects in the gallery. Between the arcades and the windows are forty-eight pilasters of rance-marble, the bases and composite capitals of which are of bronze gilt. The centre of the dome represents, by symbolical figures and allegories, in nine large and eighteen smaller paintings, the most remarkable epochs of the reign of Louis XIV. from the year 1661 to 1678; such as the conquests of Holland and Franche-Comté, the passage of the Rhine, &c. There are inscriptions which mark the subject and the year. These different pieces are distributed into compartments of a beautiful architecture. The genii of the Arts and Sciences are occupied in decorating the place with carpets and garlands. The cornice is ornamented with trophies, to which infants are hanging flowers. Two grand arcades, ornamented with four columns and eight pilasters, embellish the entrance into this superb gallery; the pilasters are separated by pedestals en faillie, supporting vases.

The gallery is terminated by the Saloon of Peace, which formed a part of the apartments of Marie Antoinette, and is of the same shape and dimensions as the Saloon of War. It contains a painting of Le Brun, in which France is represented seated on an azure globe, in a car borne on a cloud,

cloud, and crowned by Glory. Peace and the Loves join together several turtle-doves bearing on their necks medallions, symbols of the alliances which occurred during the reign of Louis XIV. The ornaments in relief are of gilded bronze. Beyond this saloon two other apartments complete this grand and magnificent suite.

The *opera-house* is a grand structure, though much fallen to decay: it no doubt once combined taste with splendour; the orchestra is large enough to contain eighty musicians.

The *chapel* of the palace was finished in the year 1710, and is a superb monument of the munificence of Louis XIV. The grand altar-piece is composed entirely of scarce marble, and decorated with a Glory, with angels worshipping on each side; the whole in bronze, gilt. This chapel has been preserved with great care from the havoc of the revolution, and has moreover been repaired and beautified very recently.

The *park and gardens* next claim our attention. The palace is surrounded towards the west by three inclosures; the last of which, called the Great Park, is about thirty miles in circumference. The circuit of the Little Park comprises several farms; and this property and Trianon are inclosed at the two extremities of the two arms of the canal, while the centre is cut by a large quantity of handsome avenues, with four rows of trees. The most noble entrance into the park is by the great stairs of the green-house, but the shortest course is from the grand terrace by the lateral arcades of the palace. When the water-works play, the coup d'œil is exquisite; and a traveller will therefore endeavour to pay his visit at that time: they are set playing about once a month, and the time may be known by application at Paris. By placing yourself on the middle of the parterre, by the water-piece, you see in front, beneath the two combats of beasts, the basons of Latona, of Apollo, and the canal; to the right, the parterre of the north, called the Parterre of Flowers, the Fountain of the Pyramid, the Cascade, a sheet of water terminated by the Bason of the Dragon, and by the great piece of Neptune, to the left, the parterre and the green-house. Various parts of the gardens are ornamented with groves, groups, antique statues, baths, vases, basons, and fountains, in marble, bronze, or metal gilt. The principal groves are the rock or bath of Apollo, the colonnade, the domes, and the three fountains.

Among the various groups which are scattered about the gardens, there are two by Puget, in which the skill of the artist has been pre-eminently distinguished; these are, Milo of Crotona, and Perseus delivering Andromeda. The great piece of Neptune is a vast and magnificent bason of water, ornamented with five groups, and twenty-two great vases of bronzed metal. The principal groups represent Neptune and Amphitrite, Proteus, and the Ocean. The green-house and hot-house are very good buildings. The parterre, decorated with a large piece of water and two marble vases, is surrounded with a considerable number of orange-trees, several of which are as old as the time of Francis I. The hot-house is constructed with great simplicity, and consists of a gallery lighted by twelve arched and two oblique windows, which communicate with the one at the top. Opposite to the green-house, and beyond the Little Park, is a large bason, 2100 feet in length, and 730 in breadth, called the *Pièce des Suisses*, at the extremity of which is an equestrian statue representing Quintus Curtius devoting himself for his country. The canal is about 4800 feet in length and 192 wide; the two branches, each of which is 1530 feet long, join on one side Great Trianon, and on the other the Menagerie.

There are many objects worthy of attention at Versailles besides the palace. Among these may be named the public official buildings, the theatre, public baths, and a superb manufactory of arms. Volumes indeed have been written upon the subject, with engravings of various parts of the palace, the stables, the gardens, water-works, &c.

Trianon—is within the enclosure of the park of Versailles, on the right of the great canal; and was built by Mansard, at the command of Louis XIV. on the spot where the village of Trianon formerly stood. The front is 384 feet in length. Between the windows are elegant pilasters of Languedoc marble, of the Ionic order. Two wings are terminated by two pavilions, which are united by a peristyle, composed of twenty-two columns of red marble. The roof, in the Roman style, is surrounded by balustrades, ornamented with vases and groups of little Cupids.

The interior of the palace corresponds with its exterior embellishments. The gallery and billiard-room contain some exquisite views of the scenery of the gardens and park. The gardens form the principal charm: they are tasteful and luxuriant beyond description. Every beautiful shrub and flower of every climate blooms here: it is in truth a fairy scene. It used to be said of the three principal gardens planted by Louis XIV. that Versailles was the garden of waters; Marly the garden of trees; but Trianon the garden of flowers.

Little Trianon.—This small palace, situated at one of the extremities of the park of Great Trianon, consists of a pavilion, in the Roman style, forming a complete square. Each front measures about eighty feet in length, consisting of two stories above the ground-floor. Each front exhibits a different specimen of architecture. The whole is decorated with the Corinthian order, and crowned with a fine balustrade; the columns and pilasters being fluted from the top to the bottom. The most delicate and finished taste is observable in the construction of this edifice, which was built by Gabriel, at the command of Louis XV. The several suites of apartments display a corresponding grandeur. The pleasure-grounds consist of gardens, laid out in the English and French taste; being diversified with statues, orangeries, a musical saloon, grottoes, temples, cottages, cascades, and canals. The gardens are now, however, going to decay. The little Temple of Love, among artificial rocks, and embowered amid the thickest trees, has been pillaged. The cottages are dilapidated, and the lake is almost dry.

This little palace was the favourite resort of the unfortunate Marie Antoinette.

Saint Cyr.—This village, situated about three miles from Versailles, was long celebrated for an institution, established by Louis XIV. under the title of the Royal Society of St. Cyr, for the education of the female nobility. Its first abbess was the famous Mad. Maintenon, who there ended her days. This institution was abolished of course at the Revolution, and the building appropriated to the reception of wounded soldiers. It has since been converted into a school of public instruction.

Turning to the south-east, and again approaching the Seine, we come to the palace, or castle, of

Bellevue,—which was built by the orders, and under the direction, of Mad. de Pompadour, mistress of Louis XV. This chef d'œuvre of architecture, to embellish which all the celebrated artists of the time united their talents, was completed in the short space of two years. The park and garden are highly and fancifully ornamented. Nothing can be grander than the prospect from the northern terrace. The view of Paris, of the Bois de Boulogne, and of the Seine, which winds in a thousand directions, and forms as many canals, has very properly bestowed on this delightful spot the name of *Bellevue*.

Bellevue was inhabited by the aunts of the late unfortunate monarch, and shortly after their departure from France it was transformed into a prison. The furniture and all the exquisite works of art were wantonly defaced or destroyed, or sold. The saloon alone escaped the general destruction, being used by the commanding officer of the day as his apartment.

RUELLE.—This is a large village seven miles west of Paris, situated at the foot of a delightful hill, and containing 3000 inhabitants. The chateau and park are very magnificent,

magnificent, and the barracks are some of the noblest in the vicinity of Paris.

ISSY is a village situated on a little hill about three miles west from Paris, and not far from the Seine. It derives its name from an ancient temple dedicated to Isis, no vestige of which now remains, unless some Roman building in the cellars of the seminary of St. Sulpice may be considered as part of it. The ancient palace of Childbert yet stands on an eminence opposite to the church, and is an interesting gothic structure. Here the admirable actresses Madlle. Clairon resided, and was often visited by the most celebrated characters of the times. It was here that the cardinal de Noailles, Bossuet, Fenelon, and Tronson, assembled, to hold those meetings known under the name of the "Conferences of Issy."

MEUDON.—About three miles south-west from Issy stands the village of Meudon, dating its origin from the earliest period of antiquity. The palace stands upon an eminence commanding an extensive view of Paris and its environs. The stranger arrives at the edifice by a very fine avenue, at the end of which is a superb terrace, serving as a court-yard to the building, which was originally erected by the cardinal de Lorraine, in the sixteenth century, after the designs of Philibert de Larma. When Mons. de Louvois became the possessor of Meudon, he employed Mansard to superintend the formation of the terraces and moats, and the grand entrance.

The front of the palace presents a most majestic coup d'œil. It is ornamented with arcades and pilasters. The centre pavilion, which is rounded off at the extremities, projects from the main façade of the edifice, and is adorned with a second order of pilasters and bas-reliefs, representing the four seasons. The whole terminates with a pediment, upon which are two recumbent statues, and an octagonal vaulting which supports a terrace. The apartments of this palace are numerous, and decorated in the most sumptuous manner; while the gardens, which were embellished by Le Nôtre, are laid out in the very best style of that celebrated French gardener. Delille has immortalized them in his beautiful poems. The view from the terrace is one of the most interesting in the neighbourhood of Paris.

CHATILLON is charmingly situated one mile south-east of Meudon. The prospect, although not very extensive, is pleasingly diversified, presenting the course of the Seine, Mount Valerian, Vincennes, the heights of Montmartre, and the city of Paris. It is crowded with chateaux.

BAGNEUX, a little more to the east, is pleasantly situated on a plain overlooking the road to Orleans, four miles from Paris. It contains numerous chateaux, the most superb of which belong to Messrs. Bailly and Cordier. About a mile to the north is

ARCEUIL, about three miles from Paris, on the little river Bièvre, where is a magnificent aqueduct, the architecture of which may be compared with the finest specimens that Italy can afford. Mary de Medicis caused this fabric to be built after the designs of Jacques Desbrosses, to convey the waters of Runges for the use of the inhabitants of Paris. The aqueduct consists of twenty arches. It is 400 yards in length, and 24 in height. A spring in the neighbourhood of Arcueil has the property of depositing a stony crust on small bodies immersed in it. Little pieces of wood, apples, and peaches, are frequently thrown into it, which in a short time assume the appearance of pleasing petrifications.

GENTILLY, about a mile north of Arcueil, on the banks of the river Bièvre, only a mile from the barrier of Italy, is one of the most ancient villages about Paris. The kings of the first dynasty had a palace here; and the beautiful Diana of Poitiers long inhabited a chateau in the neighbourhood. These royal residences are now no more; but numerous country-houses are seen, and the guinguettes are crowded on every festival.

On the road from Paris to Gentilly, are the ruins of

an ancient aqueduct, which is said to have been erected by the emperor Julian to convey water to his Palace of Thermes, situated in the Rue de la Harpe, at Paris.

Turning now again to the south, we come to IVRY, at an equal distance from Bagneux and Arceuil. It is sometimes called Mont Ivry, being on the summit of one of the little hills that enrich the left bank of the Seine. It is crowded with country-seats; the most elegant of which belongs to comte Jaubert. The annual fête is on the first Sunday in May.

BOURG LA REINE is two miles south of Ivry, on the road to Orleans. Henry IV. had a palace here, to which he retired as often as he could escape from the cares of government. This palace is now a seminary for the education of young ladies. The room in which the monarch used principally to reside is still shown.

SCEAUX is just below Bourg la Reine. It formerly contained a magnificent castle, belonging to the duke of Penthievre, the very ruins of which have almost disappeared. Part of the garden remains, and is a favourite promenade of the Parisians. The market, by which Paris is principally supplied with cattle, is held here every Monday. On every Sunday, from the 1st of May to the 1st of November, the park and garden are crowded by the middle and lower classes of the Parisians. Dancing commences in the evening, in a spacious rotunda, and is continued until a late hour.

RUNGES is more directly south, being eight miles from Paris on the road to Fontainebleau; and is principally remarkable as the source of the waters which the aqueduct of Arcueil conveys to Paris.

CHARENTON is more to the north-east, and two leagues from Paris, on the road to Troyes. It contains an institution for lunatics, to the number sometimes of 400. An ancient castle in Charenton once belonged to the celebrated Gabrielle d'Estrées. Most of the chateaux afford a pleasing prospect of the surrounding country.

VITRY.—This pleasant village is three miles south of Charenton, on the road to Choisy. It contains numerous country-seats, and is surrounded by extensive nurseries for fruit-trees and flowering shrubs. Its annual fête is on Whitsunday.

CHOISY LE ROI—is about three miles south of Vitry, still on the banks of the Seine. It is defended by hills from the scorching winds of the south. The air is remarkably salubrious, and the view is agreeable and picturesque. It contains more than three hundred elegant houses, built in the same style of simple architecture.

A magnificent palace formerly decorated Choisy, which, after passing into the possession of several of the noblesse, was purchased by Louis XV. It was occasionally visited by Mad. de Pompadour, accompanied by her royal lover. Of this sublime structure and its beautiful gardens not a vestige now remains: but manufactories of earthenware, Spanish leather, and mineral acids, occupy its site. The fair or fête is at the end of August, and is superior to most in the neighbourhood of Paris. Boats go to Choisy from the bridge of the Garden of Plants; and stages from the Porte St. Antoine.

Turning now north-east, and crossing two arms of the Seine, we come to

St. MAUR, which is only a short league from Paris, in a peninsula formed by the river Marne. It is celebrated in history on account of the massacre of the Christians by the troops of Attila. The witty and licentious Rabelais here composed his Pantagruel. In this place the Brothers of the Passion first performed their mysteries. The chateau was built by Catherine de Medicis. The front towards the garden still retains its ancient architecture; but the rest of the palace is modern, and decorated in the most sumptuous manner; while the gardens, which were embellished by the famous Le Nôtre, are laid out in a style that confers honour upon his acknowledged talents. A canal has been commenced here to shorten the navigation

of the Marne. The tunnel, through a hill more than half a mile in length, is almost completed.

BRIE SUR MARNE—is beautifully situated on the summit of a little hill on the banks of the Marne, nine miles directly east from Paris. The principal chateau is an elegant building. The park is extensive, and affords some extremely-picturesque views. To the west of this is

NOGENT SUR MARNE, a large village agreeably situated on the summit of one of the little hills that border the Marne, six miles from Paris. A little more to the west is

VINCENNES.—This village is four miles and a half from Paris. It is of the remotest antiquity, and was inhabited by many of the early kings and queens of France. The palace, which was erected by Francis I. had the appearance, and possessed all the advantages, of a fortress; particularly that part denominated the Dungeon. In this fabric Charles V. expired; and here, in 1422, the warlike Henry V. of England breathed his last; nor is there a building more connected with curious ancient historical incident than the chateau now under review. Of more recent date, may be seen the apartments wherein was confined the prince of Condé in 1617, and, forty years after, the great Condé his son. Cardinal Mazarine also expired at Vincennes, in 1661; nor should the name of the celebrated Mirabeau be omitted, who was imprisoned four years within the walls of this building; during which period he wrote the admirable Letters between Gabriel and Sophia. In one of the moats of this castle the Duke d'Enghien was murdered.

The park, called the Bois de Vincennes, contains about 2000 acres. It was enclosed, in 1183, by Philippe Auguste, to contain the animals presented to him by the king of England, Henry III. It is regularly planted in long walks. There is an oak under which St. Louis used to administer justice; and in the grand walk is a place where cannon is proved.

Vincennes has an annual fête, or fair, on the 15th of August; and Paris pours forth all its population to partake of the amusements of the day. The lovers of archery have then a grand trial of skill.

FONTENAY is a village on the skirts of a wood, and hence called Fontenay aux Bois. It is six miles from Paris, which metropolis is supplied with the greater part of its roses and other flowers from the neighbourhood of this village. In the latter months of spring the country round Fontenay is completely covered with flowers.

PUTEAUX is five miles east of Paris. The neighbourhood of the village also is one uninterrupted garden, delightful both to the eye and smell: it is celebrated for its early vegetables and asparagus. Some beautiful chateaux adorn the banks and islands of the Seine.

SURENNE is a large village, six miles east of Paris, situated on the declivity of a hill, on the banks of the Seine. The festival of the Rosière is held here, on the first Sunday after the fête of St. Louis.

BELLEVILLE.—This village is at no great distance from the barriers of Paris, and its delightful situation has doubtless conferred upon it the name which it bears. Belleville is erected upon an eminence which commands a noble view of Paris. The descent of the hill is decorated with pretty country seats, built in a style of simple but elegant architecture, each possessing a terrace, whence the eye wanders over an immense tract of country, studded with hamlets and villages. On the south-east the gloomy towers of Vincennes rise above the forest, and on the west the spires of Paris are occasionally discerned through the openings of the wood.

Not far distant is *St. Gervais*, one of the most beautiful country walks in the world. Strangers should walk here on Sunday, to see the motley and joyous crowd which the city then pours out.

NOISY LE SEC, is beautifully situated on an eminence, five miles eastward of Paris. It contains a great number of agreeable chateaux.

To the north-east, and on the road to Meaux, we come to the village and forest of

BONDI—two leagues from Paris. It has many pleasant houses. The road is prettily studded with the country residences of the Parisian merchants. Chilperic was assassinated in the neighbouring forest; and many marvellous and tragical tales of the atrocities committed in this neighbourhood are related by the peasants.

LIVRY is a village at the eastern end of the Forest of Bondi, and about twelve miles from Paris. The chateau was once a place of strength and importance. Louis le Gros besieged it in the wars which he carried on against the count of Champagne. He mounted to the assault himself, and was wounded in the thigh by a pike: this redoubled the ardour of the besiegers, and the place was taken and dismantled. Malherbes and Mad. de Sévigny inhabited Livry. It was under its delightful shades that this amiable woman composed those Letters to her Daughter, which are a model of elegance and delicacy.

A little to the south-west of Livry, and nearer to the village of Bondi, but in what is called the Road to Strasbourg, we find the ruins of the once celebrated chateau de

RINCI.—The late duke of Orleans was the proprietor of Rincy, and had taken great pains to arrange his park and gardens in the English taste. Since his death it has fallen to decay; but it still retains its former reputation, and the Parisians frequent it on a Sunday, as our Londoners regale themselves at Richmond or at Hampton Court.

Rinci boasts of extraordinary beauties in the rural scenery, and has many curiosities in the palace. The face of the country is in this part more agreeable, and the fields are in a better state of cultivation, than along the western districts through which the traveller passes. On the left are vast plains sown with corn, the extremities of which are skirted with pretty villages; on the right a ridge of hills, occasionally tufted with trees, rises within half a mile of the road, and the verdure of the intervening fields denotes that the occupations of the dairy-farm are successfully prosecuted in this part of the vicinity of Paris. Indeed, there is a great appearance of cleanliness, neatness, and comfort, in all the villages through which you pass.

The arrangement of the grounds resembles an English gentleman's park. Like most of the seats of the former French princes and nobles, it has of course felt the effects of the revolution; but enough remains to indicate that it was once a most voluptuous spot. The chateau has been demolished, and the massy pillars lie broken and dispersed upon the ground. Opposite to the lodge, on a gentle ascent, stand the stables in a tolerably good state of preservation. The gravel-walks are also in good order; and the aqueducts and basins of water on the higher ground are in a complete state. It is also not a little remarkable, that the trees and copses have not been cut down. The magnificent dairy has been untouched; and at the top of the hill, which overlooks the whole park, the company amuse themselves with wandering in a labyrinth, and surveying the different jets d'eau which are continually playing. From every elevated site in these grounds there are beautiful prospects; some confined, and others ranging over a vast tract of country, but all agreeably diversified.

We now turn to the left, and join Paris on the north.

MONTMARTRE—stands on a hill at a short distance north of Paris. Its name was probably derived from a temple dedicated to *Mars*, the remains of which were to be seen here two centuries ago. Many persons, however, trace its name to the *martyrdom* of St. Denis, which took place here. It is remarkable for its limestone quarries, and the windmills which crown the top of the hill. The inhabitants of Paris often climb this hill to admire the distinct and complete view which it affords of their city. Montmartre contains many pleasant country-houses, and numerous guinguettes.

CLICHY LA GARENNE, so called to distinguish it from another Clichy, which is close to Livry, is a pretty village about two miles from Montmartre, and lying between the right bank of the Seine and the road to St. Denis. The ancient kings of France often resided here. Dagobert held a solemn council in his palace at Clichy.

St. OUVEN SUR SEINE is a little farther north. Should the traveller pass through this village, which is about five miles from Paris, he will acknowledge that, although it is situated on a plain, the number of chateaux, the pleasing views of the river which they command, and the picturesque arrangement of the gardens, render it one of the most inviting retreats for the rich merchants and citizens of Paris. On the 24th of August a fair is held here, which continues three days, and is much frequented. About a mile farther north, and a little to the east, is

St. DENIS, which derives its name from the cathedral so called, dedicated to the patron-saint of France. A noble Christian lady named Catullis, caused a chapel to be built near the spot on which the present church stands, wherein she deposited the remains of the martyred Dionysius, the apostle of Gaul, and his companions, which she had purchased from the executioner. The chapel was successively enriched by Clotaire, Chilperic, Dagobert, and numerous ancient monarchs, until it arrived at the acmé of its greatness.

The town contains about 5000 inhabitants. The church of St. Denis is the king's chapel royal. The west front has three old Saxon arches; one of the west towers has a spire, but there is no middle tower. The vaults under the choir were the burial-place of the kings of France for about a thousand years; but at the Revolution, in September 1792, the mob broke open the tombs, burnt the coffins of lead and wood, and scattered the royal bones about the church-yard; the church was also ransacked, and the organ destroyed, as well as the altars and chapels. Bonaparte, though he did not pay much respect to the remains of the royal family, yet was ambitious of being buried in the same place from which their bones had been removed. He accordingly prepared a vault for himself and his dynasty; the entrance to which was to be by two immense massy bronze doors, with three locks and keys: the keys to be kept by three of his favourite generals. Louis XVIII. has been employed in repairing the chapel, and restoring things as far as possible; 100,000 francs per annum (between 4 and 5000 pounds sterling) have been appropriated for this purpose ever since the Restoration. The whole interior of the church, which is much in the style of Amiens, and nearly as handsome, has been thoroughly cleaned, and the windows put in perfect order. It is now useable for service; and the workmen are renewing all the ornamental parts of the pillars. The vaults below, which are in the Saxon style, are very light and cheerful, having several windows to the open air. They are also lofty and extensive. All the scattered bones have been carefully collected, and placed in a distant part of the vaults, which is walled up; and there is a large plate in front of it, on which, in letters of gold, are inscribed the names of at least fifty or sixty kings, queens, dauphins, and princes, to whom the bones belonged, with a statement of the fact of their having been disinterred in September 1792, and re-buried in 1817. The remains of Louis XVI. and Antoniette, which had been privately interred, were removed with great pomp to the church of St. Denis, and are placed in a distinct vault. The stone coffins of king Pepin, Louis VIII. and two or three others of the old kings, have been found, though without any bones: they were identified, and are to be preserved. About twelve or fourteen old tombs of kings remain entire: statues of these kings, as large as life, something in the style of those in Yorkminster, but recumbent on the monuments, are also perfect, and have been cleaned. The black coffin of the prince of Condé, who died in 1818, is in a distinct vault, but is shown through a grated door;

and a new vault is made for the royal family. The sacristy or vestry is a handsome room, and is adorned with paintings, representing the coronations of several kings, and other historical subjects. The great bell, in the key of G, has a remarkably rich tone. Near the west end is the monument of king Dagobert, who is regarded as the founder of the church. It is adorned with imagery in three compartments, representing a legendary story. In the first, he dies; and the devils, enraged at his having built a church, seize him, and put him into a boat to carry him to sea. But in the second, the priests come to his assistance, throw the devils overboard, and rescue the king; and, thirdly, angels carry him to heaven.

Arnouville is a league from St. Denis, on the bank of the little river Cran. The park, which contains about 300 acres, is beautifully diversified with groves, lawns, cascades, and sheets of water. The appearance of the village is much admired. All the streets centre in a spacious lawn ornamented by a noble fountain.

Stains.—This village is north-east of St. Denis. The chateau of M. de Livry is worth visiting, not only on account of its pleasant situation, although the country round it is comparatively flat, but for an extensive collection of aquatic birds, and the rarest and most beautiful species of deer.

Pierrefitte is one mile north of Stains, on the road to Beauvais. It is situated on the declivity of a small hill, and contains the chateau of M. Faucompret de Vieuxbanc, celebrated for its valuable collection of rare and beautiful plants.

Ecouen la Hautefeuille is a village about six miles north of St. Denis. A chateau was built here by Anne of Montmorency, which, on the emigration of the noble family of the Condés, became national property. The seminary for the education of the daughters of the members of the Legion of Honour (see p. 469.) has, we understand, been removed to this place. The painted glass in one of the galleries has been much admired. The subject is taken from a work of Raphael, and represents the history of Psyche. The chapel and the sacristy offer some well-executed copies of Raphael and Leonardo da Vinci.

Passing through a wood nearly two miles long, and traversing Luzarches and a few more villages, we at length reach

CHANTILLY, which is twenty-two miles north of Paris. —This town was once famed for the beauty of its gardens, the splendour of its palace, and still more for the heroes who inhabited it. The hunting-seat of the Montmorencies and the Condés is now a heap of ruins. It was destroyed by a mob from Paris early in the Revolution. The stables only remain; and these, even in their dilapidated state, convey no mean idea of the former magnificence of the place. The building consists of one enormous stable, 600 feet in length, and 40 in height. In the centre is a lofty dome, 90 feet high, and 60 in diameter. Under this is a fountain which supplies a noble reservoir formed of the most costly marbles, and enriched by numerous well-executed decorations. This unique apartment was formerly divided into 400 stalls, but they have been long ago demolished.

The inhabitants of Vineuil, a village exactly opposite to the place where the palace formerly stood, resolved to shoot the wild beasts in the menagerie, as agents in the conspiracy of Condé to starve the people. But they were apprehensive that these animals might make a sally, and wage a war of extermination against them; upon which considerations, feeling their courage to be unequal to the shock of a pitched battle, they determined in solemn council to call in the revolutionary army as their auxiliaries. As soon as their allies arrived, and had stationed a couple of pieces of artillery on the neighbouring height, a general action commenced. A heavy fire was opened on the imprisoned sovereigns of the forest. After a breach had been effected, the drums beat a general charge;

charge; the centre of the revolutionary army advanced to the charge, bayonets fixed, while the right and left wings kept up a smart fire of musketry upon the invincible enemy. The inhabitants of Vineuil were in the rear. At length the revolutionary army entered the breach, and the whole garrison was put to the sword.

When the splendid palace of the Montmorencys was levelled with the ground, a smaller chateau connected with it was spared. This is now the habitation of the duke de Bourbon, to whom the patrimony of his ancestors has been restored. It contains nothing to arrest the traveller's attention, unless the melancholy contrast which its hasty and coarse repairs form with the vestiges of former princely grandeur.

Having gone farther north than we intended, we turn west by south till we come to

MONTMORENCY, a little village ten miles north from Paris, placed on an eminence which gives it an extensive prospect and a salubrious air. All that remains of the magnificence of the dukes of Montmorency is found in the church, which affords a perfect specimen of Gothic architecture. Montmorency was the residence of J. J. Rousseau. It is much frequented by the Parisians on every festival.

Epinay sur Seine is a village pleasantly situated about three miles south-west from Montmorency. The kings of the first dynasty had a country residence here. Dagobert died in the palace; the remains of which are scarcely visible. Among the numerous chateaux, that of comte Lacépède is the most beautiful.—Still *beuding our way* to the south-west for about six miles, we reach

COURBEVOIE, a village containing many pleasant country-seats, and a magnificent barrack for the royal guard. It is situated on one of those delightful eminences which diversify the left bank of the Seine, and is about four miles from Paris, on the road to St. Germain's.

NANTERRE is a little more to the south-west, and seven miles from Paris, on the road to St. Germain's. It is celebrated for its excellent sausages and cakes; but more so as the birth-place of the humble shepherds who became the patron saint of Paris.—Turning now directly east, we approach the north-west entrance to the city of Paris at

PONT DE NEUILLY.—This village, situated upon the banks of the Seine, has acquired much celebrity on account of its magnificent bridge, delightful gardens, and the interesting views which it commands. In 1606 there was only a ferry at this village; but an event which nearly terminated the lives of Henry IV. and his suite, led to the construction of the bridge. The monarch was returning from St. Germain's with his queen, and several of his nobles. On approaching the river, the horses, frightened by a thunder-storm, precipitated themselves into the water, dragging the vehicle into the deepest part; and, had not the most timely assistance been given, that great king and his companions must inevitably have perished. The bridge which was built upon this occasion lasted only thirty-five years; after which period the present superb structure was planned and executed, being 750 feet long, and composed of five arches, each 120 feet wide, and 30 feet in height. It was erected after the design of Peronnet. It was opened with great ceremony in 1772, in presence of a vast concourse of people, and Louis XV. was the first who drove over it in his carriage. This spot has to boast of many noble houses, which belong to the opulent and fashionable inhabitants of the French metropolis. The numerous little streams which descend from the hill contribute much to the embellishment of the gardens. The annual fête is on the 24th of June.

Nanterre, Courbevoe, and Neuilly, are all near the Bois de Boulogne, whence we set out at p. 493. so that we have now completed our circuit, with the omission of many interesting places which are or will be noticed in their respective parts of the alphabet. If some of the

more distant objects, as Rinci for instance, be visited on a Sunday, the traveller, both in going and returning, will be serenaded with music in every village, and highly diverted with the amusements of the peasants. They are now seen dancing by moonlight on the green, and at another time in a large room lighted for the purpose. They are all neatly dressed in their Sunday clothes, and seem to enjoy their sports. Not a single village but has its rural ball; and along the road, at different distances, are rooms lighted up, in which suppers are preparing for the dancers. These rooms being interspersed among the trees, give to the whole a very interesting appearance. Such scenes as these pourtray, in lively colours, the innocent gaiety and good-natured mirth of the country people in France, and forcibly exemplify the beautiful description of the sweetest of poets:

Gay sprightly land of mirth and social ease,
Pleas'd with thyself, whom all the world can please;
Alike all ages. Dames of ancient days
Have led their children through the mirthful maze;
And the gay grandfire, skill'd in gestic lore,
Has frisk'd beneath the burden of threescore.

POLITICAL HISTORY from THE YEAR 1814.

We left Napoleon, after his first abdication, at Elba, on the 4th of May, 1814. See the article LONDON, vol. xiii. p. 392.

The terms upon which he was permitted to retire sufficiently proved either his own remaining consequence in the opinion of the allies, or the powerful intercession that had been made in his favour. Indeed, subsequent events have proved, that his partisans were both numerous and powerful, and that the army was entirely devoted to him. As the treaty is of peculiar importance, we shall here lay before our readers the principal articles of it.

TREATY between the ALLIED POWERS and his Majesty the EMPEROR NAPOLEON.

Art. I. His Majesty the Emperor Napoleon renounces for himself, his successors and descendants, as well as for all the members of his family, all right of sovereignty and dominion, as well to the French empire and the kingdom of Italy, as over every other country.

II. Their Majesties, the Emperor Napoleon and the Empress Maria Louisa, shall retain their titles and rank, to be enjoyed during their lives. The mother, the brothers, sisters, nephews, and nieces, of the emperor, shall also retain, wherever they may reside, the titles of princes of his family.

III. The Isle of Elba, adopted by his majesty the Emperor Napoleon as the place of his residence, shall form, during his life, a separate principality, which shall be possessed by him in full sovereignty and property; there shall be besides granted, in full property, to the Emperor Napoleon, an annual revenue of 2,000,000 francs, in rent-charge, in the Great Book of France, of which 1,000,000 shall be in reversion to the empress.

IV. The duchies of Parma, Placencia, and Guastalla, shall be granted, in full property and sovereignty, to her majesty the Empress Maria Louisa; they shall pass to her son, and to the descendants in the right line. The prince her son shall, from henceforth, take the title of Prince of Parma, Placencia, and Guastalla.

V. All the powers engage to employ their good offices to cause to be respected, by the Barbary powers, the flag and the territory of the Isle of Elba, for which purpose the relations with the Barbary powers shall be assimilated to those with France.

VI. There shall be reserved in the territories hereby renounced to his majesty the Emperor Napoleon, for himself and his family, domains or rent-charges in the Great Book of France, producing a revenue, clear of all deductions and charges, of 2,500,000 francs. These domains or rents shall belong in full property, and to be disposed of

of as they shall think fit, to the princes and princesses of his family; and shall be divided amongst them in such a manner that the revenue of each shall be in the following proportions, viz:

	Francs.
To Madame Mere - - - - -	300,000
To King Joseph and his Queen - - - - -	500,000
To King Louis - - - - -	200,000
To the Queen Hortense and her children - - - - -	400,000
To King Jerome and his Queen - - - - -	500,000
To the Princess Eliza - - - - -	300,000
To the Princess Paulina - - - - -	300,000
	2,500,000

The princes and princesses of the house of the Emperor Napoleon shall, besides, retain their property, moveable and immoveable, of whatever nature it may be, which they shall possess by individual and public right, and the rents of which they shall enjoy (also as individuals.)

VII. The annual pension of the Empress Josephine shall be reduced to 1,000,000, in domains, or in inscriptions in the Great Book of France; which she shall continue to enjoy in full property, moveable and immoveable, with power to dispose of it conformably to the French laws.

VIII. There shall be granted to Prince Eugene, Viceroy of Italy, a suitable establishment out of France.

IX. The property which his majesty the Emperor Napoleon possesses in France, either as extraordinary domain or as private domain attached to the crown, and which his majesty abandons to the crown, shall be reserved as a capital, which shall not exceed 2,000,000, to be expended in gratifications in favour of such persons, whose names shall be contained in a list to be signed by the Emperor Napoleon, and which shall be transmitted to the French government.

X. All the crown-diamonds shall remain in France.

XI. His majesty the Emperor Napoleon shall return to the treasury, and to the other public chests, all the sums and effects that shall have been taken out by his orders, with the exception of what has been appropriated from the civil list.

XII. The debts of the household of his majesty the Emperor Napoleon, such as they were on the day of the signature of the present treaty, shall be immediately discharged out of the arrears due by the public treasury to the civil list, according to a list which shall be signed by a commissioner appointed for that purpose.

XVI. There shall be furnished a corvette and the necessary transport-vessels to convey to the place of his destination his majesty the Emperor Napoleon and his household: and the corvette shall belong, in full property, to his majesty the emperor.

XVII. The emperor Napoleon shall be allowed to take with him, and retain as his guard, 400 men, volunteers, as well officers as sub-officers and soldiers.

XVIII. No Frenchman who shall have followed the Emperor Napoleon or his family, shall be held to have forfeited his rights as such by not returning to France within three years; at least they shall not be comprised in the exceptions which the French government reserves to itself to grant after the expiration of that term.

XX. The high allied powers guarantee the execution of all the articles of the present treaty, and engage to obtain that it shall be adopted and guaranteed by France.

XXI. The present act shall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged at Paris, within two days, or sooner if possible. Done at Paris, the 11th of April, 1814.

The Prince De METTERNICH.

J. F. Comte De STADION.

ANDRE' Comte De RASOUMOFFSKY.

CHARLES ROBERT Comte De NESSELRODE.

CHAS. AUG. Baron De HARDENBERG.

Marshal NEY.

CAULINCOURT.

After the allied powers had signed this treaty, they applied to the British government for their accession to it; but this was refused, except merely as far as regarded the arrangements for securing the duchies of Parma, &c. to Maria-Louisa and her son, in perpetuity, and the Isle of Elba to Bonaparte for life; to these articles alone the signature of lord Castlereagh was affixed.

The definitive treaty between France and the allies, consequent on the preliminary treaty (see LONDON, p. 395.) was signed at Paris on the 30th of May 1814. The Congress, which was expected to be held in London, (see as above,) was, however, held at Vienna; and was still fitting, when, suddenly and unexpectedly, Napoleon again appeared in France.

It has been seen (p. 384 of the article referred to above), that the abdication of Napoleon was absolute and unconditional, "for himself and his heirs." Upon this point his empress addressed the following Protest to the Congress. That paper was thought little of at the time, and its authenticity was doubted by many; but, since it was formally received by the Congress, and entered among their Acts, we shall insert it entire, because we think it may at some future time be referred to as a document of great importance.

PROTEST of the Empress MARIA LOUISA against the Occupation of the THRONE of FRANCE by the Dynasty of the BOURBONS.

"Maria Louisa, Empress, Archduchess of Austria, Duchess of Parma, in our name, during the minority of our beloved son and sovereign, and in the name of our son, Charles Francis Napoleon, as legitimate possessor of the Imperial Throne of France.

"The distance at which we are kept from our hereditary states, and the absence of the members of our government, preventing us from claiming the admission of a minister to represent us at the Congress now assembled at Vienna, and the desire of giving full authenticity to our reclamation in behalf of our beloved sovereign and son, have induced us, in imitation of our immortal ancestor of glorious memory, Maria Theresa, to take the resolution of laying before the above-mentioned Congress, a declaration of the rights of our beloved son to the crown of France, and a development of the principles on which they are founded; to the end that it be known to Europe and the French nation, that it has never been our intention willingly to renounce the imperial throne of France, on which it pleased Divine Providence to place us.

"We will not here recall to mind the disasters which deprived the House of Bourbon of the French throne. We will rather throw a veil over the errors of princes, and the faults of nations. We will not defend the work of factious and revolutionary proceedings; but, we will declare, that there exists a public law of immutable nature, which binds nations to princes, a law of policy, containing the principles upon which sovereigns ought to conciliate their rights and interests with certain rights and liberties which are the property of their subjects.

"A series of fatal events put an end to royalty in France. All Europe took up arms to sustain or restore a throne which its possessor was unable to maintain; a throne which had sunk into nought through the flight of the princes and nobility which were its natural supporters, and perhaps through the violent cause of a popular will unrestrained in its manifestation. The unfortunate Louis XVI. and his son, perished successively. Their legitimate heirs forfeited their claims to the crown by their free egress from the kingdom, and their retreat into an enemy's country. The Nation, no longer bound to its legitimate princes, was restored to its natural right of election. The other nations of Europe considered these disasters as the work of political fanaticism, and a spirit of rebellion. They in consequence took up arms, and penetrated into

the heart of France. Their success, however, was but of short duration: France soon expelled them from her invaded territory, and maintained her independence. The powers of Europe must then have observed, that, whatever had originally led to this result, the government of France was changed *de facto* and *de jure*, and that it belonged to the French people to institute such form of government for themselves as was best suited to the circumstances of the times.

"In this state of things, every tie was dissolved between France and the Bourbons; between the Bourbons and the other sovereigns of Europe. The family-compact, the treaty of personal guarantee, was cancelled by the influence of circumstances: in a political sense, the Bourbons were no more. The independence of France, under the new government of her choice, was then acknowledged by the very powers who at present compose this Congress. On the 5th April, 1795, the Treaty of Bâle was signed between France and Prussia: on the 22d July, same year, another Treaty was signed at Bâle, between Republican France and Spain. The latter power, on the 7th June in the following year, concluded a Treaty of Alliance with the Executive Directory. The Courts of Sardinia and Naples signed, in the course of that same year, the first on the 15th May, the other on the 10th October, a Treaty with that same Republican Government. The Pope, the minor states of Germany and Italy, solemnly acknowledged also the new government of France. Austria signed the Treaty of Campo Formio with the Directory, and that of Luneville with the First Consul. England, by the Treaty of Amiens, 1st Oct. 1801, Spain by that of 27th March, 1802, Russia by that of 8th Oct. 1808, acknowledged successively the Consular Government, which proclaimed a General Peace on the 18th Brumaire, 10th year of the Republic.

"The act which raised the altars again, and gave peace to the Gallican Church, which brought back morality, checked false doctrines, and substituted the true belief in their lieu; the Concordat, in a word, of which the beneficial effects will long be felt by religion, put the seal, as it were, to those transactions of state-policy, by which a government different from that of the ancient monarchy was solemnly recognised by all Europe. Who at that time suspected the princes of the House of Bourbon of entertaining rights of sovereignty over France? That which has perished, can it rise again? If these princes had no legal rights then, what rights can they have now? The French people unquestionably enjoyed the plenitude of their rights under the Consular Government; at that period, when, to give greater stability to institutions which had put an end to the evils of the Revolution, and to give to Europe a pledge of that stability, the French people bestowed on the First Consul, Bonaparte, the consular power for life. The new organization of the state, in harmony with the genius of its first magistrate, was consolidating itself daily, and it would have accomplished the most sanguine wishes of the French people, were not the life of man limited to a small number of years. To impress these new institutions with a fresh character of permanency, to make them correspond with the governments of the other states of Europe, the Nation substituted for the Consular Power the Imperial Power, which it rendered hereditary in the family of Napoleon Bonaparte. The citizens of the towns, the communes, and the smallest hamlets, covered with their names the registers, wherein the question of the erection of the Empire, and of the election of Napoleon Bonaparte, was submitted to them. He was elected and proclaimed with acclamations. He received the oath of allegiance from his subjects. The temples resounded with thanksgivings from the People to the Divinity. The clergy, in the holy office of the mass, prayed for his person and for his family; and soon the venerable Chief of Christendom came, in person to consecrate, in the Metropolitan Church, a power which

the Emperor Napoleon had till then only held from the hands of the people.

"What was then wanting to the legitimacy of his Crown? Had he not received it from God and his country? In other terms, from *divine right* and from *national right*?

"Europe adopted these principles, and Napoleon assumed the rank assigned to him among sovereigns, by the extent and power of his empire. Austria acknowledged the Emperor Napoleon on the 26th December, 1805, by the Treaty of Presburg. The sovereigns of Bavaria and Wurtemberg were his allies; the same treaty raised them to the Royal Dignity. On the 11th December, 1807, the Elector of Saxony received, by virtue of the Treaty of Posen, concluded with Napoleon, the title of King. Did Europe dispute the legitimacy of these titles, emanated from the Imperial Power and from France? Prussia acknowledged the French Empire and the Emperor Napoleon, by the Treaty of Tilsit, July 9, 1807. The Emperor of Russia preserved his army, amounting to about 200,000 men, by virtue of this same treaty, which acknowledged, not only the French Empire and the Emperor Napoleon, but also the existence as Kings of the Princes of the Imperial Family. Finally, the treaties of 14th of October 1809, and 6th January 1810, between Sweden and France, complete the acts of external policy, which consolidate the dynasty thus seated on the throne of France. All continental Europe, indeed, was the ally of the Emperor Napoleon.

"The family-alliances of the Emperor Napoleon with the most august sovereign houses, tended to consolidate the social compact as established in France. His strongly cemented institutions ensured the stability of the monarchical form of government he had restored; they opposed an invincible barrier to the invasion of the democratic system. The Revolution of France has taught nations to look too closely into what passes in the Cabinets of Princes.

"It was under the guarantee of the Constitution of the French Empire, under that of the treaties and of the alliances of foreign sovereigns, that I became the consort of Napoleon. It was under those same guarantees that Prince Charles-Francis-Napoleon, born of our union, grounds his claim to the French throne, which claim the princes assembled at this Congress have so often acknowledged to be legitimate.

"A fatal war broke out. The Emperor Napoleon was overcome. You, sovereigns assembled in Congress, arrived in his capital at a moment when, favoured by disorder, a conspiracy manifested itself in favour of the princes of the House of Bourbon. You might have dictated to Napoleon in his capital such terms as were calculated to restore a due balance between powers; and you would thus have consolidated institutions, whence arose the common strength and the common safety. This treaty would have been faithfully observed; we have a full confidence thereof. Influenced by a generous hope of putting a speedier end to the evils of war, and of sparing the effusion of blood, you put aside the rights of the Emperor Napoleon; you treated with those princes to whom the conspiracy had given the crown. What lustre could such princes shed upon royalty? The Emperor Napoleon at the head of an army, not numerous, but brave and faithful, might have defended his crown; but to spare his subjects a civil war, he had already resolved to abdicate *in favour of his son*. Such was his determination manifested to the Allied Powers by the Dukes of Tarentum, Vicenza, and the Prince de la Moskowa; which determination those powers viewed at first in its right light, that is, as calculated to secure the tranquillity of Europe. Events, which it belongs not to us to characterize, caused those just resolutions to be revoked. The Emperor was obliged to sign an *unconditional abdication* on the 11th of April, 1814; on that same day he subscribed the

the Treaty of personal safety, which maintaining his title of Emperor, assigned to him the Island of Elba as his place of abode, and confirmed to him the sovereignty over its territory. The 5th article of the same Treaty assigned to me the sovereignty of the states of Parma, transmissible to my son and his descendants.

"I will not discuss the merits of these treaties in respect of the Emperor Napoleon. They are more or less binding on him, in proportion as he exercised his will more or less freely in signing them. We will simply say, that he had not the power of disposing, after his life, of the crown which his son received as his birth-right from the French nation and its constitutional laws. If the sovereigns of France, no more than the other principal sovereigns of Europe, have never been able to break through the established rule of succession in their own families so as to transmit their crown to their second or third son, to the prejudice of their first born, how comes it that the Emperor Napoleon should be able to deprive the Prince Charles-Francis-Napoleon of his right of inheritance, in order to transfer it into foreign hands? Can a conspiracy have destroyed, by its irregular acts, the force and virtue of the laws of the French empire? Can it have destroyed the royalty which the prince, my son, holds of divine as well as national right? The princes whom this conspiracy has put upon the throne of my son, fully admitted these principles themselves, when they refused to acknowledge the acts of the government, styled provisional. Ten years of free-government, acknowledged by all the powers in Europe, at a time when the name of Bonaparte was not yet inscribed in the annals of war; fifteen years existence of an empire, the social conventions of which establish the rights of the Emperor Napoleon, and those of his dynasty; rendered indisputable the legitimacy of his crown.

"When, during my residence at Blois, I exercised the authority of Regent, I appealed to the devotion of Frenchmen; I received the strongest testimonies of their love and zeal for the cause of their legitimate Prince. The presence of your armies, and the tendency of your policy, forbade me to respond to the wishes of that faithful nation.

"The fate of nations being submitted to your award, your object will no doubt be to conciliate their rights and wishes with the rights and interests of sovereigns. Circumstances have deprived my son of his sovereignty over the French Nation, and both himself and his People are equally injured in their rights by this fatal result of the late course of events. In this state of things, we, in our quality of Emperors and of Mother, and before any authentic resolution be taken by the Congress, protest, by the present deed, against all acts of the existing government of France, which has been established to the prejudice of the legitimate heir to the throne. We protest, likewise, in our own name, as well as in that of the Prince Charles-Francis-Napoleon, Presumptive Heir to, and possessor by right of, the French Crown, against all resolutions of the High Powers assembled at Congress, whether taken collectively or individually, and tending to impair the rights of the prince my son to the said French crown.

"The throne of the Prince Charles-Francis-Napoleon is that raised by the French Nation, such as it existed at the time when its choice and election called the Emperor Napoleon to the head of its government. But if, in the arduous struggle in which it has been engaged, the French Empire has been constrained by the force of arms to sign the Treaty of Paris, we think it just, inasmuch as respects the territories not forming part of present France, that the conditions thereof be faithfully and for ever observed. To this end we here declare, that the present Protest solely applies to the illegal occupation of that territory of France constituting the present monarchy.

"Having thus developed her claims, the Empress Maria-Louisa, Archduchess of Austria, Duchess of Parma,

&c. representing the Prince Charles-Francis-Napoleon, her son, a minor, requests of the justice and magnanimity of the Allied Powers, that the subject of her claims be submitted to the deliberation of Congress; and that an acknowledgment of the present Protest be delivered unto her, in order that she may produce it whenever it may please Divine Providence to afford her time and place for that purpose.

"In faith of which, and to give all due authenticity to the present Protest, she has affixed to it her seal, and written it in her own hand, at the Palace of Schönbrunn, February 19, 1815. MARIA-LOUISA, Imperatrice."

"The High Powers assembled at Congress, after having deliberated, in their sitting of the 24th February, on the present Reclamation of her Imperial Majesty Maria-Louisa; conformably to the opinion of his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, of his Imperial and Royal Majesty the Emperor of Austria, the Father of her Imperial and Royal Majesty the Empress Maria-Louisa, and from the respect due to the personal character of her Majesty the Empress; have resolved, that the Act emanated from her the 19th February, commencing with the words "Maria-Louisa," and ending by those, "written it in her own hand," shall be inscribed in the Protocole of the Acts of the Congress." The French Ministers, having protested against this decision, abstained from signing it.

The date of the above document will not escape notice; it was only a week previous to the day on which Napoleon embarked; and, within a week of its being acknowledged and authenticated by the Congress, the emperor was again upon French ground.

It has been much disputed in France whether Napoleon took the determination of returning from Elba of his own accord, or by the invitation of a party. The royalists, who are almost all sticklers for the latter assertion, were not a little mortified that the trials of Ney, Labedoyère, Drouot, and others, offered nothing to confirm their favourite hypothesis; and the partisans of Napoleon positively asserted that there was no regular conspiracy formed for aiding him in his invasion of France. Carnot declared that he had held no communication with Elba, nor was he aware that any had been held; Labedoyère affirmed that "he had no sort of intercourse with the Isle of Elba; that he had never been present at any meeting in which the recall of Bonaparte had been agitated; that he had often heard vague suggestions, and some expressions of discontent, but he knew nothing of any determined plan." Of the superior officers who attended the ex-emperor in Elba, the principal were Bertrand and Drouot. The latter (a very different person from Drouot comte d'Erlon) is comparatively little known in this country: but we would advise those of our readers, who feel an interest in the real circumstances of Bonaparte's return from Elba, to peruse the trial of Drouot, 6th of April, 1816; where they will find that this officer was unfriendly to the attempt; and that, amid all the applications made to him for favour in Bonaparte's second reign, no one founded a claim on a secret correspondence with that island.

Mr. Hobhouse, who resided at Paris during "the hundred days," writes upon this subject as follows: "Having taken considerable pains to ascertain the fact, I am come into that persuasion which prevails most generally amongst those who have the reputation of being the best informed; which is, that there was no corresponding scheme laid at Paris for this restoration, and that the whole project and execution are to be attributed solely to the daring determination of Napoleon himself to recover his crown, most happily coinciding with the actual condition and general feeling of France. What was that condition and that general feeling, it is likely that the exile at Elba well knew. He might be informed of this even by the public papers, had he not been possessed of correspondents at Paris and agents at Naples. But what I mean to assert is, that there was no conspiracy in France corresponding with the disembarkation

disembarkation at Cannes. The grand marshal Bertrand, the *preux chevalier* of Europe, gave his word and honour to an English gentleman only yesterday, that no such conspiracy existed; and that three weeks before their quitting Elba not the least idea was entertained of the design. The emperor himself, whose assurance you may receive with suspicion, told Mr. S—— as much in a conversation he had with him in the garden of the Elysée; and, on being complimented on the performance of this, the greatest of all his actions, he said, No, it was easier than you think; my only merit was making a good guess as to the actual situation of France."

To this we may add the testimony of M. de Chaboulon, who has recently published *Memoirs of the Private Life of Napoleon in 1815*. He introduces the narrative of an officer whom he calls Colonel Z——, who appears to have repaired to Elba in February 1815, and by his report of the state of France to have strengthened the already-conceived intention of Bonaparte to hazard a return. The authenticity of this narrative must rest on the credibility of M. de Chaboulon, for Col. Z. is represented as having fallen at Waterloo: but we see no reason for suspecting imposition in what is related either of him personally, or of the conversations which Napoleon held with him; from which it appears that the ex-emperor reasoned as follows: "I consider it as certain that the kings who have fought against me are no longer guided by the same unity, the same views, the same interests. The emperor Alexander must esteem me: he must be able to estimate the difference which exists between Louis XVIII. and myself. I could give him Poland, and a great deal more, if he wished it: he knows that I have been always more inclined to tolerate his ambition than to restrain it. Prussia and the petty kings of the Rhenish Confederation will follow the lot cast by Russia. If I had Austria on my side, she would secure me all the second-rate powers. As to the Austrians, I do not know what they would do: they have never treated me candidly. I suppose I could keep Austria in order by threatening to deprive her of Italy. Italy is yet very grateful to me, and much attached to me: if I were to ask that country for an hundred thousand men, and five millions of money, I should have the men and the money. If they were to force me to make war, I could easily revolutionize the Italians: I would grant them whatever they might wish, independence or Eugene. Murat is ours: he has little brains: he has nothing but hand and heart: but his wife will guide him. As to England, we should have shaken hands from Dover to Calais, if Mr. Fox had lived: but, as long as that country continues to be governed by the principles and passions of Mr. Pitt, we must always be as hostile as fire and water. From England I expect no quarter, no truce. England knows, that, the instant I place my foot in France, her influence will be driven back across the seas."

In order to complete the arrangements for his departure from Elba, Napoleon purchased some small feluccas at Genoa, some ammunition at Naples, and a few arms at Algiers. On the 25th of February, 1815, he presided at a fête which he gave to his liliputian court, and was observed unusually cheerful and affable. On the following day, he reviewed his little army; and, at their dismissal, ordered them to prepare for immediate service, and to assemble on the same parade at six o'clock in the evening. Accordingly, the troops assembled at the time appointed, when Napoleon made his appearance, and, forming them into a hollow square, placed himself in their centre, and unfolded to them his purposes and views. He then represented to them, in that military and popular eloquence by which he was so peculiarly characterized, and to which he owed so much of his former influence over the minds of his followers, that fortune now afforded them an opportunity to prove themselves worthy of that estimation in which he had always held them; that it had been the consolation and delight of his retirement to form

them to the discipline and noble daring of soldiers; that the time was at hand in which they might show that his labours were not lost; that France, Belgium, and Italy, invited him to resume the imperial crown; and that he had only to effect his landing, and display his standard, and the whole military of France would obey his summons; and rally round their emperor; that he had been compelled to abdicate the sovereignty, not by the will of the French, but by an overwhelming foreign force which untoward circumstances had formed into a coalition, and to which coalition the calamities of war had given a temporary success; that that coalition had been dissolved by the divisions, the jealousies, and the narrow and personal views, of its members; that Italy was deceived, Germany sacrificed, Poland enslaved, Saxony extinguished, and Russia, Prussia, and England, the dividers of the spoil; that France had now recovered the 300,000 men whom the cruelty of the season had rendered prisoners to Russia; that, persecuted by the Bourbon government, they now wandered destitute through France, and that their well-known attachment to his person was rewarded with insult and beggary. "And will not these men," he continued, "return to the general who remembers them as ardently as he is remembered by them?" "Fellow Soldiers! comrades in glory and in arms! for such you are about to become, judge of them as you would judge of yourselves; and answer me from your own feelings, whether my brave soldiers will pass over to my enemy and theirs, or whether, again seeing my standard shining in the sun, and my imperial eagle again elevated to its own skies, they will reseek their standard, their eagle, and their general, and again conduct them to the throne which belongs to them. What are the Bourbons to them or us? Who in France, still in the vigour of his life, remembers them, or knows any thing of them, but their name, their mad extravagance, and their contemptible debaucheries? In the course of three hundred years did they add an acre to the French territory, or an unit to the lasting glory of the French name? Are these kings for the French? No, comrades! the age and the people demand another kind of leaders. What say you, soldiers? are you prepared to follow me, and to partake my fortune, my glory, and, if there be any, my perils and labours?"

The soldiers answered this harangue by the most enthusiastic acclamations. Napoleon immediately placed himself at their head, and conducted them to the place of embarkation. His whole force amounted to 1140 men; viz. 700 men of his old guard, 300 Corsicans, and 140 Poles: his fleet consisted of a brig, l'*Inconstant*, mounting 26 guns, and six small transports. To invade a kingdom, containing upwards of 28,000,000 of souls, with this small force, at first sight certainly appeared a most desperate undertaking. But Napoleon calculated on the ascendancy of his name over the army, and the terror with which it inspired the peaceable citizens: he reckoned on the stupor which great novelty produces, and that perplexity and confusion which seize the mind when suddenly struck by some bold and unexpected enterprise.

At eight o'clock on the evening of the 26th, the little army was embarked. The firing of a cannon gave the signal of departure; and they sailed from the harbour, enthusiastically shouting "Paris or death!" The night was clear and beautiful, the wind favourable, and fortune seemed to smile on the enterprise. Sir Neil Campbell was in Italy; no cruiser appeared in sight; and, before the dawn, they hoped to double the island of Capraia, and to be completely out of danger from the vessels which were known to be cruising off that station. But the wind, which at first wafted them gaily on, gradually died away. At day-break they had made only six leagues progress, and were yet between Capraia and Elba. To add to their vexation, some vessels were seen in the offing, of sufficient force to annihilate their diminutive fleet. The danger was imminent. The captain and the greater part of the crew advised and urged a return to Porto Ferrajo. But Napoleon

leon was resolute. "He had set his life upon a cast, and he would stand the die." He expressed his determination, if overtaken by the cruisers, which consisted of two French frigates and a brig, first to declare himself, and try the influence of his name. He doubted not that they would immediately hail him with acclamations, and hoist the tri-coloured flag. Should they prove faithful to the oath which they had taken to Louis, he would rely on the tried courage of his veteran guard, and attempt to carry them by boarding. They did not however appear to observe him.

Napoleon had long and successfully manœuvred to lull all suspicion which the appearance of his little fleet might occasion. He often went on-board the English ships of war. He made frequent excursions to the neighbouring islands. His own brig, and another which he bought, had sailed to Genoa and Leghorn. The English and French cruisers were thus accustomed to meet his flag, and therefore paid no attention to it at present.

Towards noon the wind freshened a little, and at four in the afternoon they were off Leghorn. One of the frigates was now about five leagues to the leeward, and the other was on the coast of Corsica: but a ship of war was coming up before the wind to meet the brig. It seemed of nearly equal force. A consultation was held; and it was resolved, first, to attempt to deceive the cruiser, and, should that fail, immediately to board her. The soldiers were concealed between the decks, and the two vessels ran along-side of each other.

The cruiser proved to be the *Zephyr*, captain Andrieux, a man of known talents and tried patriotism. Tallade, a lieutenant of the *Inconstant*, was personally known to him, and undertook to carry on the conference. Assuming a careless tone he hailed the *Zephyr*, and demanded whither she was bound. It was answered "To Livornia." Andrieux then enquired in his turn whither the *Inconstant* was proceeding. Tallade replied without hesitation, "To Genoa," and offered to undertake any commission which Andrieux might have to execute. At the same time, he invited him on-board the *Inconstant*, to spend a few hours with an old messmate. Andrieux was completely imposed upon; and, thanking the lieutenant for his civility, but excusing himself on account of want of time, sailed on; and the two brigs were soon out of sight of each other.

During the night of the 27th the wind continued to freshen; and, at day-break on the 28th, a seventy-four gun ship was seen at a distance of four leagues, making for St. Florent, or Sardinia. It either did not perceive, or did not think it necessary to hail, the little flotilla. At seven in the morning of the 28th, they discovered the coast of Noli; at noon, Antibes was in sight; and at three o'clock in the morning of the 1st of March, they entered the gulf of Juan, at a short distance from Frejus, in the department of the Var.

Previous to the disembarkation, Napoleon mustered his troops on deck, and, ordering them to throw the cockade of Elba into the sea, presented them with the national colours. They were received amid the shouts of "The emperor for ever."

A captain of the guard, with twenty-five men, was disembarked to take possession of a small battery, which might have annoyed the landing of the troops. It was found completely unoccupied. In the afternoon Napoleon disembarked the whole of his troops; and, as he again set foot on the French territory, exclaimed with exultation, "There is an end of the Congress."

An officer, with twenty-five men, was now dispatched to Antibes, to invite general Corfin, the governor of the place, to join Napoleon; and this invitation was accompanied by the most seducing offers. But the commandant rejected the overture with contempt, imprisoned the officer and his men, and hastened to prepare the most vigorous defence. This failure, at the very outset of his expedition, chagrined and terrified the invader: he could not conceal his vexation. Another officer was soon dis-

patched to regularly summon the place in the name of the emperor. He was arrested and thrown into prison. A third emissary presented himself to reclaim the prisoners, and to command general Corfin, under the most dreadful threats of military punishment, to repair to the gulf of Juan with the civil authorities. He likewise was detained.

Irresolute what plan to pursue, Napoleon bivouacked on the sea-side, in a vineyard surrounded by olive-trees; but, reflecting on the consequences of this repulse, and the necessity of proceeding before the news of it had spread through the country, and encouraged others to follow the example of Corfin, he commenced his march at one o'clock in the morning, and, leaving Antibes unmolested, proceeded to Cannes.

His unexpected appearance produced a sentiment of mingled astonishment, fear, and joy. The recollections attached to that name, which the most romantic enterprises, the most heroic exploits, services the most signal, and establishments the most useful, vices unparalleled, and actions unspeakably atrocious, had contributed to render so celebrated; all these recollections, in which horror was mingled with admiration, and hope with terror, produced at Cannes, and in the whole of the country which he traversed, a scene of magical illusion easier to comprehend than to describe.

Continuing his progress to Grasse, he found the town deserted. A report had been spread that a troop of corsairs had landed and were ravaging the country; but the fears of the populace dissipated as soon as they had learned the truth. The mayor was required to furnish rations for the followers of Napoleon. He nobly replied, that he acknowledged no authority but that of Louis XVIII. The inhabitants, however, returning in crowds, opened their shops and were easily induced to supply the wants of the soldiers. He left here the six pieces of cannon which he had brought from Elba, finding that they incommoded and retarded his march.

At four o'clock in the afternoon he arrived at the village of Cérénon, having travelled twenty leagues in the first day. On the 3d of March he slept at Barenne, and on the 4th at Digne; which last, being a town of some size, afforded him the means of printing two proclamations, which he dated from his landing-place, the Gulf of Juan, March 1, 1815.

The news of the landing of Bonaparte was known at Marseilles on the same day; and, if a body of troops had been immediately dispatched, his progress might have been intercepted. The national guards and many volunteers were eager to march; but Massena, who commanded the garrison of Marseilles, could not be induced to take any decisive steps. On the third day, however, when the invader had penetrated eighty miles into the country, one regiment was sent in pursuit.

At Digne, as at Cannes, the peasants flocked from every quarter, and manifested their sentiments with an energy that no longer left any doubt of the real feelings of this part of the population. The fear of losing the emigrant property, which they had purchased at one-third of its value, and of again becoming subject to their feudal masters, had alienated the affections of the peasants from their legitimate sovereign.

Leaving the main body of his troops behind, who were unable to keep pace with the rapidity of his march, he proceeded with only ten horsemen and forty grenadiers, and, on the 5th, arrived at Gap. Here he issued his proclamations, thousands of which were quickly dispersed through the country.

On the 6th, Napoleon hastened towards Grenoble. As he passed through St. Bonnet, with his advanced-guard, the inhabitants proposed to ring the tocsin, to assemble the villagers, and accompany him in a mass. "No!" replied he; "your sentiments prove to me that I have not deceived myself, and they afford me a sure pledge of the sentiments of my soldiers. I do not need your services,

and will not drag you from your homes. Those whom I meet will range themselves on my side; and the more numerous they are, the more certain will be my success."

That evening he slept at Gap, but his advanced-guard was ordered to proceed during the night. They reached the village of Mure, where they met the advanced-guard of the troops from Grenoble, who were approaching to oppose the progress of Napoleon. General Cambronne, who commanded the troops of Napoleon, proposed a parley; but he was answered that all communication was forbidden.

As soon as the invader was informed that his progress would be contested, he resolved to put in practice a *ruse-de-guerre*, which, if it was not previously concerted between him and the officers who so soon swelled his ranks, does infinite credit to his talents and his courage. He proceeded towards the royal troops, accompanied only by two or three officers. They consisted of a battalion of the 5th of the line, with a company of sappers and miners, comprising about 800 men. Arriving within pistol-shot, he alighted; and, advancing on the right of the battalion, which apparently only waited the command of its officers to fire upon him, he bared his bosom, and thus addressed them; "Behold me! If there is one soldier among you who wishes to kill his emperor, let him come forward from the ranks and fire upon me." The effect was instantaneous. The arms of every soldier were hurled on the ground and the air resounded with the cries of "The emperor for ever!" The guard and the soldiers rapturously embraced; they eagerly tore off the white cockade, and enthusiastically mounted the national colours. Enchanted with this success, he formed them into a square, and harangued them. "Soldiers! I come with a handful of men to deliver you from the Bourbons, from treason, from feudal tyranny, and from the abuses which they have brought with them. The throne of the Bourbons is illegitimate, because it is contrary to the will of the nation. It exists only in the interests of a few families. Is not this true, comrades?"—"Yes, fire!" exclaimed a grenadier; "you are our emperor, and we will march with you to victory or to death!"

Thus reinforced, he approached Grenoble. The garrison was composed of the seventh and eleventh regiments of the line, the fourth hussars, and the fourth of artillery. This was the very regiment in which, twenty-five years before, Napoleon had commenced his military career, and in which his memory was yet idolized.

The seventh was commanded by colonel Labedoyère, who had lately received his appointment from the king, and the decoration of the legion of honour. He participated in the general dissatisfaction arising from the inactivity and supposed disgrace of the army, and the threatened subversion of the constitution. He had nothing personally to complain of. He had no connexion with the conspiracy, and shared in the general surprise when the landing of Napoleon was announced; but, "misled by illusions, by recollections, and by false ideas of honour, his country spoke a chimerical language to his heart," and he suddenly resolved to join the cause of the adventurer. His soldiers were too well disposed to second him; and he had scarcely begun to acquaint them with his intentions and wishes, when he was interrupted by the shout of "The emperor for ever!" He allowed them no time for reflection; but, fixing an eagle on a willow branch, he hastened to effect his purpose.

The disaffection of Labedoyère was the signal for general revolt. It ought not, perhaps, to be said, that "had he remained firm to his duty, the atrocious project of Bonaparte would have failed, and France would not have been conducted to the brink of a precipice, the depth of which one trembles to fathom." The whole army was ripe for revolt; and it is probable that not a single battalion could have been induced to fire on their former leader. It is however certain, that the treason of

Labedoyère seduced those who were wavering, and assured the success of the conspiracy.

His forces being nearly doubled by the addition of Labedoyère's regiment, Napoleon fearlessly advanced towards Grenoble, and at nine o'clock in the evening arrived at the suburbs. The gates were shut; and the ramparts were lined by the troops which composed the garrison, whom the commandant, general Marchand, was vainly exhorting to resist the invader. The keys were formally demanded. It was answered that Marchand had carried them away. Some little delay occurring, a tumultuous movement took place among the troops and the inhabitants who filled the ramparts. Napoleon was recognized at a little distance. The intelligence was communicated with the rapidity of lightning. A sudden shout burst from every lip; and the cannoneers, who stood at their pieces with lighted matches, extinguished them in an instant, and joined in the acclamations. The engineers of Napoleon now prepared to force the gates. They had scarcely commenced their operations, when the whole garrison threw down their arms, trampled the white cockade under foot, and, rushing to the gates, tore them open. Napoleon entered Grenoble at ten o'clock, amidst an immense crowd composed of the populace and the soldiers, who thronged from every quarter eager to gaze upon him, and salute him emperor.

It was remarked, that in a few minutes every soldier had mounted the tri-coloured cockade. These cockades were not new; neither were they supplied by Napoleon, nor purchased at Grenoble; they were the old colours under which they had formerly marched to victory, and which they had carefully concealed at the bottom of their knapsacks. The tattered and faded ribbands were shown with enthusiasm: "See," cried the infatuated soldiers, "they are the same which we wore at Austerlitz and at Marengo!"

The mayor and civil authorities now presented themselves, and wished to conduct him to the government-house; but he declined their civility, and proceeded to the hotel of the Three Dolphins, which was kept by one of his old soldiers to whom he had formerly been much attached. He had scarcely taken possession of his apartments, when the approach of an innumerable crowd, uttering some unintelligible shouts, drew him to the balcony. The whole population of Grenoble was dragging along the remains of the gate of Bonne through which he had entered. "We were not permitted," cried they, "to present you with the keys; but, instead of them, here are the gates."

General Marchand, who had been arrested by the seditions soldiers, was now brought before him. Indignant at the insult which had been offered to this officer, Napoleon ordered him to be immediately released, and pressed him to re-assume the command of the town. "I may appeal to yourself," replied the general, "that I once served you faithfully. Your abdication released me from my allegiance to you; and I have since sworn fidelity to the Bourbons. Here is my sword. I can again submit to become a prisoner, but I can never be a traitor." Napoleon mused for a moment. He was evidently and deeply affected: "General," said he, "take back your sword. You have hitherto used it as a true soldier, and I respect you too much to urge you now to use it in a way which your conscience would disapprove. You are at liberty to depart."

On the next day Napoleon gave audience to the municipality, and chief officers of the troops, when the mayor delivered the following address. "Sire! The inhabitants of Grenoble, enraptured to behold again the conqueror of Europe, the prince with whose name are associated the most glorious recollections, hasten to lay at the feet of your majesty the tribute of their respect and their love. Attached to your glory and that of the army, they have lamented, with your brave soldiers, the unfortunate events

events which, for a short time, have thrown a cloud over your eagles. They know that treason had delivered up our country to foreign troops; and, your majesty, yielding to the force of necessity, had preferred a momentary exile to the convulsive struggles of civil war. Like the great Camillus, the sovereign power had not unduly elated your mind, and banishment has not depressed it. Every thing is now changed. The cypress has disappeared. The laurels once more flourish. The French people recover their energy. The hero of Europe re-assumes his rank, and the great nation is immortal."

To this Napoleon replied, "Men of Dauphiny, You have gratified the expectations which I had formed of you. When I disembarked on the shores of France, I wished to arrive with the rapidity of an eagle in the good city of Grenoble, whose patriotism and attachment to my person were well known to me. I feel myself unable to express the esteem and regard for you which your elevated sentiments have inspired. My heart is full of the emotions which you have produced. I shall ever retain the recollection of them."

The treason of the garrison of Grenoble placed Napoleon at the head of an army of 10,000 men, with a considerable park of artillery. He was now confident of success. At two o'clock he reviewed his troops, and proceeded on his march towards Lyons. At this time he issued the following declaration to the French, and particularly to the Parisians: "After an abdication, the circumstances of which you are acquainted with; after a treaty, all the articles of which have been violated; after having seen my retreat penetrated by numerous assassins, all sent by the Bourbons; after having seen the French ministers intriguing at Vienna, to wrest from me the asylum to which I was reduced, and to take from my wife and son the states which had been guaranteed to them; from that son whose birth inspired you with so lively a joy, and who ought to have been to all the sovereigns a sacred pledge: all these attempts, made in violation of plighted faith, have restored me to my throne and my liberty. Frenchmen! soon I shall be in my capital; I come surrounded by my brave brethren in arms, after having delivered our provinces of the south, and my good city of Lyons, from the reign of fanaticism, which is that of the Bourbons. Fifteen days have sufficed me to unite these faithful warriors, the honour of France; and before the 30th of this month, your happy emperor, the sovereign of your choice, will put to flight those slothful princes, who wish to render you tributary to foreigners, and the contempt of Europe. France shall still be the happiest country in the world. The French shall still be the great nation; Paris shall again become the queen of cities, as well as the seat of sciences and the arts. In concert with you, I will take measures in order that the state may be governed constitutionally, and that a wise liberty may never degenerate into licentiousness. I will mitigate, to the satisfaction of all, those imposts, become odious, which the Bourbons gave you their princely word they would abolish, under the title of *droits réunis*, and which they have re-established under the title of indirect impositions. Property shall be, without distinction, respected and sacred, as well as individual liberty. The general tranquillity shall be constantly the object of my efforts; commerce, our flourishing manufactures, and agriculture, which, under my reign, attained so high a prosperity, shall be relieved from the enormous impositions with which an ephemeral government have burdened it. Every thing shall be restored to order; and the dissipation of the finances of the state, to gratify the luxury of the court, shall be immediately repressed. No vengeance; it is far from my heart. The Bourbons have set a price on my head, and I pardon them. If they fall into my power I will protect them; I will deliver them to their allies, if they wish it, or to that foreign country where their chief has already reigned nineteen years, and where he may continue his glorious reign. To this my vengeance is limited. Be calm, Parisians; and you, na-

tional guards of that noble city, you who have already rendered such great service; you who, but for treason, would have been enabled to defend it for some hours longer, against those allies who were ready to fly from France; continue to protect property and civil liberty; then you will have deserved well of your country, and of your emperor. From my imperial general head-quarters, Bourgoing.

(Signed)

NAPOLEON."

When the French government was first apprised of the landing of Napoleon at Cannes, it affected to hide, under the appearance of profound security, its heartfelt dismay. The Bulletin by which this event was made known, proclaimed "that Bonaparte, in a fit of madness worthy of crowning his life, had thrown himself on the coast of France at the head of 7 or 800 banditti; that the gendarmerie were in pursuit of him, and that he was deprived of all hopes of re-embarkation; that his having come of his own accord to receive the punishment due to his crimes, was a most fortunate event; that government had taken all the necessary precautions, and that the tranquillity of the public would not for one moment be disturbed by the mad attempt of an adventurer." The nobility that formed the court of the Bourbons, uniting credulity to presumption, gave implicit belief to these assertions; and, the succeeding bulletins having announced, "that, as soon as it was known that Bonaparte had disembarked, the surrounding population had run to arms, in defence of the legitimate sovereign; that it was even necessary to restrain their zeal; and that, Bonaparte being now penned up in the mountains, the news of his capture might be expected every moment; no doubt was entertained, but the *man of Elba* would soon grace a gibbet. A number of officers of the royal household, and of the placeless nobility, fearing that the least delay might make them lose the opportunity of displaying their devoted attachment, crowded to the war-office, to obtain the favour of being sent into the department of the Var. Some of them took post-horses at their own expense, resolving, they said, to ride down twenty horses if necessary, so as to be in at the death. It was with them a subject of mutual inquiry whenever they met, whether they intended to join the wild-boar hunt. The news of the defection of some regiments, and the taking of Grenoble, only created a momentary alarm: "Other troops," it was said, "were rapidly advancing to cut off his retreat. The defection of two or three regiments was of but little importance; and, were even the thirty or forty thousand men that composed the French army to forget every sense of duty (which God forbid), what resistance could they make against the mass of the nation? Could it be believed for one moment that France would once more submit to the yoke of the usurper, and would consent to abandon for him the best and most adored of monarchs, whose subjects had unanimously proclaimed him *Le Déniré*? No—a million of national guards were ready to sacrifice themselves for his defence; the departments of the North, East, and West, were ready to rise up in his cause; and Paris, that faithful and devoted capital, contained one hundred thousand fighting men, a force more than adequate to the destruction of the traitors." Such was the language of the court adherents, and of the pensioned journalists.

In the mean while, the imperial eagle flew from steeple to steeple; Napoleon advanced with gigantic strides. The people, far from opposing him, carried him in triumph; national guards, regular troops, all assumed the tri-coloured cockade; and Paris itself only awaited the departure of the king to send forth the cry of *Vive l'empereur*!

It was in vain that three millions of francs were offered for the head of the monster. It was in vain that the Congress of Vienna authorised his assassination. Not an assassin was to be found.

The Bourbons had spread themselves over France to collect their adherents. Monsieur (the duke d'Artois), with the duke of Orleans and count Damas, set out for Lyons; and

and the duke of Angoulême was ordered to proceed from Bordeaux to Nîmes. The duke of Berri was likewise about to join the army; but the marshals Macdonald and St. Cyr entreated him to relinquish the design, assuring him that his interference would be the death-warrant of his family. This prince had been unable to reconcile himself to the generals of Bonaparte and the former enemies of his house, and had rendered himself unpopular by some indiscreet and contemptuous language which he had used towards the most meritorious of the marshals.

Monsieur and the duke of Orleans arrived at Lyons, where they were joined by marshal Macdonald. The majority of the inhabitants were favourable to Napoleon, but a strong party of royalists yet remained at Lyons; and many of the young men of the principal families formed themselves into a guard of honour for the immediate protection of Monsieur. On the next day the troops of the garrison were reviewed. Monsieur harangued them. He dwelt on the virtues of Louis, and on the oath of fidelity which they had taken; and he painted in lively colours the perfidious character and atrocious projects of Bonaparte. His own escort, and the guard of honour, replied with the acclamations of "The king for ever!" but the troops of the line maintained a mournful and obstinate silence. Monsieur then addressed the colonel of the 13th dragoons, and asked him what were the feelings, what the intentions, of his regiment. "Interrogate them," said the officer, "they will frankly reply to you." Monsieur addressed the soldier who was nearest to him: "Are you well paid?" "Yes, my lord."—"Will you fight for the king?" "No my lord."—"For whom, then, will you fight?" "For Napoleon."—The prince dismounted, he proceeded through the ranks, and accosted every individual whose person he recollected. At length he came to an old soldier, covered with scars, and decorated with three medals. "Well, comrade!" said he, "a brave soldier, like you, cannot hesitate to cry the king for ever!" "You deceive yourself," answered the dragoon roughly: "no soldier will fight against his father; and my cry will be 'The emperor for ever!'"

Macdonald would not yet despair. The advanced guard of the rebels had reached the suburbs of La Guillotière. Macdonald ordered two battalions of infantry to proceed against them, and placed himself at their head. As they crossed the bridge that led to the suburb, a reconnoitring party of the 4th hussars, which had joined Napoleon at Grenoble, appeared, followed by some squadrons, and by a tumultuous populace shouting "The emperor forever!" The moment was decisive. The troops on each side rushed forward—not to imbrue their hands in each others blood, but to give each other the fraternal embrace.

Macdonald precipitated himself among them. His menaces and his entreaties were alike unheard. The voice of authority was disregarded. They forgot their allegiance, and increased the army of the invader. "We know nothing of the king," they exclaimed as he pointed to the standard of Louis, and urged them not to abandon it, "we never knew him; and you alone, who have taken an oath to him which our hearts disavow, will be culpable if you cease to be faithful to him. Napoleon was torn from us by treason, but he was never absent from our affections; and, as his noble enterprise has again restored him to us, it is to him that we ought to prefer an oath, which to him alone we have taken. To obey the king, and disobey the emperor, that only would be dishonour and perjury. To quit the standard of the king, and join the ranks of the emperor, is the best proof which we can give of our fidelity." In this moment of shameful dereliction of their duty they however, exhibited an honourable feeling which it is pleasing to record. The marshal was surrounded by the rebels, and made prisoner. The troops which had deserted him no sooner perceived this than they flew to his rescue, declared that they would defend him at the hazard of their lives, conducted him

safely within the gates, and returned to join the followers of Napoleon.

All was evidently lost, and Monsieur hastily quitted Lyons: even the guard of honour now forsook him, and one horseman alone had sufficient courage and fidelity to attend him.

Napoleon entered Lyons on the evening of the 9th. Next morning he reviewed the whole of his army, which now assumed a formidable appearance. During that review he exhibited one of those traits of greatness which are strangely mingled in his character with so many base and unworthy qualities. The guard of honour, which had been formed for the protection of Monsieur, presented itself before him, and entreated that they might be permitted to become his personal escort. "Your conduct towards the comte d'Artois," replied he, "assures me what I should expect from you, if I sustained a reverse of fortune." He dismissed them with contempt; and ordered a cross of the legion of honour to be transmitted to the faithful trooper who had accompanied the count.

Napoleon had now nothing to dread; and, being compelled to halt at Lyons to refresh his harassed troops, he assumed all the imperial state, and began to issue his proclamations and decrees, as if he were already reinstated on the throne. His reception in the second town of France justified this presumption. He mixed with the people in the streets, and at the ball which was given to him at the town-house, with the same unassuming confidence which had marked his former progress, and which was no less apparent during his advance upon the capital.

It was confidently reported by the partisans of the Bourbons, that numerous troops were advancing from the south to surround Bonaparte and cut off his retreat. The king, however, placed little reliance on this intelligence, to which the greatest importance was attached by his imprudent and infatuated courtiers. In fact, what reliance could he place on the professions of any of his troops after the defections of Grenoble and Lyons? He was more fully justified in this distrust by the intelligence which he had just received of the conduct of the garrison of Lille. Count Erlon had endeavoured to seduce the troops, to abandon the cause of the monarch. He had partially succeeded, when marshal Mortier, discovering the plot, caused him to be put under arrest. He was immediately tried and condemned to death: he was led to the square of the citadel; his eyes were bandaged; a file of soldiers were drawn up before him; their pieces were presented, and the fatal word was momentarily expected; when the troops suddenly rose against Mortier, and declared Erlon commander of the fortress. Erlon, however, speedily released the marshal, and sent him to Paris.

It was in opposition to the advice of the princes of his family, that Louis had convened the two chambers. These misguided men had been unable to relinquish the lofty ideas of the kingly prerogative in which they had been educated. They wished to have seen the sovereign assume a dictatorial power, for which the present crisis would have formed some colourable excuse, and which might have prepared the way for the future extension of the monarch's prerogative. But Louis, who was the victim of bad counsels, and a cruel concurrence of circumstances, and not of his own ambition, was now perfectly convinced, that, even if the pretensions of Bonaparte were crushed, there would be no security for himself and his family, but in the strict observance of the constitution which he had sworn to respect.

The two chambers having met on the 9th of March, after some preliminary business, they both voted loyal addresses to the king.

The government now began, in earnest, their efforts to stop the progress of Bonaparte; and troops were collected from all quarters to proceed against him. Great preparations were also made to collect a formidable army at Melun,

Jun, a town on the Seine, at the distance of ten leagues from Paris; and another at Montargis, a few hours march from Fontainebleau. The government now thought, that if Bonaparte attempted to proceed on the road to Paris he would be cut off, as he would thus be placed between two fires. Marshal Ney, the prince of Moskwa, had already reached Lons le Saulnier, with an army amounting to about 14,000 men, with which he threatened his rear. This officer had, in an effusion of loyalty, repaired to the Tuileries, and, proffering his services, had assured the king, on receiving the command of these troops, that he would bring Bonaparte to Paris in an iron cage. To which the king replied, with mild dignity, that this was not what he required, and that he only desired of the marshal to drive back the invader. The prince took his leave of the king, and departed.

Though it was greatly apprehended that the spirit of disaffection had pervaded the army in general, it was hoped that a part would yet be found faithful. The marshals, the national-guard, the representatives of the people, and the civil authorities, seemed to vie with each other in their professions of attachment and devotion. The knowledge that armies were placed in front, on the flanks, and in the rear, cheered the drooping spirits of the royalists, who, applauding the loyalty of the national-guard, rather than confiding in their prowess, saw with satisfaction the departure of the marshals to head the armies, and particularly the prince of Moskwa, whose assurances to the king were cited in his own phraseology, that he would bring the sovereign of Elba, in an iron cage, to Paris. The king, indeed, placed the fullest confidence in this general; and meeting with Madame Ney, two days afterwards, he said to her with emotion, "Madame, you have a husband whose loyalty is equal to his courage." For a short time confidence appeared to be in some degree restored. The government received favourable accounts from the north. Marshal Oudinot having assembled the garrison of Metz, amounting to 13,000 men, told them, that he had never deceived them when they had fought together; that he was ready to give passports to all who wished to join Bonaparte; but that he wished to be sure of those who willingly remained with him. The troops immediately renewed their oath of fidelity to the king. The old guard was foremost in professing its loyalty: "Although," said they, "he has not used us well; although he has degraded us from our rank of guards, and, above all, has shown that he distrusted our honour, we will prove to him and to France that we can be generous in proportion as others are unjust." When intelligence of this was brought to the king, he instantly ordered that every soldier should have the rank of sergeant; that every sergeant should be considered a commissioned officer; that each subaltern should rank as captain; and that the whole should receive pay as in the time of Bonaparte. His majesty likewise ordered that they should be henceforth called *the king's guards*, and should proceed by forced marches to Paris, and do the duty of the palace.

On the 11th of March, a report was made to the chamber of peers, by the king's order, in which the whole progress of Bonaparte from his landing was frankly related.

On the 14th Monsieur returned to Paris, and reported his unsuccessful mission. The king was now confirmed in the apprehensions which he had entertained from the beginning. His majesty was urged by many to retire to the northern departments, or to Belgium; but his most enlightened friends thought it best for Louis to attend at one of the sittings of the chambers, surrounded by the princes of his blood, and in the most public, solemn, and unequivocal manner, repeat his acceptance of the Constitutional Charter, and his determination to respect the property and the rights of all his subjects. It was justly and unanswerably argued, that, as the most sanguine hopes of the invader were founded on the suspicions and fears which unfortunately prevailed, that the charter would be

broken or eluded, his defeat could only be insured by the prompt removal of those fears.

On the 16th of March, therefore, the king went in great state to the hall of the deputies. The chamber of peers had been invited to assist at the sitting. Louis was received with the most lively testimonies of affection and respect. He placed himself on the throne, and thus addressed the assembly. "Gentlemen! In this momentous crisis, when the public enemy has penetrated into a part of the kingdom, and threatens the liberty of the remainder, I come in the midst of you to draw closer those ties which unite us together, and which constitute the strength of the state. I come, in addressing myself to you, to declare to all France my sentiments and my wishes. I have revisited my country, and reconciled her to all foreign nations, who will doubtless maintain, with the utmost fidelity, those treaties which had restored to us peace. I have laboured for the benefit of my people. I have received, and still continue daily to receive, the most striking proofs of their love. *Can I, then, at sixty years of age, better terminate my career than by dying in their defence? I fear nothing for myself; but I fear for France.* He who comes to light again amongst us the torch of civil war brings with him also the scourge of foreign war. He comes to reduce our country under his iron yoke. He comes, in short, to destroy that Constitutional Charter which I have given you; that Charter, my brightest title to the estimation of posterity, that Charter which all Frenchmen cherish, and which I here swear to maintain. Let us rally, therefore, around it! let it be our sacred standard! The descendants of Henry the Fourth will be the first to range themselves under it. They will be followed by all good Frenchmen. In short, gentlemen, let the concurrence of the two chambers give to authority all the force that is necessary; and this war, truly national, will prove by its happy termination what a great nation, united in its love to its king and to its laws, can effect."

At the close of this address the whole assembly rose, and extending their hands towards the throne, exclaimed with one voice, "The king for ever! We will die for the king! The king in life and in death!" The king, profoundly moved, presented his hand to Monsieur, which his royal-highness seized, and kissed with transport. Louis was no longer able to suppress his feelings, and pressed Monsieur to his breast. At this touching spectacle, every heart was melted; every eye moistened with tears; every faculty appeared absorbed, and not one voice dared to interrupt the sublimity of the scene. At length by one simultaneous impulse, all hands were again stretched towards the throne, and the hall rung with the most rapturous acclamations. "In one day," says a spectator, "the destinies of France would have been for ever assured; the king, the country, our dearest rights, would have been for ever safe, if all France could have been present at this scene." But, in the present crisis, scenes like these tended rather to the injury than the benefit of the royal cause. They generated a sort of loquacious patriotism, when it was far more necessary to act than to harangue. After the tribune had shouted forth some energetic and eloquent philippics against Napoleon, both the orator and his hearers fondly imagined that the invader was crushed, and the decisive measures that actually bid the fairest to crush him were neglected.

On his return from the assembly, Monsieur reviewed the national guard of Paris. Fifty battalions filed in close order in the inner court of the Tuileries, amounting to nearly 25,000 men. As each battalion entered the square, the cries of "The king for ever!" resounded from every soldier. Unfortunately, at the moment when the columns were commencing their march by the balcony in which Louis was seated, he was seized with so excruciating a paroxysm of gout, that his attendants were forced to carry him away in their arms; and the national-guard, after showing the spirit which animated them by one full

shout of "The king for ever!" were dismissed to their respective quarters.

In about an hour the pain abated, and Louis expressed his determination to review the troops of the line, consisting of 6000 men, who were drawn up in the Place du Caroussel. After the shameful defection of so many regiments, these were regarded with the most anxious solicitude. On them depended the fate of the Bourbon dynasty. As they approached the gates, Louis trembled. He was not long kept in suspense. The grenadiers of the first regiment hoisted their caps on the points of their bayonets, which action was immediately followed by all the troops: but they uttered no shout. Louis was evidently and profoundly affected. He attempted to address them, but he could not utter a word: he could only press his hand to his heart, and thus silently, but forcibly, appeal to them. The silence of the troops was regarded by every reflecting man as ominous of their approaching treachery; but those who surrounded the monarch thought differently; the fears of the courtiers were dissipated, and they predicted the speedy fall of Bonaparte, his followers, his principles, and his cause. Many of them, in the intoxication of their joy, congratulated each other that the enterprise of Bonaparte had been attempted. It exhibited, said they, the true character of the public feeling; it drew a useful line of demarcation between the good and the bad. They blessed the occasion which unmasked the one, and proved the fidelity of the other. A few days showed the folly of this conduct, and afforded a mournful and almost incredible proof of the levity of the French character, and the weakness of human nature.

Napoleon, after issuing his proclamations and decrees at Lyons, prepared to march forward; and on the 13th he departed for Villefranche, and reached Maçon in the evening. He travelled in an open carriage, seldom escorted by more than a dozen dragoons, and often without a single attendant. He was frequently more than a league before his advanced-guard. At many of the towns through which he passed, and at which he changed horses, he was not recognised. At one post-house, an English lady arrived in an opposite direction at the same moment. Neither she nor the master of the post-house knew him, and she requested that he would permit her to have the first set of horses, as she was pressed for time. He smiled, and replied, "that the object of his journey was rather pressing too, but that he must give way to a lady;" when she had proceeded about a league, she met the advanced-guard, and learned, to her great surprise, that it was the emperor Napoleon. A few posts from Lyons he met a regiment of cavalry marching with the avowed purpose of opposing him. He no sooner discerned the dragoons at a distance, with the white standard and cockade, than he quitted his carriage, mounted a led horse, and, attended by one aid-du-camp, rode forward to meet them. He advanced to the colonel, and, without one word of preface, ordered the regiment to break into column and follow him. The order was obeyed as quickly and as regularly as if they were on parade. In many towns the populace, hearing of his approach, assembled in crowds, and abandoned themselves to the greatest excesses. Every symbol of the royal government was destroyed, and those who appeared with the white cockade were insulted. When Napoleon appeared among them, they thronged around him; impeded his progress; and deafened him with their shouts of welcome. He smiled at one, caressed another; and distributed crosses of the legion of honour among some of the most distinguished, saying, at the same time, "It was for you, my friends, that I instituted the legion of honour, and not for the emigrants pensioned by our enemies." His progress towards Paris was most rapid. On the 15th he slept at Autun, and on the 16th at Avalon. The military every where obeyed him with alacrity; and his army, like a snow-ball, augmented as it rolled on. The French government had used every exertion to keep

the soldiers to their colours, and even threatened them with the punishment of death in case they deserted.

In the mean time, marshal Ney, with the whole of his corps, had joined Napoleon. It is said that this officer was taking measures for falling on the rear of the invader, and for that purpose was on the point of marching from Lons le Saulnier, where his forces were stationed, when, on the night of the 12th of March, some of Bonaparte's emissaries arrived, and were introduced to him. They delivered to him letters from the grand-marshal Bertrand, which painted, in the most glowing colours, the hopeless situation of the king, and the certainty of Napoleon's success. They assured him that the emperor had concerted this enterprise with Austria, through the mediation of general Koller; that the empress and her son were on the road to Paris; that England had connived at his escape; that Murat advanced triumphant towards Italy to assist his brother-in-law; that the Russians had retired to their distant country, and Alexander would no more intermeddle with the affairs of the south; that Prussia alone was unable to contend with France; that, if the marshal were disposed to resist, he had no longer the power; that Napoleon had secretly received the submission of every regiment in the service; that all Ney's most confidential officers had long been enrolled among the adherents of the emperor; and that a vain and useless attempt at resistance, would expose his country to the horrors of civil war. It was added, that Napoleon had for ever renounced his projects of arbitrary government and universal dominion, and wished now to reign for the happiness of France alone. Whatever might have been the sentiments of Ney before he received this communication, after pausing a short time, he resolved to join his troops to those of Napoleon. He saw evidently, that the king's cause was hopeless; "and he was weak enough," says Mr. Hobhouse, "not to do the only thing left for an honourable man. Instead of returning to Paris with the news, he marched with the revolted army; and has branded his name with an infamy that even the success of his cause has failed to obliterate. His name and crime furnished a pun for the Parisian wits, who say of his treachery, *Il faut être né pour ça*; and the king soon after designated him as the *Né plus ultra* of traitors."

This defection was decisive of the contest, for all confidence was now at an end. On the 17th, Bonaparte arrived at Auxerre. Here he met the fourteenth regiment of the line, which had proceeded by forced marches to range itself under his banners. As soon as these soldiers were drawn up before him, they trampled under foot the white cockade which they had sworn to defend. Napoleon smiled at this proof of their attachment; and walking through their ranks, addressed himself familiarly to several whom he recognised, or pretended to recollect. He stopped before an old soldier, who was decorated with three medals: "And you," said he, slapping him gently on the shoulder, "how long have you been in the service?" "Twenty-five years, sire!" "Ah! I recollect," interrupted Napoleon, "we were together at Rivoli, where we took seven pieces of cannon. I see that you are a good soldier, and I will take care of you." By these familiar conversations Napoleon always gained the hearts of the soldiers. On the 19th, at night, he turned off from the great road to sleep at Fontainebleau, determined that the palace which had witnessed his misfortunes should first receive him in his success.

The French court was in the greatest alarm. On the night of the 18th, a grand council was held at the Tuilleries, at which the princes, the ministers, and the generals, assisted. The generals declared that no dependence was to be placed in the army assembled at Melun, and deprecated any further resistance to the progress of Napoleon as a useless waste of blood. This was strenuously opposed by some of the courtiers, and one of the princes; and, it is said, the most violent and intemperate language was used.

used. The council broke up in disorder, and the king despairing and broken hearted. The two chambers, however, continued firm in their attachment to the king, notwithstanding the critical state of affairs; and, on the 17th, they voted two loyal addresses to his majesty, which were presented by deputations on the evening of the 18th.

Meanwhile the troops remained at Melun, and a battle was expected on the next day. The number of national guards, volunteers, and other troops, collected to stop the march and crush the hopes of the invader, was estimated at not less than 100,000 men. The best spirit seemed to prevail amongst them. They appeared devoted to the cause of the king, and eager to meet and repel his antagonist. A powerful artillery strengthened their positions. Relying on their numbers, they had left the town, the rocks, and the forest, of Fontainebleau unguarded, preferring the flat plains of Melun, where the whole of their army might act at once against the comparatively small band of the invader. Napoleon had at that time with him only 15,000 veteran troops; but other divisions were either following him, or advancing to support his right and left flanks on parallel lines of march.

Early on the morning of the 21st, preparations were made on both sides for the encounter which was expected to take place. The French army was drawn up in three lines, the intervals and the flanks armed with batteries. The centre occupied the Paris road. The ground from Fontainebleau to Melun is a continual declivity, so that, emerging from the forest, a clear prospect of the country presents itself; and, on the other hand, those who are in the valley can easily descry whatever appears on the eminence. An awful silence pervaded the king's army, broken at times by peals of martial music, intended to confirm the loyalty of the troops by repeating the popular airs of Henry Quatre, and La Belle Gabrielle, or by the voice of the commanders and the march of divisions to their appointed ground. All was anxious expectation. The chiefs were conscious that a moment would decide the fate of the Bourbon dynasty; and the troops were secretly awed at the thought of meeting in hostility the man whom they had been accustomed to obey.

On the side of Fontainebleau no sound was heard as of an army rushing to battle. If the enemy was advancing, his troops evidently moved in silence. "Perhaps his heart has failed him, and he has retreated," was the secret ardent wish of the friends of the Bourbons. At length a light trampling of horses became audible. It approached. An open carriage, attended by a few hussars and dragoons, appeared on the skirts of the forest. It drove down the hills with the rapidity of lightning. It nearly reached the advanced posts, when the escort threw down their arms, and rushed forward to embrace the king's troops. Surprised at this unexpected manoeuvre, the soldiers were for a moment irresolute. The carriage now reached them. The traveller was immediately recognised: "The emperor for ever!" burst from every mouth. "Napoleon! Napoleon the Great!" spread from rank to rank; for, bareheaded, Bertrand seated at his right, and Drouet at his left, Napoleon continued his course; now waving his hand, now opening his arms to the soldiery, whom he called his friends, his companions in arms, whose honour, whose glories, whose country, he now came to restore.

All discipline was forgotten, disobeyed, and insulted. The commanders-in-chief took flight. Thousands rushed on his passage. Acclamations rent the sky. At that moment his own guard descended the hill. The imperial march was played: the eagles were once more displayed, and they, whose deadly weapons were to have aimed at each other's life, embraced as brothers, and joined in universal shouts. In the midst of these greetings, Napoleon passed through the whole of the royal army, and, placing himself at its head, pursued his course to Paris.

Louis had anticipated this result, and at one o'clock on the morning of the 20th quitted Paris. His resolution was, however, so suddenly formed, and executed with

such haste, that his portfolio, containing his correspondence with the dukes d'Angouleme for many years, was found on the table in his apartment; and in his drawers were his correspondence with Louis XVI. a medal which he was in the daily habit of wearing, and many things calculated to compromise the safety of numerous individuals. He also left (what Napoleon found extremely convenient) about two millions of the public money in the hands of the different receivers. The household-troops alone had sufficient loyalty to accompany the fugitive. They escorted him to the frontiers with a fidelity which did them much credit.

When the departure of the king was known, astonishment and suspense seemed to have deprived the inhabitants of Paris of the power of action. All the authorities were withdrawn; yet the most perfect and mournful tranquillity, for a time, prevailed. At that moment the battle was supposed to be contesting at Melun, on which depended the fate of France; and each party, fearful of committing itself too soon, anxiously awaited the result.

The bank continued its payments as usual, without one moment's interruption. Though it was an establishment of all others most sensible to the influence of political changes, it did not sustain the slightest shock.

By degrees every street and square became crowded with anxious inquirers. Every avenue leading to the Tuileries was thronged. As the partisans of Louis and Napoleon came in contact, scenes of confusion began. The cries of "The king for ever!" resounded from a thousand voices, but they were drowned amid the shouts of "The emperor for ever!" From reproaches the parties proceeded to blows; but the national guard interfered, and by its moderation and firmness prevented the effusion of blood. About noon the national guard, at the command of their new colonel, assumed the tri-coloured cockade. The triumph and approach of Napoleon were proclaimed, and soon afterwards some of the troops who had marched out to oppose the Corsican returned bearing his colours.

It was now ludicrous to observe the activity of the shopkeepers in removing every vestige of royalty. Before evening innumerable signs prettily adorned with lilies had vanished, and a thousand eagles, appearing as it were by magic, proudly stretched their wings over the portals of the houses. Ribands and rings of a violet colour had long been worn by the Bonapartists, and that interesting flower had appeared in the button-hole of some of the boldest of the conspirators; but now it seemed as if the whole country had been laid under contribution, to furnish the bouquet which adorned every bosom, or was worn in the hat with all the ostentation of a cockade.

At two o'clock general Excelsmans arrived at the Tuileries, and, relieving the national guard, tore down the flag of the Bourbons and hoisted that of the empire. This was the signal for greater tumult. The inhabitants of the suburbs of St. Marceau and St. Antoine assembled in the Caroussel, and endeavoured to force the gates which separate that square from the courts of the palace. Had they effected their purpose, the late residence of Louis would probably have been levelled with the ground. They were, however, bravely resisted by the national guard.

At length more numerous bodies of troops began to pour in by different and opposite gates; and, as almost every detachment appeared to escort several carriages, the attention of the crowd was completely occupied, and the cry was continually raised that the emperor approached.

All the general officers then at Paris had set out early in the morning, with the municipal corps and some grand dignitaries, to meet him whom a twelvemonth ago they had branded as a tyrant, whom the day before they had stigmatised as an usurper, but whom they professed themselves eager to salute to-day as their emperor. A long file of led-horses and magnificent equipages accompanied them, destined for the use of Napoleon. He received them with apparent cordiality, but refused to accept

cept of their carriages, and continued his journey in the same spattered vehicle which had conveyed him from Fontainebleau to Elba, and from Cannes to the neighbourhood of Paris; the same chariot that was afterwards so profitably exhibited in London and other parts of England. It was not till nine o'clock in the evening that he entered the gate of the Tuileries, opposite the Pont Royal. There he was received by his soldiers and by the populace with an enthusiasm that approached to madness. They pressed around him, eager once more to gaze upon him; they incommoded, they endangered, him. "My friends!" he repeatedly exclaimed, "you will suffocate me, you will suffocate me." His officers then forcibly opened a passage, and bore him in their arms along the staircase and into the state-apartments, where his sisters Julia and Hortensia, some of his old ministers, and the officers of his household, were assembled to greet him. A battalion of officers bivouacked round the Tuileries, and did the duty of the palace. The weather had hitherto been cloudy and rainy; but by a curious coincidence, which the Parisians did not fail to remark, the entry of the grand actor in this strange scene was at the close of a beautiful day. The night was still and bright; and the whole population, actuated by different sentiments, crowded to the Tuileries.

Thus was accomplished a revolution, of which the annals of the world do not afford a parallel. It resembled more a theatrical illusion than an actual course of events; a romance of the imagination, more than the positive achievement of human faculties. In the *journey* of Napoleon, (for the military term *march* would be misplaced,) every soldier sent against him joined his force. Where resistance seemed for a moment to be threatened, it was disarmed by the sound of his voice. The ascendancy of a victorious leader over soldiers; the talent of moving armed multitudes by a word; the unextinguishable attachment of an army to him, in whom its glory is concentrated and embodied; were never before so brilliantly and tremendously exemplified. In twenty days he found himself quietly seated on the throne of France, without having spilled a drop of blood. The change had no resemblance to a revolution in an European country, where great bodies of men are interested in the preservation of authority, and where every body takes some interest for or against political mutation. It had nothing of the violence of a popular revolt. In the levity with which authority was transferred, it bore some resemblance to an oriental revolution; but the total absence of those great characteristic features, the murder and imprisonment of princes, destroyed the likeness. When kings are forced to descend from their thrones, they generally expect the consolation of seeing a few thousand of their friends sacrifice themselves in their cause. This consolation was denied to the Bourbons. Not a musket had been fired since Napoleon had landed; not a sword had been drawn in favour of Louis, to prevent his departure; and we shall presently see that not a (French) sword was drawn, on his side, when he was forced back again.

The unfortunate king, therefore, continued to retire towards the frontiers; and, at five o'clock of the afternoon of the 20th, he arrived at Abbeville without any military escort. There he proposed to wait for the household troops which followed, commanded by marshal Macdonald. His calm and dignified appearance disarmed the rancour of every Bonapartist, and the inhabitants received him with acclamations. The king attempted to address them from the window of the house at which he lodged, but his feelings overpowered him: he pressed his hand to his heart, bowed, and retired. The military, who lined the streets, maintained a deep silence. They respected the virtues of the monarch too much to insult him in his misfortunes; but when they returned to their barracks they shouted *Vive l'Empereur*. His majesty was much fatigued; but, before he had time to take any repose, Macdonald appeared, and urged him to proceed on his

journey without delay, alleging that, from what he had seen of the disposition of the garrison, he would not answer for the consequences should the household-troops arrive before he quitted the place.

The king reluctantly ascended his carriage, oppressed by mental and bodily pain. On the 22d, at one o'clock, he arrived at Lille, where he had determined to collect around him all who were faithful to his cause. The scene at Abbeville was repeated. A considerable proportion of the inhabitants welcomed him with enthusiasm; but the garrison, which consisted of several regiments, preserved a sullen and obstinate silence. The king would have addressed them, and endeavoured to recall them to the allegiance which they owed their legitimate sovereign; but he was entreated not to expose himself to unnecessary insult and danger.

On the same day, the Declaration of the Congress at Vienna (which we shall soon notice) was received. The king immediately ordered it to be placarded on the walls, and distributed among the soldiers, that they might perceive what would be the fatal consequences of their treason, and the inevitable calamities which they would bring on their country. But this, far from alarming the troops, exasperated them to the utmost; and they formed the sudden and desperate resolution of seizing on the person of the king, and carrying him prisoner to the camp of Napoleon. News now arrived that the duke of Berri approached, with the household-troops and two Swiss regiments. The garrison no sooner heard this, than they assembled tumultuously, and seemed ready to execute their daring purpose. Mortier hastened to his majesty, and urged his immediate departure, declaring that he dreaded the result if that departure was delayed a single hour. In half-an-hour Louis was on his journey towards Ostend. Mortier accompanied him to the gates of the town, and immediately returned with the duke of Orleans to endeavour to restrain the violence of the troops. He found them enraged at being disappointed of their prey. They fiercely attacked the duke of Orleans; and it was with the greatest difficulty, and at the hazard of his own life, that Mortier rescued him from their fury. On the 24th Louis arrived at Ostend completely enfeebled by anxiety, disease, and fatigue.

In the mean time the household-troops had passed through Abbeville in their journey towards Lille; but, being informed that his majesty had quitted Lille, they determined not to enter the town; and this determination probably prevented a dreadful effusion of human blood. Turning, therefore, from Lille, they directed their course towards the frontiers; but many of them, being unable to support the fatiguing rapidity of the march, were dismissed at Bethune; and those who reached the frontiers declared to the few officers who were desirous to take them further, "that they were Frenchmen; that they had sufficiently fulfilled their duty to their prince, that their dearest interests were at stake, and that nothing should induce them to pass the frontiers." They accordingly returned to Bethune.

It was now Louis's turn to protest; (see p. 501.) While on his retreat to Lille, he issued two ordinances: the first forbidding all his subjects to pay taxes of any kind to the so-titled imperial government, and all public functionaries and receivers to pay into its chests the sums in their hands, and also suspending the sales of timber and domains in the departments invaded by Bonaparte; the second forbidding obedience to the law of confiscation, or any other recruiting-order emanating from him. Louis afterwards removed his residence to Ghent, where he had with him three of his ministers, Clarke duke of Feltre, and the counts Blacas and Jaucourt; to these he added in his council count Lally Tollendal and M. de Chateaubriand. The marshals Marmont duke of Ragusa, and Victor duke of Belluno, were also at Ghent.

The Congress was still sitting at Vienna; but the ministers of the European powers had nearly closed their deliberations,

liberations, and the sovereigns had announced their departure for their respective capitals, when the intelligence of the landing of Napoleon at Cannes unexpectedly burst upon them. To the astonishment with which every statesman was at first overwhelmed, succeeded apprehension and dismay. Although the force which he had brought with him from Elba was feeble and contemptible, they knew not how soon the discontented soldiery of France might flock round his standard, and enable him once more to menace the peace of Europe. It was therefore necessary, by some prompt and unequivocal manifesto, to declare their resolution to oppose him with their united forces. Lord Castlereagh had departed from Vienna for England, and was succeeded by the duke of Wellington. The intelligence that Napoleon had quitted Elba arrived at Vienna on the 7th; but his real destination was not known. On the 11th Talleyrand received a dispatch, announcing his landing on the coast of France: and on the 13th the following Declaration was published.

"The powers who have signed the Treaty of Paris, assembled at the Congress at Vienna, being informed of the escape of Napoleon Bonaparte, and of his entrance into France with an armed force, owe it to their own dignity and the interest of social order, to make a solemn declaration of the sentiments which this event has excited in them.

"By thus breaking the convention which established him in the island of Elba, Bonaparte destroys the only legal title on which his existence depended; by appearing again in France with projects of confusion and disorder, *he has deprived himself of the protection of the law*, and has manifested to the universe, that there can be neither peace nor truce with him. The powers consequently declare, *that Napoleon Bonaparte has placed himself without the pale of civil and social relations; and that, as an enemy and disturber of the tranquillity of the world, he has rendered himself liable to public vengeance.*

"They declare at the same time, that, firmly resolved to maintain entire the Treaty of Paris of 30th May, 1814, and the dispositions sanctioned by that treaty, and those which they have resolved on, or shall hereafter resolve on, to complete and to consolidate it, they will employ all their means, and will unite all their efforts, that the general peace, the object of the wishes of Europe, and the constant purpose of their labours, may not again be troubled; and to guarantee against any attempt which shall threaten to replunge the world into the disorders and miseries of revolutions. And, although *entirely persuaded that all France, rallying round its legitimate sovereign, will immediately annihilate this last attempt of a criminal and impotent delirium*, all the sovereigns of Europe, animated by the same sentiments and guided by the same principles, declare that, if, contrary to all calculations, there should result from this event any real danger, they will be ready to give to the king of France, and to the French nation, or to any other government that shall be attacked, as soon as they shall be called upon, all the assistance requisite to restore public tranquillity, and to make a common cause against all those who should undertake to compromise it.

"The present declaration, inserted in the register of the Congress assembled at Vienna, on the 13th March, 1815, shall be made public. Done and attested by the plenipotentiaries of the high powers who signed the treaty of Paris: Vienna, 13th March, 1815."

Here follow the signatures, in the alphabetical order of the courts.

AUSTRIA.—Prince Metternich, Baron Wissenberg.

FRANCE.—Prince Talleyrand; the Duke of Dalberg, Latour du Pin; Count Alexis and Noailles.

GREAT BRITAIN.—Wellington; Clancarty; Cathcart; Stewart.

PORTUGAL.—Count Pamella Saldonna Lobs.

PRUSSIA.—Prince Hardenberg; Baron Humboldt.

RUSSIA.—Rasumowsky, Stakelberg, Nesselrode.

SPAIN.—P. Gomez Labrador.

SWEDEN.—Lafmenhelm.

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The return of Napoleon to France, at the head of an armed force, had annulled all the rights which the treaty of Fontainebleau had given him, and had again placed him in a state of hostility with the coalesced powers. Until he had shown that the treaty had been previously violated on the part of the allies, and that he was again acknowledged by the French, and re-invested by them with the sovereignty, he was a mere brigand chief; not, indeed, the proper subject of private assassination, but amenable to the legal vengeance of the country which he had invaded.

As it had been whispered that there were considerable misunderstandings between the principal courts; and as Bonaparte had affirmed that he was secretly supported by some of the allied powers; that Austria was his assured friend; that his return would be immediately followed by that of the empress and the king of Rome; and that England and Russia, tired of war, were indisposed to interfere in a quarrel in which they had no concern;—it was necessary for the members of the Congress to convince the world, by some solemn and striking proceeding, that they were determined to complete and consolidate the work which they had begun, and that they were ready to combat against every one as a common enemy who should threaten, by a new war or a new revolution, to disturb the general peace of Europe. On the 25th of March, before the arrival of Bonaparte in Paris was known at Vienna, but after it had appeared evident that no effectual resistance could be opposed to him, the following treaty was entered into by the allied powers.

"Their Majesties the Emperor of all the Russias, the Emperor of Austria, the King of Prussia, and the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, considering the consequences which the entrance of Bonaparte into France, and the present situation of that kingdom, may have with respect to the security of Europe, have determined, in these weighty circumstances, to carry into effect the principles consecrated in the treaty of Chaumont. They have therefore agreed, by a solemn treaty, mutually signed by each of the four powers, to renew the engagement that they will defend the so-happily restored order of things in Europe against all violation, and to adopt the most effectual measures for carrying this engagement into effect, and also to give it that necessary extension which existing circumstances imperiously demand.

(Here follow the appointments, in the usual form, of the different plenipotentiaries whose names are undersigned.)

Art. I. The high-contracting powers solemnly engage to unite the resources of their respective states, for the maintenance of the treaty of peace concluded at Paris on the 30th of May 1814, as well as that of the Congress of Vienna; to carry into full effect the dispositions contained in these treaties; and to defend them against every attack, and especially against the projects of Napoleon Bonaparte. Towards this end they bind themselves, should the king of France desire it, and in the spirit of the Declaration issued on the 13th of March, with common consent and mutual agreement, to bring to justice all such as may have already joined or shall hereafter join the party of Napoleon, in order to compel him to relinquish his projects, and to render him incapable in future of disturbing the tranquillity of Europe.

II. Although so great and salutary an object does not permit that the means destined to its attainment should be limited, and although the high-contracting powers have resolved to devote to this object all such resources as they can, in their respective situations, dispose of; yet they have nevertheless agreed, that each of them shall constantly have in the field 150,000 men complete, of whom at least one-tenth shall be cavalry, with a proportionate artillery; and to employ them in active and united service against the common enemy. (His Britannic majesty shall have the option, either of furnishing his contingent in men, or of paying at the rate of thirty pounds

sterling per annum for each cavalry-soldier, and twenty-pounds per annum for each infantry-soldier, that may be wanting to complete the number stipulated.)

III. The high-contracting parties solemnly engage not to lay down their arms but in agreement with each other, nor until Bonaparte shall be wholly and completely deprived of the power of exciting disturbances, and of being able to renew his attempts to obtain the chief power in France.

VII. As the engagements entered into by the present treaty have for object to maintain the general peace, the high-contracting powers agree to invite all the powers of Europe to accede to them.

VIII. As the present treaty is simply and solely entered into with a view to support France, and every other threatened country, against the attempts of Bonaparte and his adherents, his most Christian majesty shall be specially invited to accede thereto; and, in the event of his majesty's claiming the force specified in Article II. he shall make known what assistance his circumstances enable him to contribute towards the object of the present treaty.

IX. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged, within the period of one month, or sooner if possible. In testimony whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed and sealed the same.

RUSSIA.—Count Rasumowsky; Count Nesselrode.

AUSTRIA.—Prince Metternich; Baron Wessenberg.

PRUSSIA.—Prince Hardenberg; Baron Humboldt.

GREAT BRITAIN.—Wellington."

The eighth article of the treaty, which invites the accession of the king of France, seemed to include a determination in the allies, not merely to attack the usurped power of Bonaparte, but to re-instate the Bourbons on the throne, thus interfering with or denying the right of the French to choose their own form of government. But, to force any particular dynasty or form of government on a people is inconsistent with the fundamental principles of the British constitution, and the liberal policy on which it has been the pride of England ever to act: when, therefore, the ratification of the treaty by the prince-regent was sent to Vienna, the following explanatory declaration accompanied it, a declaration highly honourable to the British government: "The undersigned, on the exchange of the ratifications of the treaty of the 25th of March last, on the part of his court, is hereby commanded to declare, that the eighth article of the said treaty, wherein his most Christian majesty is invited to accede, under certain stipulations, is to be understood as binding the contracting parties, upon principles of mutual security, to a common effort against the power of Napoleon Bonaparte, in pursuance of the third article of the said treaty; but is not to be understood as binding his Britannic majesty to prosecute the war with the view of imposing upon France any particular government. However solicitous the prince-regent must be to see his most Christian majesty restored to the throne, and however anxious he is to contribute, in conjunction with his allies, to so auspicious an event, he nevertheless deems himself called upon to make this declaration, on the exchange of the ratifications, as well in consideration of what is due to his most Christian majesty's interests in France, as in conformity to the principles upon which the British government has invariably regulated its conduct.

CASTLEREAGH."

At this time an event occurred at Vienna which caused considerable sensation. Several persons arrived in the villages near Schönbrunn, the residence of the little ex-king of Rome. Among them was Count Montesquieu, a near relative of the governors of the child. He contrived to gain admittance into the palace, under the pretence of visiting his aunt; and, corrupting some of the domestics, he formed the plan of carrying off the son of Napoleon. The time was appointed; carriages were ordered to be in waiting, and relays were bespoken at every post to the very frontiers of France. A chambermaid over-

heard some suspicious language from one of the women who attended on the young prince, and immediately hastened to the imperial palace to put the court on its guard. In the mean time, the police had been informed of the whole plot, and suffered it to proceed to the last moment, that they might secure all the accomplices. Every thing was prepared. A maid had the little Napoleon in her arms, and, attended by one of the chief of the conspirators, was just stepping into the carriage, when the officers appeared, and the whole band was arrested. It was probably with the hope of the success of this plot, that Napoleon had so diligently disseminated the account that the king of Rome and his mother would soon arrive at Paris.

All the powers of Europe now began to arm; and the different roads in Germany and Prussia were covered with troops marching to the French frontiers. The British government sent strong reinforcements to the troops in the Netherlands; and on the 6th of April a message from the prince-regent was delivered to each house, communicating the information, that "the events which had recently occurred in France, in direct contravention of the engagement concluded with the allied powers at Paris in the course of the last year, and which threatened consequences highly dangerous to the tranquillity and independence of Europe, had induced his royal highness to give directions for the augmentation of his majesty's land and sea forces; and that he had deemed it incumbent upon him to lose no time in entering into communications with his majesty's allies, for the purpose of forming such a concert as might most effectually provide for the general and permanent security of Europe."

Although Napoleon well knew that he had deceived the French people, by asserting that he was supported by the Austrians, he yet hoped that Austria would ultimately prove his friend. He could not conceive that Maria Louisa and her son were not certain pledges of an alliance which had only been broken by a momentary exasperation. His ministers partook of those sentiments, and flattered themselves with the hope that the disasters of their country were at an end; and that they should at length be permitted to enjoy that rational liberty for which they had contended so long, and sacrificed so much. They hoped that the powers of Europe would leave them to choose the government which suited them, provided they remained faithful to the stipulations of the Treaty of Paris. On the very day, however, on which they entered upon the functions of their office, the Declaration of the Allies (13th of March) arrived at Paris, which overwhelmed them with surprise and dismay. At first they doubted its authenticity; but, when the proofs of its genuineness crowded upon them, they saw the situation in which they were placed. A council was called, and it was immediately resolved to publish a vindication of the conduct of Napoleon in re-seizing the throne; to state to the world the moderation of his views, and his determination to abide by the treaties already formed; to transmit direct overtures of conciliation to every European court, and to propose to the acceptance of the French a Constitution which would satisfy every friend of liberty, and endear the emperor and his government to the hearts of his subjects.

On the day after his entry into Paris, Napoleon reviewed his troops in the Place du Caroussel. After having passed through the ranks, and noticed every soldier whose person he recollected, he formed them into a square, and addressed them as follows:

"Soldiers! I arrived in France with six hundred men, because I calculated upon the love of the people, and on the remembrance of the veteran soldiers. I was not deceived in my expectation. Soldiers! I thank you. Glory like that which we are about to acquire is every thing to the people, and to you! My glory is, that I have known and valued you!

Soldiers! the throne of the Bourbons was illegitimate, because

because it was built by the hands of strangers; because it was proscribed by the vow of the nation, declared in all our national assemblies; because, in short, it offered a guarantee only to the interests of a few men, whose arrogant pretensions were opposed to our rights. Soldiers! the imperial throne only can secure the rights of the people, and, above all, the first of our interests—our glory. Soldiers! we are now to march to hunt from our territories these princes, auxiliaries to strangers; the nation will not only second us in our protestations, but will follow our impulse. The French people and I calculate upon you. We will not interfere with the affairs of foreign nations, but woe to those who shall interfere with ours!”

As Napoleon was about to conclude his harangue, Gen. Cambronne, and the officers of the guards of the battalion of île of Elba, appeared, with the ancient eagles of the guard. Napoleon continued, and said to the soldiers; “These are the officers of the battalion that have accompanied me in my misfortunes. Every man is my friend. They are dear to my heart! Every time I beheld them, they brought before my eyes the different regiments of the army, for among these 600 brave fellows are men from every regiment. They have recalled to my memory those glorious days of which even the memory is so dear; for they are all covered with honourable scars, gained in memorable battles. In loving them, it was you, soldiers! the whole French army, that I loved. They bring you back your eagles. Let them serve as a rallying-point. In giving them to the guards, I give them to the whole army. Treason and unfortunate events had covered them with a melancholy veil; but, thanks to the French people and to you! they now re-appear, resplendent in all their glory. Swear that they shall always be present wherever the interests of the country shall require them; and that traitors, and those who would wish to invade our territory, shall never endure their sight.”—“We swear it!” exclaimed the soldiers.

In the mean time, the new revolution was strengthening itself in different parts of France, the greatest part of which seemed to adopt with enthusiasm the tri-coloured flag and the sovereignty of Napoleon; but the latter only under the form of the head to a popular government. This idea was explicitly declared in the different addresses presented to Napoleon, in his imperial capacity, at the Tuileries, on the 27th of March. That of the ministers led the way. The whole strain of this address corresponds to the following passage: “*The cause of the people, the only legitimate cause, has triumphed.* Your majesty is restored to the wishes of the French: you have resumed the reins of government amidst the blessings of your people and your army. France, sire, has for the guarantee of this, its will, and its dearest interests. She has also the expressions of your majesty, uttered amidst the throngs that crowded around you on your journey.” They proceeded to mention the maxims which he had announced as those by which the nation was in future to be governed: “We are to have no foreign war, unless to repel unjust aggression: no internal re-action: no arbitrary acts. Personal security, protection of property, the free utterance of thought: such are the principles which your majesty has pledged to us.”

To addresses like these Napoleon was obliged, at this juncture, to return corresponding answers. To his ministers he replied, “The sentiments you express are my own. All for the nation; all for France. That is my motto. Myself and family, whom that great people have raised to the throne of the French, and whom they have maintained there, notwithstanding political storms and vicissitudes; we desire, we deserve, we claim, no other title.”

The address of the council of state was remarkable for the independence of its language, the caution which it gave Napoleon for the regulation of his future conduct, and the conditions on which alone it pledged itself to support him. “The council of state, in resuming their functions, conceived it a duty to make known the prin-

ciples which form the rule of their opinions, and of their conduct. *The sovereignty rests in the people. The people are the only source of legitimate power.* The emperor is called to guarantee anew, by fresh institutions, for which he has pledged himself in his proclamations to the army and to the nation, all the liberal principles, individual liberty, and the equality of rights, the liberty of the press, the abolition of the censorship, the freedom of worship, the voting of taxes and laws by the representatives of the nation freely elected, the inviolability of national property of every origin, the independence and irremovability of the tribunals, the responsibility of the ministers, and of all the agents of power. For the better conservation of the rights and obligations of the people and of the monarch, the national institutions shall be reviewed in a grand assembly of the representatives, already announced by the emperor.”

It appears to have been Napoleon's intention, in forming his ministry, to have rallied round him the various political parties into which France was divided. To effect this purpose, he had selected, as his confidential ministers, the heads of what was termed the republican party, but who had abandoned their extravagant notions of liberty, and had become friendly to a limited monarchy. While they formed an efficient part of his ministry, he gave an unequivocal pledge that his government would not be disgraced by any arbitrary or tyrannical measures. When he arrived at Paris, an interesting interview took place between him and Carnot. In the course of their conversation, Napoleon acknowledged that he had acted wrong. He deplored the mania of conquest which had led him into such fatal excesses; and renounced the idea of the grand empire, and a military government. He however, demanded some sacrifices from Carnot and his party. He required they should relinquish the sternness of the republican character; and that Carnot should accept a title of nobility, as a proof of their being content with a limited monarchy on a representative basis. To this Carnot, after consulting with his friends, agreed; and the title of count was conferred upon him. He was afterwards appointed minister of the interior.

Carnot was one of the ablest engineers, and most skilful generals, that France has produced. In 1791, he was chosen a member of the legislative assembly, and became a zealous and conscientious republican. In the following year he voted for the death of the unfortunate Louis; and, although the injustice of the sentence cannot be doubted, no one ever accused the honest intentions of Carnot. In the first edition of this work, vol. iii. p. 808, 9. we gave some anecdotes of his public career, reaching to the year 1797; at which time, deceived by the flying reports of the day, we supposed he had been killed. It is to correct that error that we now resume the subject; happy to record, that at that perilous juncture Carnot escaped to Switzerland.

When Bonaparte returned from Egypt, he remembered the talents of Carnot, and the many obligations under which he lay to him; and recalled him to power. He was once more placed at the head of the war-department; and the conquest of Italy and Germany were soon the proofs of his skilful arrangements. But the ambitious character of Napoleon then began to be displayed: Carnot remonstrated with him in vain; and, disdaining to be the base instrument of tyranny, again retired to the bosom of his family. In 1802, he was dragged from his retirement, and chosen member of the tribunate. Here he distinguished himself as the fearless opponent of every arbitrary measure. He voted against the assumption of the consulate for life; and, in 1804, after privately using every argument to dissuade Bonaparte from his ambitious purpose, he stood alone in the tribunate, and opposed the motion to confer on him the imperial dignity. “Shall we,” said he, “because this man has restored the peace and prosperity of his country, reward him with the sacrifice of her best interests, the very liberty which we are grateful

grateful to him for preserving? Shall we replace the pride and heroism of the masculine republican virtues, by ridiculous vanity and vile adulation? Shall freedom then be shown to man, that he may never enjoy it? Perpetually presented to him, is it a fruit which he may never reach? Has our common nature been so much a stepmother as to make the most pressing of all our wants that one which we must never gratify?—No!—I will not consent to regard this greatest good, so universally prized above all others, except as one without which all others are mere illusions. My heart tells me that liberty is practicable, and that a free government is more easy and more stable than the gloomy stillness of despotism."

When the tribunate was suppressed, in 1806, Carnot once more returned to private life, and all intercourse with Napoleon was at an end. Eight years were now spent in the pursuit of his favourite studies, and in the society of his family, and those friends who dared to brave the displeasure of the emperor by occasionally visiting him. But, when the fortunes of Napoleon were on the wane, preferring even the government of the existing tyrant to the horrors of a new revolution, he again offered his services, (Jan. 1814.) and spoke to him in a language so firm and frank as to atford all the servile instruments of his unbridled ambition. The letter is short, and is a model for an honest subject to his sovereign.—"Sire! So long as victory crowned your eagles, I kept myself to my studies in the closet, and employed myself in the education of my children. Now that she appears to abandon them, and that you have need of devotion, I hasten to offer my services. Do not disdain them, though they are those of an old soldier, above sixty years of age. He can rally round your eagles many Frenchmen, undecided as to the part which they ought to take. It is yet time, sire, to obtain an honourable peace, and to regain the love of the people, which you have lost. CARNOT."

In forwarding this letter, Carnot said to a friend, to whom he showed it, that it would either send him to the Chateau de Vincennes, or give him a mark of the emperor's confidence which would be auspicious to the return of moderation and freedom for France. Napoleon was pleased with this noble sincerity; and, though he could not immediately bring himself to receive his former sturdy monitor as his confidential minister, intrusted him with the defence of Antwerp. Carnot soon rendered the town impregnable, and continued to hold it until the complete re-establishment of Louis, when he surrendered it to him, and adhered to the constitutional charter. Louis offered him a place of honour and confidence; but, perceiving, or fancying that he perceived, a determination in the court to break the conditions on which the royal family was restored, he declined all connexion with the Bourbons. Such a man must be an acquisition to any government, and particularly to a government so unsettled and precarious as was Napoleon's at this time.

It could not have been Carnot who advised that ill-judged decree which Napoleon issued on the 11th of April, (though dated at Lyons so far back as the 12th of March,) excepting, from the general amnesty which he then published, some of the most distinguished characters in France, whose property was declared to be sequestrated, who were to be brought to trial, and, in case of condemnation, to suffer the penalties of the criminal code. The following are the names of the thirteen proscribed individuals: Lynch, mayor of Bourdeaux; Baron Vitrolles, appointed Louis's commissioner in the southern provinces, and detained under arrest at Toulouse; Marmont duc de Ragusa; Talleyrand prince de Benevent, (then at Vienna;) the Abbé de Montefiquiou, de la Roche Jacquelin, Alexis de Noailles, Sothene de la Rochefoucault, Bourrienne, Bellart, Comte de Bournonville, Comte de Jaucourt, and Augereau duc de Dalberg.

Monf. Chaboulon gives the following account of the noble and upright behaviour of General Bertrand upon this occasion. "It was I," says M. Chaboulon, "who

wrote this decree, from the dictation of the emperor. When I had finished it, he ordered me to go and get it signed by count Bertrand, who had countersigned the decrees of Lyons. I went to the marshal. He read the decree, and returned it to me, saying, 'I will never sign it: this is not what the emperor promised us: they who advise him to take such measures are his bitterest enemies: I will speak to him about it.' I related this firm and courageous answer to Napoleon, word for word. He ordered me to return to the grand marshal, to endeavour to overcome his repugnance, and, if he still persisted, to bring him to him. Count Bertrand instantly followed me into the emperor's closet. 'I am astonished,' said Napoleon to him, in a dry tone, 'that you make such difficulties about it to me. The severity I wish to display is necessary for the good of the state.'—'I do not think so, sire.'—'I do, I tell you; and it is my business alone to judge of it. I did not ask your advice, but your signature, which is only a matter of form, and cannot in any way compromise you.'—'Sire, a minister, who countersigns the act of a sovereign, is morally responsible for that act; and I should think myself wanting in my duty to your majesty, and perhaps to myself, if I were weak enough to set my hand to such measures. If your majesty choose to reign by the laws, you have no right arbitrarily to pronounce, by a simple decree, sentence of death, and forfeiture of property, against your subjects. If you choose to act as a dictator, and to have no law but your own will, you have no need of the addition of my signature. Your majesty has declared, by your proclamations, that you would grant a *general amnesty*. I countersigned them most cordially: and I will not countersign the decree that revokes them.'—'But you well know, I always told you that I never would pardon Marmont, Talleyrand, and Augereau; and that I promised only to overlook what had passed since my abdication. I began with being indulgent, even to weakness; and the royalists, instead of appreciating my moderation, have abused it: they bestir themselves, they conspire, and I ought and will bring them to their senses. I had rather have my blows fall on traitors than on men who are misled. Besides, all those who are on the list, Augereau excepted, are out of France, or in concealment. I shall not seek for them: my intention is to terrify them more than harm them. You see therefore,' continued the emperor, softening his voice, 'you have not rightly considered the business: sign this for me, my dear Bertrand: you must.'—'I cannot, sire. I request your majesty's permission to submit my observations to you in writing.'—'All that my dear sir, will make us lose time: you are startled, I assure you, without any reason: sign, I tell you; I request you; you will do me pleasure.'—'Permit me, sire, to wait till your majesty has seen my observations.' The marshal went away, and delivered to Napoleon a statement of his reasons. It did not alter his resolution; it only determined him to give it a legal form: persuaded, however, that Bertrand would still adhere to his former opinion, the decree in its altered shape was not presented to him: and it appeared without being countersigned."

Napoleon, however, was capable of better things. Three days after his public entry into Paris, he removed every restriction which the Bourbons had laid on the liberty of the press, and dismissed the censors, to whom every pamphlet, and every article in all the journals, was submitted previous to its publication. This decree excited equal surprise and satisfaction. If the freedom of the press was sincerely accorded, the dictatorial power with which Napoleon was now necessarily invested found in that a full and sufficient counterpoise. The utmost license was given to political discussion. Compositions which censured most freely the measures of government, and the characters of which it was composed, and whose evident object was to excite discontent and to prepare for reaction, were circulated without restraint. The justificatory memorial of Marmont duke of Ragusa, containing

taining expressions against Napoleon, which, if uttered against an English sovereign, would have condemned the author to long imprisonment, was sold in all the shops. The Negative Vote of Kergelay was afterwards disseminated without control, though it contained this remarkable sentence: "I am obliged to protest against this article, because I am convinced that the re-establishment of this dynasty (the Bourbon) on the throne is the only means of giving happiness to Frenchmen."

The editors of a publication, called *Le Censeur*, were however brought before the tribunals, for having published the following libel on the French army: "If a fraction of the people could dispose of the crown, that would soon happen to us which happened to the Roman people after the reign of the first emperors: we should have for chiefs none but soldiers, and the reigning family would be murdered as soon as it ceased to be pleasing to the satellites by whom it was surrounded." This gave great offence to the army. To be branded with the degrading title of satellites was more than they could bear: "It is an inexcusable term of contempt," said some of the officers to Napoleon, at the public levee; "they are the defenders of the nation." Napoleon, thus appealed to, was compelled to interfere. The publication was seized, and the editors summoned before the tribunal; but that tribunal had secret instructions to suffer the affair to drop.

This unrestrained license was politic and advantageous. It put the public feeling completely to the test. It destroyed the importance which falsehood and calumny would have derived from mystery and privacy; and it suffered the friends of the Bourbons, and all the springs and agents of revolt, to expose and entrap and entangle themselves, without the trouble of any extraordinary apparent exertion.

Another of the first decrees of Napoleon was, the abolition of the slave-trade, a decree in which every benevolent mind must exult. "Napoleon, Emperor of the French. We have decreed, and do decree as follows: 1. From the date of the publication of the present decree, the trade in negroes is abolished. No expedition shall be allowed for this commerce, neither in the ports of France nor in those of our colonies. 2. There shall not be introduced, to be sold in our colonies, any negro the produce of this trade, whether French or foreign. 3. Any infraction of this decree shall be punished with the confiscation of the ship and cargo, which shall be pronounced by our courts and tribunals. 4. However, the ship-owners who, before the publication of the present decree, shall have fitted out expeditions for the trade, may sell the product in our colonies. 5. Our ministers are charged with the execution of the present decree. NAPOLEON."

It is evident, that, if Napoleon dared, without preamble or apology, to order, "From the date of the present decree the slave-trade is abolished," and this at a time when every consideration required that he should conciliate all parties, and show that he was determined in every action to consult the prosperity and happiness of France, the conduct of the former government in continuing this infamous traffic was highly disgraceful and criminal.

Another decree contained several alleviating regulations relative to the *droits réunis*. These, next to the conscription, were the greatest grievances imposed upon the people by Napoleon's former government; and it will be recollected, that the promise of the abolition of both was the grand boon by which the Bourbons courted and obtained popularity on their re-entrance into France. The pledge for the abolition of the *droits réunis* was broken by the king's government; and, notwithstanding the resistance and repugnance of the people, this odious and oppressive tax continued to be levied. Napoleon was thus furnished with an opportunity of gaining much credit and popularity, by the early attention which he seemed to pay to the interests of the people. Yet Louis, alluding to these decrees in his Second Declaration from Ghent, May

2, 1815, is pleased to say, that "The usurper begins to abolish things which have been long since abolished."

Soon afterwards another measure was adopted which reflected credit on the new government. Carnot addressed a memorial to the emperor, descanting on the inestimable advantages of elementary instruction, when bestowed on the lower classes of society, and stating that there were in France two millions of children destitute of primary education: "I do not speak," says he, "of that education which forms half-philosophers, or men of the world; but such only as will form good artisans and moral men, by affording the elements of indispensable knowledge, good habits, and respect for the laws." He concludes with a high eulogium on Dr. Bell and Mr. Lancaster, for whose system he solicits the patronage of the emperor.

Napoleon immediately issued the following decree. "Considering the importance of education for improving the state of society; considering that the methods hitherto used in France have not attained that degree of perfection which it is possible to reach, and desiring to place this branch of our institutions on a level with the intelligence of the age; we have decreed, and do decree, as follows: 1. Our minister of the interior shall invite around him the persons who deserve to be consulted, as to the best methods of primary education; he shall examine and decide on those methods, and direct the experiment of such as he shall deem preferable. 2. There shall be opened at Paris an experimental school of primary education, so organized as to serve for a model, and to become a normal school to form primary teachers. 3. After satisfactory results shall have been obtained from this school of experiment, our minister of the interior shall propose to us the measures calculated to enable all the departments to enjoy the advantages of the new methods which shall have been adopted. NAPOLEON."

These acts of Napoleon astonished and confounded the superficial politicians of every nation. They had expected and wished that the dictatorship which he had established by usurpation would have been supported by terror. Their conclusion suited with the character of Napoleon, but it was inconsistent with the policy which his peculiar circumstances and necessities demanded: for, whatever might be his private wishes and designs, he saw, at present, an insuperable obstacle opposed to his ambition and impetuosity. These furious and insane bursts of passion, by which he had tarnished the lustre of his former achievements, were repressed by the influence of his advisers, and the difficulties which surrounded him.

Meanwhile the south of France continued in a state of opposition to the new government. The duke of Bourbon, the most popular of all the French princes, except perhaps the duke of Orleans, betook himself to La Vendée, to endeavour to rouse the dormant affections of the friends of royalty in that district. The people were disposed to second his views; but he had to contend with the prompt and vigilant administration of Napoleon. On his arrival at Beaupriére, he summoned the inhabitants, and, powerfully and successfully appealing to their best feelings, engaged them to sanction a proclamation requiring every man from eighteen to fifty years of age to take up arms in the royal cause. Great numbers immediately flocked to his standard; but they were unarmed and undisciplined, and, ere they could be rendered effective, the troops of Bonaparte advanced against them. The general of Napoleon, acting under the express orders of his master, to avoid as much as possible the dreadful appeal to arms, dispatched a herald to the duke, to remonstrate with him on the folly of opposing his raw and hasty levies against the veteran troops which were marching upon him, and offering an amnesty to his followers, and passports for himself and all who chose to accompany him, if he would abandon the enterprise. After mature consideration, the duke was convinced of the inutility of resistance; and, receiving safe conduct for himself and forty of his officers, proceeded to Nantes, where he embarked.

The duke and duchess of Angoulême were at Bourdeaux. The inhabitants of the maritime towns had suffered most by the protracted wars of the revolution. Their population had been thinned, their commerce had been destroyed, and they were almost driven to despair. They therefore welcomed the return of the Bourbons with the utmost enthusiasm. The duke of Angoulême had lately visited all the southern provinces, and had inspected the fortifications of Bourdeaux; and the Bordelese had expressed great anxiety to see among them the daughter of their former revered sovereign. On the 2d of March the duke and duchess arrived at Bourdeaux. They were received with cries of joy, and with the ardent benedictions of a countless multitude which had poured in from every neighbouring town. On the 5th a fête was given by the merchants. In the midst of the festivities a courier arrived, with dispatches for the duke, containing the fearful intelligence of the landing of Napoleon. His royal highness was unwilling to throw a damp on the public joy, and concealed the purport of the letters, deferring until night his departure for the south, where he imagined his presence might be necessary. At midnight he quitted the city. In the morning the duchess communicated the news to the magistrates, and in the course of the day the intelligence was made public through the city. On the following day all the civil and military authorities came, uninvited, to offer their protestations of attachment, and to renew their oaths of fidelity. The national-guards were called out. Places were appointed for the enrolment of volunteers, and almost the whole population of the town demanded arms, some to defend their native city should it be attacked, and others eager to march to the most distant department against the invader. The officers of the troops of the line declared that they would answer with their heads for the garrison of Bourdeaux and the neighbouring forts.

Meanwhile the news became more disquieting. Bonaparte had advanced unresisted to Lyons. The national-guards and volunteers were more eager in their professions of ardent devotion; but arms and ammunition were wanting, and only a few hundreds could be regularly embodied. As the progress of the invader became known, the zeal of the troops of the line evidently cooled, and cries of sedition began to be heard in some of the barracks. The superior officers, however, daily waited on the princes, and renewed their assurances of loyalty; but the remarked that the commandant of the fort of Blaye, an important out-post, had not appeared during some days. Orders were sent to require his attendance. Two days passed, and he came not. A general was then dispatched to examine the state of the forts, and report the disposition of the garrison. He returned, and reported that the place was in an excellent state of defence. "But why," asked the duchess, "did he not obey the orders which were transmitted to him several days ago, and repair hither?"—"He did not answer me on that point," said the general; "but he will be here to-morrow."

On the morrow he appeared. He offered a slight apology for his apparent disobedience; and, being required to renew his oath of fidelity, muttered some indistinct and unmeaning sounds, with which the duchess, unwilling to proceed to extremities, thought it prudent to appear satisfied. She, however, consulted with the governor of Bourdeaux on the propriety of removing the present commandant from Fort Blaye, and replacing him and his troops by others on whom she could rely. The governor acknowledged that this was desirable, but hinted that it was absolutely impracticable. He was ordered to attempt it.

To have dispatched a battalion of the line to dispossess their brethren, would have afforded them an opportunity of showing that disaffection which he suspected they secretly cherished. The affair was therefore committed to some national guards, a sufficient number of whom were

sent to occupy the fort for a short time, but not enough to attempt the reduction of the place, should the garrison attempt resistance. This prudent measure prevented the effusion of blood, and probably preserved the city from destruction. The national-guards were refused admittance to the forts, on which the tri-coloured flag was now hoisted; and they returned peaceably to Bourdeaux.

General Clausel, commanding the troops of Napoleon, now approached. Picquets were sent out to guard the bridges which were situated on the principal roads; but some of them fled after a short resistance, and the rest went over to the enemy.

The duchess summoned the governor in great haste; and, willing to spare the town from the horrors of a bombardment or a siege, declared her resolution to march out at the head of the garrison, and attack the foe. Against this the governor warmly remonstrated, assuring her that he could not answer for the fidelity of the troops. "Then," replied she, "the national-guards and volunteers are sufficient: they are eager for the combat, and on their good resolution I can surely rely." It was answered, that, if the national guard and volunteers passed the river, the garrison would follow, and, placing them between two fires, cut off every man. The duchess hesitated: "Is it then," said she, "impossible to employ, or even to rely on the neutrality of, that garrison, for the fidelity of which you pledged yourself so lately?"—"Impossible."—"I will satisfy myself," said the heroic princess: "assemble your troops in their respective barracks." The governor in vain represented the danger of this proceeding. "I did not ask you, sir!" said she, "if there would be danger; I only require you to obey my orders."

She alighted at the barrack of a regiment of infantry, and, placing herself in the centre of the square, addressed the troops. She painted in lively colours the character and designs of the invader, and the dangers which threatened France. She reminded them of the oath which they had taken, and urged them to share with the national guards in the honour of combating the rebels. A mournful silence succeeded. Again she addressed them; "Will you not fight for the daughter of your king?"—"No! no!" resounded from every rank.—"Will you then remain neutral if the national-guard and volunteers advance to the attack?"—"No!" they again replied. The princess burst into tears. "Will you then betray me, and give me up to mine enemies?"—"No!" said they; "but we do not wish for a civil war, and we desire you to quit France."

Although foiled in her first attempt, the princess would not despair. She proceeded to the barracks of the other troops; but her eloquence was exerted without effect; her tears flowed in vain. Seeing that resistance would now be unavailing, her next care was to preserve the town from pillage. She hastily returned to the quay on which the guards and volunteers were assembled. They received her with enthusiastic shouts, and eagerly demanded to be led against the foe. Silence was at length procured, when she thus addressed them: "Swear all to obey me!"—"We swear;" was the unanimous reply. "Brave Frenchmen!" she continued, "faithful Bordelese! I entreat you to think no longer of defending the city: you are not supported by the troops, and your efforts will be useless."

The troops of general Clausel were at this moment drawn up on the other side of the river. The guards and volunteers, as if actuated by one impulse, fired on them a volley. Fortunately it did no execution, and was not returned. "You have sworn to obey me," exclaimed the duchess: "remain faithful to your oath: if there be any disgrace, it will fall on me: I will be answerable to the king and to France: the sacrifice which I require of you is as terrible to my heart as to yours; but it is the only means of saving the city." With difficulty she was allowed to depart; and she returned to the palace. She had no sooner quitted

ted them, than a herald was dispatched to general Clausel entreating him to suspend his attack, as the princess was preparing to depart. He readily consented, and guaranteed the safety of the city. The best friends of the royal cause now hastened to the princess, and besought her to depart immediately. She acceded to their request, and at eight o'clock on the same evening embarked on-board a small vessel which the English consul had stationed in the river for her use.

General Clausel now entered the place without opposition. The garrison hoisted the tri-coloured cockade, and received him with acclamations; the national guard submitted in silence; and, notwithstanding the apparently universal feeling, a few hours before, in favour of the Bourbons, an immense croud assembled round the gates, and welcomed Napoleon's general with shouts of joy.

The duke of Angouleme proceeded to the south of France, and for a while fortune seemed to smile on his expedition. Some regiments of the line followed him with apparent fidelity, and his little army increased to more than six thousand men. In his first encounter with the troops of Napoleon he met with considerable success; but, being betrayed by those in whom he confided, the loyalty of the troops being seduced, and numerous corps of the enemy approaching him on every side, *he was constrained to surrender to general Gilly*. His force was sufficiently respectable to ensure honourable conditions. An universal amnesty was granted. The lives and property of his followers were secured, and the duke received safe convoy to Cette, where he was to embark for Spain or England. He had scarcely set out on his journey when general Grouchy arrived, and assumed the chief command of Napoleon's troops. Imagining that the former commander had exceeded his powers, he would not permit the duke to proceed to the place of his destination, and dispatched a courier to Paris for instructions. Napoleon could not refuse to accede to the terms which had been granted by general Gilly, without subjecting himself to the utmost opprobrium; but he adroitly seized the opportunity of giving a colour of generosity to what was merely an act of justice. He wrote the following letter to Grouchy, in which, without adverting to the convention already agreed on, he acceded to its substance; but made the further demand, that his royal highness should engage for the restitution of the crown-jewels, which had been carried away by Louis. "Count Grouchy; The ordinance of the king, dated March 6, and the declaration signed by his ministers on the 13th at Vienna, might authorize me to treat the duke of Angouleme as that ordinance and that declaration proposed to treat me and my family; but, adhering to the views which induced me to order that the members of the Bourbon family should be permitted to leave France freely, my intention is, that you should give orders for conducting the duke of Angouleme to Cette, where he shall be embarked, and that you watch over his safety and protect him from all bad treatment. You will also take care to recover the money which has been removed from the public chests; and to require of the duke of Angouleme to bind himself to the restitution of the crown diamonds, which are the property of the nation. You will also make known to him the enactments of the laws of the national-assemblies, which are renewed, and which apply to the members of the family of Bourbon who may enter the French territory. You will, in my name, thank the national guards for the patriotism and zeal which they have manifested, and the attachment which they have shown to me in these important circumstances."

NAPOLEON."

On the 2d of April, the Justificatory Manifesto of Napoleon in answer to the Declaration of Congress (see p. 512.) was published. As it is a document of the first importance, we shall present to the reader a few of the articles.

1. The committee, composed of presidents of sections of the council of state, has examined the Declaration of

the 13th of March, the Report of the Minister of General Police, and the documents thereto produced.

2. The Declaration is in a form so unusual, conceived in terms so strange, expresses ideas so anti-social, that the committee was ready to consider it as one of those forgeries by which despicable men seek to mislead the people, and produce a change in public opinion.

3. But the verification of legal minutes drawn up at Metz, and of the examinations of couriers, has left no ground for doubt that the transmission of this Declaration was made by the members of the French legation at Vienna; and it must, therefore, be regarded as adopted and signed by them.

4. It was in this first point of view that the committee thought it their duty to examine, in the first instance, this production, which is without precedent in the annals of diplomacy; and in which Frenchmen, men invested with a public character the most respectable, begin by a sort of placing without the law, or, to speak more precisely, by an incitement to the assassination, of the Emperor Napoleon.

5. We say, with the minister of police, that this declaration is the work of the French plenipotentiaries; because those of Austria, Russia, Prussia, and England, could not have signed a deed which the sovereigns and the nations to which they belong will hasten to disavow.

6. For, in the first place, these plenipotentiaries, most of whom co-operated in the treaty of Paris, know that Napoleon was there recognised as retaining the title of emperor, and as sovereign of the isle of Elba; they would have designated him by these titles, nor would have departed, either in substance or form, from the respectful notice which they impose.

8. An oblivion of those principles, which it is impossible to ascribe to plenipotentiaries who weigh the rights of nations with deliberation and prudence, has in it nothing astonishing when it is displayed by *some French ministers*, whose consciences reproach them with more than one act of treason, in whom fear has produced rage, and whom remorse deprives of reason.

11. The French nation, brave and generous, revolts against every thing bearing the character of baseness and oppression; its affections become enthusiastic when their object is threatened or attacked by a great injustice; and the assassination to which the Declaration of the 13th of March incites, will find no arm for its execution either among the 25,000,000 of Frenchmen, the majority of whom followed, guarded, protected, Napoleon from the Mediterranean to the capital, or among the 18,000,000 of Italians, the 6,000,000 of Belgians and Rhenish, or the numerous nations of Germany, who, at this solemn crisis, have not pronounced his name but with respectful recollections; or amidst the indignant English nation, whose honourable sentiments disavow the language which has been audaciously put into the mouths of sovereigns.

17. Nations and posterity will judge on which side, at this great conjuncture, has been respect for the rights of the people and of sovereigns, for the laws of war, the principles of civilization, the maxims of laws civil and religious. They will decide between Napoleon and the house of Bourbon.

18. If, after having examined the pretended Declaration of the Congress under this first view, it is discussed in its relations to diplomatic conventions, and to the treaty of Fontainebleau, of the 11th of April, 1814, ratified by the French government, it will be found that its violation is only imputable to the very persons who reproach Napoleon therewith.

19. The treaty of Fontainebleau has been violated by the allied powers and the house of Bourbon, in what regards the Emperor Napoleon and his family, in what regards the interests and the rights of the French nation.

1st. The Empress Maria-Louisa and her son ought to have obtained passports, and an effort, to repair to the emperor; and, far from executing this promise, they separated

parated violently the wife from the husband, the son from the father, and that during distressing circumstances, when the firmest soul has need of looking for consolation and support to the bosom of its family, and domestic affections.

3dly. The duchies of Parma and Placentia were given in full property to Maria-Louisa for herself, her son, and her descendants; and, after long refusals to put her in possession, they gave the finish to their injustice by an absolute spoliation, under the delusive pretext of a change, without valuation, without proportion, without sovereignty, without consent: and documents existing in the foreign-office, which have been submitted to us, prove that it was on the solicitations, at the instance, by the intrigues, of Talleyrand prince of Benevent, that Maria-Louisa and her son have been plundered.

4thly. There should have been given to the Prince Eugene, adopted son of the emperor, who has done honour to France which gave him birth, and who has conquered the affection of Italy which adopted him, a suitable establishment out of France; and he has obtained nothing.

5thly. The emperor had (Art. 9. of the Treaty) stipulated in favour of the heroes of the army, for the preservation of their endowments on the *Monte Napoleone*: he had reserved on the extraordinary domains, and on the funds of the civil-list, means of recompensing his servants, of paying the soldiers who attached themselves to his destiny: all was carried away and kept back by the ministers of the Bourbons. An agent for the French military, M. Bresson, went in vain to Vienna to claim for them the most sacred of properties, the price of their courage and blood.

6thly. The preservation of the goods, moveable and immovable, of the family of the emperor, is stipulated by the same Treaty, (Art. 6.) and they have been plundered of one and of the other; that is to say, by main force in France by commissioned brigands; in Italy, by the violence of military chiefs; in the two countries, by sequestrations, and by seizures solemnly decreed.

7thly. The emperor Napoleon was to have received 2,000,000, and his family 2,500,000, francs per annum, according to the arrangement established in the 6th article of the treaty. The French government has constantly refused to fulfil this engagement; and Napoleon would soon have been reduced to dismiss his faithful guard for want of means to secure their pay, if he had not found, in the grateful recollections of the bankers and merchants of Genoa and of Italy, the honourable resource of a loan of 12,000,000 which was offered to him.

8thly. In short, it was not without a reason that they wished by all means to separate from Napoleon those companions of his glory, models of devotedness and constancy, the unshaken guarantees of his safety and of his life. The island of Elba was secured to him in full property, (Art. 3 of the Treaty;) and the resolution to spoil him of it, which was desired by the Bourbons, and solicited by their agents, had been taken at the Congress.

28. And, if Providence had not in justice provided for him, Europe would have seen an attack made on the person, on the liberty, of Napoleon, banished for the future to the mercy of his enemies, far from his family, and separated from his servants, either to St. Lucia, or to *St. Helena*, which was intended for his prison.

37. France has been treated by the Bourbons like a revolted country, reconquered by the arms of its ancient masters, and subjected anew to a feudal dominion.

38. Louis Stanislaus Xavier did not recognize the treaty which alone made the throne of France vacant, and the abdication which alone permitted him to ascend it.

39. He pretended to have reigned nineteen years, thus insulting both the governments which had been established in this period, and the people who had consecrated them by its suffrages, and the army which had defended them, and even the sovereigns who had recognized them in their numerous treaties.

40. A Charter digested by the senate, all imperfect as it was, was thrown into oblivion.

41. There was imposed on France a pretended Constitutional Law, as easy to elude as to revoke, and in the form of simple royal decrees, without consulting the nation, without hearing even those bodies become illegal phantoms of the national representation.

44. The return of feudality in its titles, its privileges, its lucrative rights, the re-establishment of ultramontane principles, the abolition of the liberties of the Gallican church, the annihilation of the Concordat, the restoration of tithes, the intolerance arising from an exclusive religion, the domination of a handful of nobles over a people accustomed to equality; such was what the Bourbons either did or wished to do for France.

45. It was under such circumstances that the Emperor Napoleon quitted the isle of Elba; such were the motives of the determination which he took, and not the consideration of his personal interests, so weak with him compared with the interests of the nation to which he has consecrated his existence.

46. He did not bring war into the bosom of France; on the contrary, he extinguished the war which the proprietors of national property, forming four-fifths of French landholders, would have been compelled to make on their spoilers; the war which the citizens, oppressed, degraded, humiliated, by nobles, would have been compelled to declare against their oppressors; the war which Protestants, Jews, men of various religions, would have been compelled to sustain against their persecutors.

47. He came to deliver France; and was received as a deliverer.

48. He arrived almost alone; he traversed 220 leagues without opposition, without combat, and resumed without resistance, amidst the capital and the acclamations of an immense majority of the citizens, the throne deserted by the Bourbons, who, in the army, in their household, among the national guards, were unable to arm an individual to attempt to maintain them there.

49. And yet, replaced at the head of the nation, which had already chosen him thrice, which has just designated him a fourth time by the reception it gave him in his rapid and triumphant march and arrival; of that nation by which and for the interest of which he means to reign; what is the wish of Napoleon?

50. That which the French people wish; the independence of France, internal peace, peace with all nations, the execution of the treaty of Paris of the 30th of May, 1814.

NAPOLEON.

Two days afterwards, pacific overtures were made by the French government to all the courts of Europe. These were accompanied by a letter in the hand-writing of Napoleon himself to each of the sovereigns. On this occasion, the minister of foreign affairs (Caulincourt) sent a letter to lord Castlereagh. That letter was accompanied by another, which inclosed one from Napoleon to the prince-regent of Great Britain. There is nothing sufficiently remarkable in either of these documents to make them worth insertion. Lord Castlereagh, in his answer to the duke of Vicenza, informed him, that the prince-regent had given orders to transmit the letters to Vienna, for the information and consideration of the allied sovereigns there assembled.

Although nothing decisive had been resolved on by the British ministers, yet no doubt existed of their determination to join the allies in a war against Napoleon. This, however, was a measure of such serious consequence, that many members of parliament hesitated to concur in it without fuller proof of its political necessity; and some felt considerable doubts as to the moral justice of drawing the sword to compel a nation to discard a ruler whom it had with apparent consent adopted. Under the impression of these feelings, Mr. Whitbread, on the 28th of April, rose to make a motion for an address to the prince-regent. He began by commenting upon the gross delusion practised

tified on the public by the ministers, in taking no notice of the Treaty between the allies, on the 25th March; of which they had received an account on the 5th of April, when the regent's message was brought down on the 6th, and taken into consideration on the 7th; by which suppression they had held forth the possibility of an alternative between peace and war, whilst, in fact, they had engaged themselves to the latter. He then made some severe animadversions on the declaration of the allies, by which one individual was placed out of the pale of civil society; and endeavoured to show that there was neither justice nor policy in making him the object of a war. He concluded by moving, "That an humble address be presented to the prince-regent, to intreat his royal-highness that he will be pleased to take such measures as may be necessary to prevent this country being involved in war, on the ground of the executive power being invested in any particular person."

Lord Castlereagh opposed the motion, and defended the conduct of government with respect to the charge of concealment, by saying, that he was unwilling, by a premature disclosure of a treaty, of which the ratifications had not been exchanged, to prevent a reconsideration of the policy to be pursued towards France, under the circumstances which had recently occurred. In the course of his speech his lordship unequivocally declared it to be the firm conviction of all the allied sovereigns, that it was not possible to avail themselves of the blessings of tranquillity; and that Bonaparte was a person with whom it was impossible to live in relations of peace and amity: in fine, that war with him was unavoidable. As an instance of his bad faith, this man, when he made his movement upon Bar-sur-Aube, on the rear of the allies, the success of which was problematical, sent instructions to Caulincourt at Chatillon, which instructions happened to come into his (Lord C.'s) possession, directing him to accede to the terms proposed by the allies; but to contrive, by keeping certain points suspended and delayed, to afford him (Bonaparte) an opportunity, if circumstances should enable him, to prevent the fulfilment of the treaty. He wished to retain Antwerp, which was not the key of France, but of Great Britain; Mayence, which was the key of Germany; and Alexandria, which was the key of Italy. The motion was negatived by 273 to 72 votes.

The following are the instructions alluded to by Lord Castlereagh in his speech. They were sent in a dispatch from the duke of Bassano (Maret) to Caulincourt at Chatillon. "Sir, Your excellency will have received, or will doubtless in the course of to-day receive, a dispatch from Rheims, of which M. Frochet was the bearer, and which was accompanied by a letter from the emperor. The emperor desires that you will avoid explaining yourself clearly upon every thing which may relate to delivering up the fortresses of Antwerp, Mayence, and Alexandria, if you should be obliged to consent to these cessions: his majesty intending, *even though he should have ratified the treaty*, to be guided by the military situation of affairs. Wait till the last moment. The bad faith of the allies, in respect to the capitulations of Dresden, Dantzic, and Gorkum, authorises us to endeavour not to be duped. Refer, therefore, these questions to a military arrangement, as was done at Presburg, Vienna, and Tilsit. His majesty desires that you will not lose sight of the disposition which he feels not to deliver up those three keys of France, if military events, on which he is willing still to rely, should permit him not to do so, even if he should have signed the cession of all those fortresses. In a word, his majesty wishes to be able, *after the treaty*, to be guided by circumstances to the last moment. He orders you to burn this letter as soon as you have read it. March 19, 1814."

The allies at that time declared that they would no longer treat with Napoleon or his family. What reliance then could be placed on his present professions? Not yet firmly seated on his throne, his army disorganized, and his funds exhausted, there was every probability of

crushing him by one simultaneous effort. But if he was permitted to mature his projects, and call into action the yet powerful resources of France, the attempt to destroy or even to curb him might be impracticable. If they suffered him to remain unmolested, the peace, if peace it could be called, would be a feverish state of anxiety and suspicion, as expensive and burdensome as war itself.

But it was the general and very reasonable opinion, that it was his full intention to take the first opportunity of recovering Belgium and the Rhine as a boundary. This was the wish also of the majority of the French nation. A number of pamphlets were published in Paris, at this time, which tended to encourage the public opinion in this idea. In one of them, entitled *De l'Empereur Napoleon et du Comte de Lille*, is the following passage: "What have we seen, great God! After twenty years of combats, of fatigues, and glory, all the fruits of our labours passing into foreign hands; and, if any act of our government displease, in two days they can reach the walls of our capital, and impose laws upon us at their pleasure! What! Belgium, our first conquest, passes under other masters! What! all the country extending from the Meuse and the Moselle to the Rhine is the prey of a sovereign whom we have twice driven from his states!" The same pamphleteer also talks of the "treason of Prussia, Bavaria, and Wirtemberg;" of the "clemency and pity of Napoleon towards Austria in 1809, and of the total oblivion of the benefits which the magnanimous Napoleon had conferred on the whole of the allies, &c." One Gaillard, in a pamphlet entitled *Du Retour des Bourbons en France*, speaking of the Treaty of Paris, says: "We well recollect the bitter vexation which this high-minded people felt when this humiliating treaty was published. An indefinable astonishment seized all French hearts: thus were destroyed, in one day, the labours of five-and-twenty years: the fruits of so many battles, so many sacrifices, fell into foreign hands." Another pamphlet, entitled *L'Homme du Siècle et de la Patrie*, contains the following: "We were told, that with the return of the Bourbons we obtained peace with foreign powers. What a peace! the peace of disgrace and of death! our military renown was impaired; the natural boundaries of France, those glorious fruits of twenty-five years labour, were surrendered."

On these grounds, therefore, the war which united Europe prepared to wage against him, was not only justifiable, but necessary. The disposition of the French army, nay, even of the French people, and the character of the individual at the head of the government, demonstrated that surrounding nations could not be at peace. The restless ambition and thirst of foreign conquest, and the disregard for the rights and independence of other states, which had characterized Napoleon and his army, exposed the whole of Europe to renewed scenes of devastation and blood. His destruction, as a ruler, was therefore required, not only as an expiation of former crimes, but as a necessary measure of precaution and security. The unbounded influence which he had hitherto exerted over a people so vain-glorious, so volatile, and so demoralized, as the French, and the calamities in which, by these means, he had involved every surrounding country, not only justified those countries in uniting, but imperiously called upon them to unite, and prohibit France from again placing herself at the disposal of a man in whose hands the must ever be an object of alarm and terror.

Candour requires the acknowledgment, that some enlightened men, who had the best opportunity for observing him, and who would not be easily imposed upon, were persuaded that the intentions of Napoleon were honest. They imagined that he had seen the folly of his conduct; that he wished to atone for his errors; and that he had determined to respect the liberties of France and the peace of Europe. Carnot was of this opinion.

Others, with some degree of plausibility, reasoned thus: The ruling passion of Napoleon is ambition. That passion

is not, never can be, extinct. To excite the admiration of his contemporaries, and to become the hero of future annals, is the grand aim of all his actions, the only end for which he appears to live; for this he will commit crime without malignant intention, and practise virtue without merit. The same passion which formerly suggested the romantic plan of universal empire, will now direct and constrain him to adopt an opposite course. Public opinion, on which he so much depends, and which is so necessary to his existence, repels with horror the chains of despotism, even though fabricated of gold, and the palms of victory if stained with blood. Opinion, the mistress of the masters of the world, now exacts from him peace and liberty; peace founded on justice and cemented by good faith, and liberty protected and supported by the laws. At this price she promises him glory and immortality, and at this price he will purchase the objects of his most ardent wishes.

This reasoning, however plausible, however interesting, would not heal the yet-bleeding wounds which Russia, Prussia, and Austria, had received at Friedland, Jena, and Austerlitz. The allies could not trust him. He had no pledges to give; and, without sufficient pledges, they were not justified in compromising the peace and security of Europe.

During fifteen years he had unceasingly aimed at the subjugation of Europe. It had been the object of his daily meditations, and his nightly dreams. "In five years," said he to one of his ministers, at a time when he was at peace with every continental power except Spain, "in five years I shall be master of the world. Russia alone will remain; but I will crush it," added he, with a most expressive gesture. "Paris shall reach to St. Cloud. I will build fifty vessels every year; but I will not send one of them to sea till I have 500. I shall then be master of the ocean as well as the land."

A strong attachment to royalty and the Bourbons still subsisted in Brittany and La Vendée; and the royalists in those parts at this time took up arms in defence of the Bourbon cause, and became masters of the country which they inhabited; but they were not able to extend themselves towards Paris. There was, indeed, a want of concert and combination in all the efforts of the Bourbonists, which rendered them desultory and ineffectual; and they had little influence in diverting the attention of the French government from the means to resist the foreign storm which was rising against it.

This danger was so imminent, that it was become absolutely necessary no longer to conceal it from the nation, which was to be prepared for exerting all its powers of resistance. On the 14th of April, a long report from the minister of foreign affairs to the emperor was published at Paris. This document gives a correct view of the state of Europe, and of the preparations of the allies at that period. But it is too long for insertion; and we must refer the reader to Gifford's History, where he will find it at full length, p. 1299. Suffice it to say, that, in consequence of its contents, every effort was now made to increase the regular army; an energetic proclamation was published; and the national guards were ordered to be embodied, and distributed among the different fortresses of the country: 3130 battalions, of 720 men each, were commanded to be immediately equipped for service; making a grand total of 2,255,040 soldiers. Had Napoleon been able to have called into action this immense body, and to have instilled a sufficient portion of enthusiasm into their ranks, he might have bid defiance to the world: but scarcely a tenth part were ever enrolled. The old soldiers, however, crowded to the imperial standard; and a brave and numerous army was soon placed at his disposal, with which he might expect at least to open the campaign with eclat; and he indulged the hope that some brilliant action at the commencement of the contest might excite the enthusiasm of the French, or disconcert or disunite the allies.

Workmen were employed in fortifying the heights of Montmartre, Chaumont, and Mesnil-Montant, in the neighbourhood of Paris; while orders were issued to inspect and complete the fortifications of every garrison-town: Soissons, Laon, Lafère, Saint-Quentin, Guise, Château-Thierry, Vitry, and Langres, were placed in a respectable state of defence; Chalons, Rheims, Dijon, the Vosges, Jura, and Argonne, already strong by nature, were rendered nearly impregnable; many hundred workmen were daily employed in the fortifications of Lyons; and no effort was spared to oppose every obstacle to the progress of the invader. Every defile was guarded; fortifications were erected at the heads of the bridges; batteries crowned the summit of every mountain, and the din of preparation sounded from the northern frontier to the Mediterranean sea.

On his first landing in France, Napoleon had pledged himself to give the French a constitution agreeable to their wishes, and favourable to their liberties. He now hastened to redeem his pledge. Inclination and necessity equally prompted this measure. He appointed a commission to draw up the form of a Constitution to be submitted to the choice of the nation. Bishop Gregoire, well known for his attachment to rational liberty, and Benjamin Constant, who had lately and so boldly spoken his sentiments of the emperor, and so strenuously opposed his cause, were members of this commission.

This document, called the "Acte additionel," which was published on the 23d of April, contains, under the several heads, all the provisions for establishing a free representative government, similar to that of England, which it obviously had in view; but, since this Act was never acted upon, it is unnecessary for us to insert it. It will be found in the elaborate work referred to above, at p. 1304. and to the curious enquirer it will be considered as a record so far valuable as it affords a view of what was thought necessary to satisfy the expectations of the party which then possessed the principal political influence, and to whose views Bonaparte would probably have been obliged to conform, had he been unable to re-establish a military despotism.

The promulgation of this new constitution was, however, to form a grand spectacle, a thing highly agreeable to the Parisians, indeed to all popular assemblies. Every Frenchman of mature age was, in the first place, invited to inscribe his vote for or against it, in registers which were opened in every town and district. These votes were to be collected, and the grand result published, at the Champ de Mai, which was convened for the 26th of May.

The Champ de Mai, or Champ de Mars, is a large expanse in front of the Military School, (see p. 467.) It was appropriated, like the Campus Martius at Rome, to the reviews of troops, and to horse and foot races on public festivals. It did not, however, derive its name from any imitation of the Roman Campus Martius. In the early periods of the French monarchy, the general assemblies of the nation were held in this place: the objects of the meeting were to frame new laws, to submit the complaints of the people to the royal ear, to compose differences among the barons, and to review the forces of the kingdom. It was denominated the Champ de Mars, because the assembly took place in the month of March. In the middle of the eighth century, Pepin transferred it to the month of May, as a milder and more convenient season. After this it was called either the Champ de Mars or the Champ de Mai. Under the second race of kings, similar meetings were held both in the beginning of the year, and in August or September. Under the third race they gradually changed their character, and assumed the title of parliaments and états généraux, which they preserved to the period of the revolution.

One circumstance attending the promulgation of the Additional Act gave great offence. The army and navy were invited to deliberate on it, and transmit their approval

proval or dissent. In every state which boasts the slightest portion of liberty, a deliberative voice has been jealously withheld from the military. The duty of the army is to defend the country from invasion, and to obey the commands of the executive power. Its very character renders it dangerous and fatal to freedom, to permit it to have a voice in the legislative deliberations of the country. This novel compliment now paid to the army was the result of the difficult circumstances in which Napoleon was placed. His chief dependance was on the attachment and devotion of his soldiers. His fate was in their hands; and by their aid alone could he avert the destruction which threatened to overwhelm him. Yet even on this ground his conduct was not justifiable. It was an unnecessary violation of every constitutional principle. His troops would not have claimed a privilege, to which in no country had the army ever been entitled; and the gratuitous offer of it excited in the mind of every rational man the most painful suspicions, and prepared the way for alienation and disgust.

We must now advert to the situation of Louis XVIII. at Ghent, where he was surrounded by his small but faithful court. On the 12th of April he issued a Declaration, in which may be seen the early avowal of the determination of the allies to re-seat the Bourbons on the throne. It contains the following expressions: "Treason has forced us to quit our capital, and to seek refuge on the confines of our states. However, Europe has taken up arms; Europe, faithful to its treaties, *will know no other king of France except ourselves*. Twelve hundred thousand men are about to march to assure the repose of the world, and, a second time, to deliver our fine country."

This was followed, on the 24th of April by a Manifesto from Louis to the French Nation. On this document, as well as on the former, we shall offer only two remarks. In the first place, it is very strikingly observable, that the language of all addresses to the French nation, whether proceeding from Napoleon or Louis, are deeply tinged with the same faults: their language is pompous and inflated; their sentiments exaggerated; little is addressed to cool reason and sober judgment: almost the whole to feeling or passion. In the second place, Louis, by so frequently and strikingly dwelling on the Charter, and on the inviolability of property, evidently was sensible, that he had not been acting as he ought to have acted with respect to these points.

These papers were probably drawn up by Chateaubriand. He also drew up about the same time a Report on the State of France. This report is important and interesting as exhibiting a strong contrast with the Report laid before Bonaparte. The first head of this report relates to the acts and decrees for the interior. Under this head the reporter contrasts the benedictions that followed the king on his departure with the gloom that was caused by the return of Bonaparte: he remarks on the system of official lying: the proclamations of Bonaparte, promising the return of the golden age, &c. If Bonaparte abolishes the excise, he only undoes his own work; by what right, among a free people, does he alter the mode of levying the taxes prescribed by the law?

The second head relates to the exterior. Under this head are stated the attempts made by Bonaparte to deceive foreign powers by the hopes of peace, while, at the very same time, he was flattering his army with the recovery of Belgium, the natural boundary of the Rhine and Italy. The question of foreign interference is also stated and argued under this head.

The third head of the report relates to reproaches made to the royal government. Under this head the reporter shows the reproaches concerning the lavish expenditure to be wholly groundless; and *endeavours to justify the non-payment of Bonaparte's allowance in Elba*, because he had immense debts in France.

Such were the employments of Louis and his ministers during his exile at Ghent. But though, in his manifesto and in the official report, he represented the majority of

the French nation (or rather the whole French nation, with the exception of the army and a very few individuals) as hostile to Bonaparte, and warmly attached to himself; yet it was evident that he looked for his re-establishment on the throne to the allies alone, not to his subjects, not to Frenchmen; and the event proved that he was right, for, as we have before observed, not a French sword was drawn in his cause.

The allies, then, upon whom Louis relied, being determined on war, it was necessary that no time should be lost in bringing their troops into the field. Most of the Russians had already retired within the frontiers of Poland; the Prussians had also returned to their country; and the Austrians were engaged in Italy. But, as the allies were deeply impressed with the indispensable necessity of the most prompt and vigorous measures, it was resolved that all the troops which they were to furnish, and even more than their quotas, should, without the least delay, assemble on the French frontiers.

The allied powers, however, could not stir in this momentous affair unless Great Britain subsidized them most liberally. For this purpose the chancellor of the exchequer proposed, and carried with little opposition, the renewal of the income-tax; and a loan of thirty-six millions was also raised. Among the benefits expected from the conclusion of a general peace in the last year, scarcely any was more cordially greeted by the people of England than a liberation from that burdensome and vexatious impost, the property-tax, which was necessarily to expire at a certain period after the signature of a definitive peace. In the suspicion, however, that ministers might be tempted to renew it, as the easiest mode of providing for the great demands which would be occasioned by the winding up of the war-expenses, petitions were drawn up in almost all the principal places in the kingdom, to be laid before parliament, warmly deprecating such a measure. Whatever might have been the intention of the government, this decided expression of the national desire had the effect of causing the adoption of other financial plans; and, on February the 20th, at a committee of ways and means, the chancellor of the exchequer introduced his plan of new taxes to supply the place of the property-tax. But the return of Bonaparte to France re-plunged this nation into all its difficulties; and in the month of May the tax was revived, exactly in the same form as before, for one year from the 5th of April, 1815.

Great Britain then entered into twelve treaties of accession, and twenty-five treaties of subsidy. By the treaty of accession with Baden, his Britannic majesty engaged in his own name, and in that of his allies, not to lay down his arms without particularly taking into consideration the interests of the Grand Duke of Baden, and not to permit the political existence of the duchy to be violated. The other treaties of accession were with Bavaria, Denmark, Hanover, the Grand Duke of Hesse, the King of the Netherlands, Portugal, Sardinia, Saxony, Switzerland, Wurtemberg, and the princes and free towns of Germany. The treaties of subsidy were with the same powers: and by these Baden was to furnish 16,000 men; Bavaria, 60,000; Denmark, 15,000; Hanover, 26,400; Hesse, 8,000; Sardinia, 15,000; Saxony, 8,000; Wurtemberg, 20,000; besides the troops to be furnished by the princes and free towns of Germany; so that Great Britain had at her command upwards of 200,000 troops. Of the whole collective force of allies, lord Castlereagh gave the following statement to parliament:

Austria	-	-	-	300,000
Russia	-	-	-	225,000
Prussia	-	-	-	236,000
States of Germany	-	-	-	150,000
Great Britain	-	-	-	50,000
Netherlands	-	-	-	50,000
				1,011,000

The sum of five millions was voted by parliament to be divided between Austria, Russia, and Prussia; and 2,500,000. between the smaller powers. There were also some other arrangements concluded between Russia, Holland, and Great Britain; by which the latter had to pay an additional sum of 2,500,000. making all together 10,000,000.

The exertions of the continental powers were now as unbounded as John Bull's generosity. Every road was thronged with troops hastening by forced marches to the Sambre and the Rhine. The Prussians were particularly active in equipping their troops for the field; and the king published a very energetic and earnest address to his people to assist him once more against his bitter enemy. Would he had been as much in earnest as to fulfilling the promises he made to them at that time!

Napoleon was not remiss in preparing the means by which he expected to be able to defend and support himself. These means were of two descriptions: in the first place, he endeavoured to raise as large a military force as possible; and, secondly, he used the most strenuous exertions to rouse the people in his favour. His ministers were, undoubtedly, men of great talents; and some of them men of great influence with the people. The collecting and equipment of the army were committed to the care of Carnot and Davoust. The regular army at this time consisted of between 3 and 400,000 men, of which about 100,000 were assembled on the frontiers of Belgium, 40,000 on the Rhine, 30,000 at Chambery, 10,000 in La Vendée, and about the same number at Bourdeaux. The remainder were distributed in garrisons, or were on march to join their different corps. It has appeared surprising to many that the French army was not more numerous, particularly as upwards of 300,000 prisoners had returned to France during the year 1814. It is, however, easily accounted for. The Bourbons, finding that the disposition of the troops were hostile to them, and also that the finances were not sufficient to support a numerous army in time of peace, had taken all the means in their power for reducing it. For that purpose all the young soldiers were discharged; and a vast number of foreigners, such as Italians, Germans, Dutch, and Belgians, after the treaty of Paris, were picked out and assigned over to their respective sovereigns. By this means the French army, which, on the abdication of Bonaparte, consisted of upwards of 400,000 men, was reduced before the end of the year to 175,000. The exertions of Bonaparte and his ministers, therefore must have been great, to have added, in the short space of two months, 200,000 men to the army. Indeed, there is every reason to believe, that, if the allies had not been quick in their preparations, a few months more would have swelled the numbers of the French army to a most enormous amount.

The present amount of the French army, it is evident from the statement which we have given of the opposing force of the allies, was by no means adequate to the support of Bonaparte, even if France had been tranquil and well-disposed towards him. But this was far from being the case. In the west, particularly in La Vendée, the royalists were very numerous and daring. They were headed and encouraged by La Roche Jaquelin, of a family long noted for hatred to the revolution and attachment to the Bourbons, and one of the persons excepted out of Bonaparte's general amnesty. For the purpose of producing a counterbalance to the royalists of Brittany, a federal compact was proposed to the five departments of that province, of persons devoted to the emperor and the national cause, who were to form a part of the national guard. Accordingly, confederacies were formed in several parts of Brittany, the members of which professed "to consecrate all their means to the propagation of liberal principles; to support the public spirit during the present crisis, and to oppose all disorders;

to maintain public security in the interior, and to march to all places in the provinces which might be threatened by foreign and domestic foes; to employ all their influence and credit to keep each other in the line of his duty to his prince and his country; to bear succour effectually and promptly at the first requisition of the public authority; to defeat all plots against the constitution and the emperor; and to lend one another mutual assistance and protection according to events." emissaries were sent into the suburbs of Paris, to induce the inhabitants to enter into similar confederations, and thus to set a patriotic example to the other cities of the empire. The invitation was quickly obeyed, and 15,000 men soon enrolled themselves and demanded arms. Similar confederacies were formed in many other parts of the empire. Indeed the general feeling of the people, though their enthusiasm was considerably abated, was evidently in his favour. They suspected and feared him; but they feared yet more the return of their former masters, backed by the force of united Europe. The new proprietors especially felt that their security was inseparably connected with the cause of Napoleon.

The assembly of the Champ de Mai, which had been postponed from time to time, was at length appointed to be held on the 1st of June; so that, after all, it was neither a Champ de Mars nor a Champ de Mai. However, the month of June, 1815, will ever be remarkable in the annals of history, for the important events which were crowded into it.

On the day appointed every thing was done that could render the spectacle solemn and imposing; and, though all the deputies from the departments had not arrived, yet the *tout ensemble* was grand, and such as must have answered, in some degree, the real object which Napoleon had in view. "Every thing that could interest and elevate the soul; the prayers of religion; the compact of a great people with their sovereign; France represented by the flower of her citizens, agriculturists, merchants, magistrates, and warriors, collected around the throne; an immense population covering the Champ de Mars, and joining in vows for the great object of that magnificent ceremony; all excited the most ardent enthusiasm, of which the most memorable epochs have left us the recollection." Such is the language in which this spectacle was described in the official papers of the French government. But, even granting that this was a fair and unexaggerated description, what could be inferred from it respecting the views or feelings of the French people? How often had they before, during the revolution, displayed an enthusiasm at least equal to that which they were now represented to feel!

The emperor's throne was erected in front of the Military School, and in the centre of a vast semi-circular inclosure, two thirds of which formed on the right and left grand amphitheatres, in which 15,000 persons were seated. The other third, in front of the throne, was open. An altar was erected in the middle: further on, and about a hundred toises distant, was another throne, which overlooked the Champ de Mars. Eighty-seven banners decorated the inclosure, bearing the names of the eighty-seven departments. The national colours mingled with these banners, and every vacant space was occupied by the imperial eagles surrounded with garlands of flowers emblematic of peace. The sloping banks which arise round the Champ de Mars, were crowded with people, and its immense plain was filled with cavalry. On the preceding evening, a deputation of the colleges met to collect and cast up the votes. Eleven departments and several regiments had not made any returns. The general result of the votes received, gave 1,288,357 for the additional act, only 4207 against it: one fourth of the negative votes proceeded from the department of the Cotes du Nord.

Napoleon left the Tuileries soon after eleven o'clock, in

in a carriage drawn by eight horses, amid discharges of artillery. He was accompanied by his brothers Joseph, Lucien, and Jerome, who were dressed in Roman costume. The emperor was preceded by the commandant of Paris, heralds, ministers of state, grand officers, &c. On arriving at the Champ de Mars, the troops, which amounted to about 50,000 men, were drawn up in order of battle, and the procession passed between the lines. Napoleon took his place on the throne about one o'clock, when he was saluted by prolonged shouts from the multitude which occupied the vast inclosure of the Champ de Mars. The electors sat under the rotunda, and the grand national authorities occupied some tribunes in front of it. The officers of the crown were behind Napoleon; his ministers surrounded him; and the generals were on either side. Mass was then celebrated by the archbishop of Tours, assisted by cardinal Bayanne and four other bishops. When mass was concluded, the members of the central deputation of the electoral colleges advanced to the foot of the throne, the steps of which they ascended in order to have a nearer view of the emperor, and to be better seen by him. They were about 500 in number. They were presented to his majesty by the arch-chancellor. One of the members of the deputation (M. Dubois d'Angers, elector and representative for the department of the Maine and Loire) pronounced, with a loud and animated voice, the following address, in the name of the French people:

"Sire; The French people had decreed you the crown, which you abdicated without its consent; its suffrages now impose upon you the duty of refusing it. A new contract has been formed between the nation and your majesty. Assembled from all quarters of the empire around the tables of the law, upon which we have just inscribed the will of the people, that will which is the only legitimate source of power, it is impossible for us not to repeat the cry of France, of which we are the immediate organs, not to declare, in the presence of Europe, to the august chief of the nation, what it expects of him, and what he ought to expect of it. Our words shall be grave as the circumstances which inspire them. What are the designs of the league of allied kings, with those warlike preparations with which they terrify Europe and afflict humanity? By what act, by what violation, have we provoked their vengeance, occasioned their aggression? Have we, since the peace, endeavoured to give laws to them? We wish only to make and to follow such as are adapted to our manners. We will not have for our head him whom our enemies choose for us, and we will have him to whom they are averse. They presume to proscribe you personally—you, sire, who, though so often master of their capitals, had generously re-established them on their tottering thrones! This hatred of our enemies strengthens our attachment to you. Were the meanest of our citizens proscribed, we ought to defend him with the same energy: he would be, like you, under the ægis of the law, and of the power of France. We are threatened with an invasion! and yet, shut up within frontiers which nature has not given us, which long before your reign victory and peace itself had extended, we have not passed those narrow bounds, out of respect for treaties which you have not signed, but which you have offered to respect.

"Do they ask for guarantees? These are to be found in all our institutions, and in the will of the French people henceforth united with your's. Ought they not to be afraid of reminding us of very different times, and a very different state of things, which, however, might once more recur? It would not be the first time that we should have conquered Europe armed against us. It is to the French nation that they dare deny a second time, in the nineteenth century, in the face of the civilized world, those sacred imprescriptible rights which the smallest tribe never claimed in vain at the tribunal of justice and of history! Because France is determined to be France, must she be degraded, torn, dismembered; and is the fate

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of Poland reserved for us? In vain would they cloak fatal designs under the mask of the sole intention of separating you from us, in order to give us masters with whom we have nothing in common, whom we do not understand, and who cannot understand us; who seem to belong neither to the age nor to the nation, which received them for a moment into its bosom only to behold its most generous citizens proscribed and degraded by them. What each of us had, for twenty-five years, considered as titles of glory, as services worthy of reward, was to them a cause of proscription, a seal of reprobation. A million of functionaries, of magistrates who, for twenty-five years, have followed the same maxims, and from among whom we have just chosen our representatives; 500,000 warriors, our strength and our glory; six millions of landed proprietors invested by the revolution; a still greater number of enlightened citizens, who make a deliberate profession of those ideas which have grown up among us into political dogmas; all these worthy Frenchmen were not the Frenchmen of the Bourbons; they wished to reign only by a handful of privileged persons, punished or pardoned for twenty-five years past. Opinion itself, that sacred property of man, they persecuted, persecuted even in the peaceable sanctuary of letters and arts.

"Sire, a throne erected for a moment by foreign arms, and environed with incurable errors, has crumbled to pieces in an instant before you, because you bring back to us from retirement, fruitful in grand ideas to great men only, all the traces of our real glory, and all the hopes of our real prosperity. How must your triumphal march from Cannes to Paris have opened all eyes? In the history of all nations, and of all ages, is there a scene more national, more heroic, more imposing? Is not this triumph, which has not cost a drop of blood, sufficient to undeceive our enemies? Do they wish for more bloody ones? Sire, you may expect from us every thing that an heroic founder has a right to expect from a nation faithful, energetic, generous, not to be shaken in its principles, invariable in the object of its efforts, independence abroad and liberty at home. The three branches of the legislature are on the eve of operation. One sentiment alone will animate them. Confiding in the promises of your majesty, we commit to it, we commit to our representatives, and to the chamber of peers, the care of revising, consolidating, and perfecting, our constitutional system, and the institutions which are to secure it.

"Sire, nothing is impossible; nothing will be spared to secure honour and independence, those benefits more dear than life. Every thing will be attempted, every thing will be done, to repel an ignominious yoke. We say it to nations—may their chiefs hear us! If they accept your offers of peace, the French people will expect from your administration, strong, liberal, and paternal, motives to console it for the sacrifices which peace has cost us: but, if they will leave us only a choice between war and shame, the whole nation rises entire for war; it is ready to extricate you from the offers, perhaps too moderate, which you have made to spare Europe a new convulsion. Every Frenchman is a soldier. Victory will attend your eagles; and our enemies, who reckon upon our divisions, will soon regret having provoked us."

At the conclusion of this Address, the whole Champ de Mars resounded with cries of "Vive la Nation! Vive l'Empereur!" At this moment the arch-chancellor proclaimed, that the Additional Act to the Constitution of the Empire had been accepted almost unanimously. The herald then declared, in the name of the Emperor, that the Act was accepted by the French People. Napoleon then, seating himself on another throne, which was in the centre and overlooked the assembly, spoke in the following terms:

"Gentlemen Electors of the Colleges of the Departments and Districts; Gentlemen Deputies of the Army and Navy, at the Champ de Mai;—Emperor, Consul, or Soldier,

Soldier, I derive all from the people. In prosperity, in adversity, on the field of battle, in council, on the throne, and in exile, France has been the sole and constant object of my thoughts and actions. Like Codrus king of Athens, I sacrificed myself for my people, in the hope of realizing the promise given to preserve to France her natural integrity, her honours, and her rights. Indignation at seeing those sacred rights, acquired by twenty years of victory, disavowed, and lost for ever; the cry of French honour tarnished, and the wishes of the nation, have replaced me upon that throne which is dear to me, because it is the palladium of the independence, the honour, and the rights, of the people. Frenchmen, in traversing, amidst the public joy, the different provinces of the empire to reach my capital, I had reason to rely on a lasting peace. Nations are bound by treaties concluded by their governments, whatever they may be. My thoughts were then all occupied with the means of establishing our liberty by a constitution conformable to the will and interests of the people. I convoked the Champ de Mai. I soon learned that the princes who have disregarded all principles, who have trampled on the sentiments and dearest interests of so many nations, wish to make war against us. They meditate the increasing of the kingdom of the Netherlands, by giving it as barriers all our northern frontier places; and to make up the quarrels which still divide them, by sharing among themselves Lorraine and Alsace. It was necessary therefore to prepare for war. However, before personally exposing myself to the risk of battles, my first care was to give, without delay, a Constitution to the nation. The people has accepted the act which I presented to it.

"Frenchmen, when we have repelled these unjust aggressions, and Europe shall be convinced of what is due to the rights and independence of 28,000,000 of French, a solemn law, enacted according to the forms prescribed by the Constitutional Act, shall combine the different dispositions of our constitutions that are now scattered.

"Frenchmen, you are about to return into your departments. Tell the citizens, that circumstances are arduous; that with union, energy, and perseverance, we shall come off victorious from that struggle of a great people with its oppressors; that future generations will severely scrutinize our conduct; that a nation has lost every thing when it has lost its independence. Tell them, that the foreign kings whom I raised to the throne, or who are indebted to me for the preservation of their crowns; who all, in the time of my prosperity, courted my alliance and the protection of the French people; are now aiming all their blows at my person. If I did not see that it is against the country that they are directed, I would place at their disposal this life against which they manifest such animosity. But tell the citizens also, that, while the French shall retain for me the sentiments of love of which they give me so many proofs, this rage of our enemies will be impotent.

"Frenchmen, my will is that of the people: my rights are its rights: my honour, my glory, my happiness can never be distinct from the honour, the glory, and the happiness, of France."

The archbishop of Bourges, officiating as grand almoner, then approached the throne, and, kneeling, presented the New Testament to the emperor, who took the oath in these terms: "I swear to observe the constitutions of the empire, and to cause them to be observed." This was followed by an oath of obedience to the constitution, and of fidelity to the emperor, pronounced by the arch-chancellor, and repeated by the whole assembly.

After *Te Deum* was sung, the presidents of the electoral colleges advanced to receive the eagles destined for the national guards of their respective departments. Napoleon, in presenting them, spoke as follows: "Soldiers of the national guard of the empire, soldiers of the army and navy; I confide to you the imperial eagle with the national colours; swear to defend it at the price of your

blood against the enemies of the country and of this throne! Swear that it shall always be your watch-word; swear!"

Universally-repeated cries of "We swear it," resounded throughout the inclosure. In the midst of these acclamations, and surrounded by the eagles of all the armed corps of France, the emperor went with his whole retinue to place himself on the elevated throne in the middle of the Champ de Mars, where, as colonel of the national guard of Paris, and of the imperial guard, he gave the eagles to the presidents of the departments and of the six arrondissements, and to the chiefs of his guard. All the troops marched in battalions and squadrons, and surrounded the throne, the officers standing in the first line. The emperor said: "Soldiers of the national guard of Paris, Soldiers of the imperial guard! I confide to you the imperial eagle with the national colours. You swear to perish, if necessary, to defend it against the enemies of the country and of the throne." (The whole army, assembled around the throne, was within hearing, and interrupted the emperor with a thousand times repeated cries of "We swear it!") "You swear never to acknowledge any other rallying sign." (Unanimous cries again resounded of "We swear it!") The drums beat, and silence was restored.) "You, soldiers of the national guard of Paris, swear not to suffer the enemy to pollute again the capital of the great nation. It is to your valour that I shall confide it." (Cries of "We swear it!" were again repeated.) "And you, soldiers of the imperial guard, you swear to surpass yourselves in the campaign that is about to open, and to die all of you rather than suffer foreigners to come and dictate laws to the country." The acclamations, the shouts of "We swear it!" resounded again, and were repeated throughout the whole extent of the Champ de Mars.

The composition of such addresses as these is certainly Napoleon's forte; and he never delivered them but they had their full effect of inspiring or reviving the love of the soldiery to his person. The spectacle being finished, he re-ascended his carriage, and returned to the Tuileries in the same state and order of procession that he came.

Thus ended the ceremony; but it must not be forgotten, that on that day and the next, amusements, such as theatricals, rope-dancing, horsemanship, ascension of balloons, &c. were given gratis. Along the avenue of the Champs Elysées, thirty-six fountains flowing with wine, and twelve buffets for the distribution of patties, pullets, sausages, &c. were placed.

On the following day the chamber of representatives commenced its sittings. Their first business was to elect a president. The choice fell on Lanjuinais, who had been a member of the old convention, and who, in the preceding year, had been peculiarly active in drawing up the list of crimes committed by Bonaparte, and which was officially published as the justification of his dethronement. La Fayette had the greatest number of votes next to him. This was sufficient to show that the members were actuated by a very different spirit from what had ever before appeared among them during the former reign of Napoleon; and that they regarded him only in the light of the chief magistrate of the state, whom they were not bound to obey, or even respect, except in so far as he conscientiously discharged the duties of his office. In the sitting of the 4th of June, the day the president was chosen, this spirit was first made manifest. The chamber of representatives had intimated to him their wish to have the official list of the chamber of peers: to this expressed with an official answer was sent from the minister of the interior, signifying that the list of the peers would not be published till after the regular opening of the session: upon this a member rose with warmth, and proposed that the chamber, in reply to this letter, should declare that it would not constitute itself till the list was communicated. This, however, was over-ruled.

In the sitting of the following day, the minute of the election

election of M. Lanjuinais was presented, and read; at the bottom of it were written these words; "I approve. NAPOLEON." Loud applause followed. M. Lanjuinais advanced with a calm and modest demeanour to the chair, which was resigned to him by M. Desfranges; and then, addressing the chamber, said; "Dear and honourable colleagues, I cannot find expressions capable of explaining the sentiments I feel on the honour you have bestowed upon me, and the approbation which the emperor has been pleased to add thereto. I am sensible of my inability to make a suitable return to this distinguished mark of your confidence; and I shall constantly solicit your indulgence and your advice in the execution of the duty you have imposed upon me. Wholly devoted to the emperor, the country, the national glory, the independence of France, and liberty, I shall never cease to wish for an honourable peace, and for the happiness of the people. I shall have no occasion to change either my principles or my conduct." The speech of the president was ordered to be printed.

Lanjuinais was, before the revolution, an advocate and professor of canon-law. He was a deputy of the *tiers-état* to the states-general, and one of the founders of the Jacobin club, though never disgraced by the atrocities of that execrable society. In August 1789, he showed that, though he was an ardent friend to liberty, he was not disposed to league himself with the disciples of anarchy, for he warmly opposed the sequestration of the property of the clergy; yet he was the person who proposed the abolition of all titles, and objected to that of Prince being still conferred on the members of the reigning family. When the reign of terror commenced, he closely allied himself with the moderate party. On the 15th of December, 1792, he spoke in favour of Louis XVI. and demanded that counsel and the means of defence should be granted to him. On the 26th of the same month, he again appeared as the advocate of that unfortunate monarch. He exposed the injustice and atrocity of a trial in which the enemies of Louis were at once accusers, witnesses, jurymen, and judges; nor would he move from the tribune, although he was assailed with the most furious clamour, and his voice repeatedly drowned by the most diabolical outcries and threats of revenge. On the nominal appeal, he declared that Louis XVI. was guilty, and voted that he should be imprisoned until a peace, and then banished.

He then distinguished himself by his fearless opposition to all the deeds of injustice and blood which disgraced that period of the revolution. On one occasion, he kept possession of the tribune, though several of the mountain-party attempted to drag him thence with violence. He was condemned to imprisonment at that very meeting, but, eluding the vigilance of the soldier who guarded him, he escaped the fate in which all his colleagues were soon involved. He was then outlawed, and remained a fugitive and proscribed until 1795, when he was recalled to the legislative assembly. In June 1795, he was appointed president of the assembly, and continued to display equal love to his country, and determination to avoid the extremes of anarchy and despotism. He opposed every law against the relations of emigrants, and every decree which seemed unnecessarily severe. In 1800, he became one of the conservative senate, and strenuously opposed the arbitrary measures of Bonaparte. In 1802, before Bonaparte was made first consul for life, a project was entertained by his partisans to raise him to the imperial dignity at once. Rœderer made a speech to sound the conservative senate on the point. Lanjuinais replied to him, and exclaimed, that "Whoever he was that would take upon himself the title of emperor, he would consider him as an enemy to his country and a usurper." Marshal Kellerman immediately drew his sword, and asked, "whom he meant to stigmatize as a usurper?" adding, "that, if he meant the first consul, he would run him through the body!" The senate interposed; but Lanjuinais was resolute, and persisted in his declaration, without naming any person.

His firmness and eloquence produced so much effect on the senate, that it was deemed prudent to drop the plan for the present. When Bonaparte was made emperor, Lanjuinais violently opposed it; "What," said he, in the senate, "are you so degraded as to give your country a master taken from a race of men so ignominious that the Romans disdained to use them even as slaves?"

On the 7th of June, Napoleon proceeded in state to the hall of the representatives to open the session of the chambers. The peers being in attendance, and the oath of fidelity to the Emperor and the Constitution having been taken, Napoleon uncovered himself a moment; afterwards covered himself, and said; "Gentlemen of the Chamber of Peers, and Gentlemen of the Chamber of Representatives; Within the last three months, existing circumstances, and the confidence of the nation, have invested me with unlimited authority. The present day will behold the fulfilment of the wish dearest to my heart: I am now going to commence a Constitutional Monarchy. Mortals are too weak to insure future events; it is solely the legal institutions which determine the destinies of nations. Monarchy is necessary to France to guarantee the liberty, the independence, and the rights, of the people. Our constitution and laws have been scattered; one of our most important occupations will be, to collect them into a solid body, and to bring the whole within the reach of every mind. This work will recommend the present age to the gratitude of future generations. It is my wish that France should enjoy all possible liberty; I say possible, because anarchy always resolves itself into an absolute government.

"A formidable coalition of kings threatens our independence; their armies are approaching our frontiers. The frigate la Melpomene has been attacked and captured in the Mediterranean, after a sanguinary action with an English ship of 74 guns. Blood has been shed in time of peace! Our enemies reckon on our internal divisions. They excite and foment a civil war. Assemblages have been formed, and communications are carried on with Ghent, in the same manner as with Coblenz in 1792. Legislative measures are, therefore, become indispensably necessary; and I place my confidence, without reserve, in your patriotism, your wisdom, and your attachment to my person.

"The liberty of the press is inherent in our present constitution; nor can any change be made in it, without altering our whole political system; but it must be subject to legal restrictions, more especially in the present state of the nation. I therefore recommend this important matter to your serious consideration.

"My ministers will inform you of the situation of our affairs. The finances would be in a satisfactory state except from the increase of expense which the present circumstances render necessary; yet we might face every thing if the receipts contained in the budget were all realizable within the year. It is to the means of arriving at this result that my minister of finances will direct your attention. It is possible, that the first duty of princes may soon call me to fight for the country. The army and myself will do our duty. You, peers and representatives, give to the nation an example of confidence, energy, and patriotism; and, like the Roman senate, swear to die rather than survive the dishonour and enslaving of France. The sacred cause of the country shall triumph."

This discourse was followed by loud acclamations, and cries of "Vive l'Empereur! Vive la Patrie! Vive la Nation!" and a committee was afterwards appointed for the purpose of drawing up an address in reply to the speech.

When the French government had clearly ascertained that the allied powers had really determined on war, and that the British parliament had voted large subsidies, they made the most vigorous preparations for meeting the approaching storm. Till the decision of the British parliament was known, it seems they had some reason for believing that, notwithstanding the mighty preparations of the

the allies, war would not take place. Whether this was their opinion or not, it is certain that they endeavoured to infill it into the minds of the French people; and the French press, during the months of April and May, teemed with accounts from different parts of Europe, for the purpose of showing that the allies were at variance in their views, and that public opinion was against a war with France. At the same time the French papers, in several articles which they inserted, no doubt according to orders, endeavoured to convince the French with what dread the allied powers viewed the talents and power of the emperor, in the event of war. Of the plans and dispositions of the allies they gave the following account. "Hitherto the cabinets have formed no other plan than that of holding themselves on the defensive; and the idea generally prevails, that to attack France would be to repeat the faults of 1793, to give to the war that national character the force of which is terrible. This opinion is so fixed, that the enemies of France rely much on the enterprising character of Napoleon, and hope that he will be the first to attack. This they wish for, because then the national feeling would be weakened, and would be transposed to the Germans, who would overwhelm the French with their mass. No man of sense can venture to advise the invasion of France. The people do not wish for war. It is certain that lord Wellington has been requested to draw up a plan of campaign, and that his grace has replied he had none to give; that he did not sufficiently know the spirit which reigned in France; but that, as a general principle, and still more from late events, the soldiers commanded by the emperor could only be attacked by forces double their number. Such are, in the most exact truth, the position of affairs, and the disposition of mind of both parties."

But, whether the allies were in earnest or not, the French government prepared for the worst. Every town in France, from Paris to the frontiers, of any consequence, was fortified. The capital itself and the country was covered with fortifications or covered with them. "All the fortresses on the northern frontiers," said the *Moniteur*, "from Dunkirk to Charlemont, are armed and provisioned. The sluices are prepared, and will be opened to inundate the country, on the first hostile movement that takes place. Some works have been constructed in the forest of Mormole. Measures have been taken to make entrenchments in the different passes of the forest of Argonne. All the fortresses in Lorraine are ready. Some entrenchments have been constructed in the five passes of the Vosges. The fortresses in Alsace are armed. Orders have been given to defend the passes of the Jura, and all the frontiers of the Alps. They are preparing the fortresses of the Somme, which are in the third line. In the interior, Guise, La Fere, Vitry, Soissons, Chateau Thierry, and Langres, are arming and fortifying. Orders have been given to construct works upon the heights of Montmartre and Menil Montant, and arm them with 300 pieces of cannon. His majesty has also ordered that Lyons shall be put in a state of defence; a *tête-de-pont* will be formed at Brotteaux, and the drawbridge of La Guillotiere is re-establishing. The ground between the Saone and the Rhone will be fortified; some redoubts are preparing to be constructed in front of this ground. A redoubt will be constructed on the heights of Pierre en Sise, to support a work which defends the town on the right bank. The heights commanding the quarter of St. Jean, on the bank of the Saone, will be defended with several redoubts: eighty pieces of cannon, with the necessary ammunition, are proceeding towards Lyons. Sisteron, and Pont St. Esprit, will be placed in a state of defence. The works around Paris have been laid out with skill. All that part of Paris, from the heights of Montmartre to those of Belleville and Charonne, and thence to Vincennes, will be secured against attack. The canal which receives the waters of the Ourcq, and conveys them to St. Denis, will render the left unassailable; the fort constructed half-way between the bar-

rier of the Throne and Vincennes, by taking advantage of the old walls, will place the right in equilibrium with the centre and the left. The artillery at Vincennes is ready."

At length, finding the general councils of Europe were decided and unanimous, the French government changed their mode of attack; and, proclaiming war as inevitable, they endeavoured to stir up and bring into full play all the fiercest passions, prejudices, hatred, and vanity, of the whole French population. They described the resolute intentions of the allies to be to inflict every possible enormity and cruelty upon the French nation, particularly the military part of it. According to them, these were doomed to endless captivity or death; and the people, after their property being laid waste, to the most servile chains and bondage. "The Prussians," said they, "show great resentment towards the French; and are disposed to do all possible mischief to France, should the war commence. The Austrian and Bavarian officers speak of nothing but burning, plundering, and other severe treatment, to France. Such language has already been held at Vienna. On the 3d and 4th of April, it was agreed by the allies at Vienna, that all the French prisoners of war should be sent to the extremity of Russia, and neither be restored nor exchanged. Those who choose to serve will be sent to the army of Caucasus, others may form colonies, and those who refuse to do any thing are to be sold for slaves. The other allied powers are to treat the prisoners they make with all the severity and contempt due to the conduct of a nation which arrogates to itself the right of choosing its own government."

Events were now rapidly approaching to a crisis. The decision of the British legislature dissipated all doubts and fears of the lukewarmness of any power on the continent. The allied forces were arriving daily on the French frontiers on every side. But the plan of the allies was understood to be not to make any movement on the offensive till their whole forces were in line from the straits of Dover to the shores of the Mediterranean. This done, and before the sword was unsheathed, a solemn appeal was intended to be made by them to the French nation, calling upon them to return to a state of amity, by abandoning the man who had brought so many calamities and this fresh war upon Europe, and to re-mould the treaty of peace which they had violated. This offer unsuccessful, as they calculated it would be, their intention was to enter France at every point with an overwhelming force; and from every quarter to advance without delay upon Paris, which, again in their power, they supposed would disorganize and scatter the government and resources of Napoleon.

Of this Napoleon was perfectly aware, and also deeply sensible how unable he was to oppose an effectual resistance, on every point, against the vast force advancing against him. He therefore determined to take them in detail, and before their plans were matured and completed. In furtherance of this object, the allied armies, stationed in the Netherlands, under the command of Wellington and Blücher, engaged his earliest attention, as being those nearest the capital of his empire; and these he resolved to attack first. In this resolution he seems to have had four great objects in view. The first was the gratification of French ambition and vanity, by the conquest of Belgium, so generally wished for in France; (see p. 521.) The second was, to remove the danger of invasion to a point as far distant from his capital as possible. The third was of still greater importance, namely, if he succeeded in forcing back the armies here stationed, he would then have it in his power to menace the rear of the right wing of the grand allied army, which was to enter France by the Upper Rhine, thereby either retarding or endangering their forward movements. If he succeeded in these important operations, it was of less consequence at what expense he did so. He conceived that he should thereby crush the voice of disaffection in France, and call forth once more, around his conquering standards, the

energy and unprincipled ambition of the nation. Last, and not least, as the surest road to ultimate success, by gaining the first point, he was certain that he should succeed in removing the war from the French territories, and make other countries, as formerly, support the expense; without which, he was aware France would not long bend with perfect satisfaction to his sway.

He had it in his power, when acting on the offensive, to choose his point of attack with greater security than the allies could; because he had a much more formidable chain of fortresses in his line to support his operations, and behind which he, no doubt, calculated that he should be able to retire, if he found he could not accomplish his object. His army was not only formidable in point of numbers, but more so from the quality of the troops. These men were the flower of France, and of the military strength. They had their characters to regain, their glory to re-conquer, their fortunes to re-establish, and their future repose to secure. Perjury and treason had lowered them in the eyes of honour and worth. These feelings combined, stung their souls, and goaded them to fury. The utmost exertions were to be expected, from both them and their leader. Their fate, their fortune, and their fame, they had altogether to re-create, and these were all irretrievably committed in this dreadful struggle. They marched to it with a resolution which the utmost strength of rage and despair could inspire. The attempts of their government to inflame their hearts with the deadliest animosity and resentment against the allies, and particularly against the Prussians, by publishing accounts about the intended cruelties to be committed by the latter in France, had but too well succeeded. "It is particularly against the Prussians," said an article in the *Moniteur*, "that the French army manifests an implacable hatred, and we have some reason to fear that it will not be willing to make any prisoners of that nation."

The opinions of mankind, in some countries, were divided upon the issue of the approaching conflict. All were convinced that it would be severe; some, that it would be long and bloody; but the general opinion was, that it could not, from its means and its object, be of long duration. One party, with France herself, contended that it was impossible to conquer a warlike nation, with a condensed population of 29,000,000 of people. Forming their judgment upon what she had before done, they contended that she could do as much again, and with greater ease, inasmuch as she was wiser from experience, better instructed in the art of war, and more united than she was at the revolution. They calculated that the daring arm of Napoleon would carry the horrors of war out of the French territories, where he would, as usual, live at the expense of his adversaries; and when the glare of conquest would again, as it had done before, crush the voice of disaffection in France, and raise the nation to follow, without feeling or reflection, their darling pursuit. Thus employed, they were aware that the French people would trouble their heads very little about who governed them. On the other hand, if this could not be carried into effect, they relied on the strength of her armies and her frontiers; but, above all, upon that spirit generally prevalent in France, of devotion to the integrity of the country, to unite all hands and all hearts in its defence, which they conceived sufficient to repel the invaders, when, by discomfiture in their views, and the effects of intrigue and jealousy sown in their councils, France, they prophesied, would, at length, break up the formidable confederacy. Then she would be able to resume her former dictatorial situation and arbitrary dominion. So the rulers of France, and those who advocated her cause, considered the matter; so, calculating upon human energies as all on the side of France, they prognosticated the issue of the approaching contest. Another party, however, argued that France was not so powerful as she was in 1792. That, though her territory remained unimpaired, yet her spirit and her resources were broken, and

could not be reproduced. They beheld Europe from necessity become a military people; her leaders, from long experience, wise; her armies, from principle, brave; they saw the armed population of Europe driven, by every sentiment or feeling that can touch or animate the human soul to exertion, to attack the regular armies of France; and not the armed population of France, roused into frenzy, attacking the regular forces and disunited councils of Europe. They considered the immense means which the allies possessed, the spring which gave life, vigour, and unanimity to their councils; and they had no doubt but that these were superior to any thing that France, however condensed, unanimous, and powerful, could bring against them. They considered that bitter experience had taught the allies the fatal effects of carelessness and disunion; and that, as one interest animated the sovereign and the subject, therefore, the insidious machinations of France could make no impression upon their resolution, and find no entrance into their councils. They, therefore, augured well of the contest. It might be bloody, it might be long, but it could hardly be unsuccessful; while its duration and violence would only draw down on the head of France wider destruction, and deeper humiliation.

Most important events now crowd upon our attention, and demand our consideration. The hour, big with the fortune of empires and the fate of millions, advanced with accelerated speed. Immediately upon the conclusion of the ceremony of the Champ de Mai, Soult, who was advanced to the rank of major-general of the French armies, the situation formerly held by Berthier, addressed a proclamation to the French army, in which he informed them, that a "new oath" united France and the emperor; and that all the efforts of an "impious league" would not be able to separate the interests of the people from "the hero who was the admiration of the universe." "What," said he, in that haughty tone which Frenchmen had long assumed, "is the hope of this new coalition?" He told them, that their object was to "erase France from the list of nations," to impose slavery upon 28,000,000 of men, which he hinted might again, as it had done before, add to their "aggrandizement and their glory." He told them that their enemies were "numerous;" but that the contest was neither beyond the genius of Napoleon, nor their strength; and that the number of their foes would only render "victory more glorious," and "their defeat more conspicuous."—"To arms, therefore," said he: "the signal for battle will soon be given; and, while Napoleon guides our steps, and we fight for our beautiful country, we shall be invincible. We will rally round the emperor, the protector of liberal ideas; around a prince who, educated in the revolution, advances with the age in which he lives, and wishes to extend the dominion of the mind, instead of circumscribing it. Instructed by misfortunes, he will see the conquerors of Austerlitz, of Marengo, and of Jena, march anew under the colours which so often led them to victory; and the event will not be doubtful."

Napoleon had also been making preparations for putting himself at the head of his army. On Sunday, the 11th of June, deputations from the chamber of peers and the chamber of representatives waited upon him with their addresses. To these suitable answers were returned, (see Gifford, 1386.) and at half past three the next morning, the emperor quitted Paris, and took the road for the Netherlands. According to his usual custom, he travelled with great rapidity, reaching Soissons by ten o'clock, and Laon by three in the afternoon of the same day. The day before, his army had been reviewed at Maubeuge.

The departure of Bonaparte to the army announced the approach of hostilities; the route he took decided the point where these were to take place. The attention of Europe was deeply fixed, and her eyes instantly turned to the Sambre. There her fate, for years, perhaps for ages, was once more suspended in the mighty balance: and there the greatest talents and courage which she could

produce stood opposed to each other, in order to turn the mighty scale. The most callous felt interested; the thoughts of the most careless were arrested; all ranks and degrees stood breathless with expectation, while they listened to those alarms which struck the Meuse with fear and the Sambre with dismay.

The situation of the affairs of Napoleon demanded immediate activity. It was in character with him to display it. His army was numerous, picked, well appointed, and eager for battle. His adversaries were opponents worthy of his proudest days, and his greatest glory. Blucher and Bonaparte had before met. The bloody banks of the Marne, and proud frontiers of Laon, bore witness with divided praise. Napoleon had encountered Austrians, Germans, Prussians, and Russians; but British troops, and their leader Wellington, he had never met. The latter had again and again, and in every instance, vanquished his best generals, and his choicest troops. The British general was hailed by the general voice, as the first leader of the age: "It is yet doubtful," said Napoleon; "we have never met." The question, however, was now about to be fairly and finally decided.

On the 13th of June, Napoleon having joined the army, the head-quarters were established at Beaumont. The first corps, under d'Erlon, was at Soire on the Sambre; the second corps, under Reille, at Ham-sur-Heure; the fourth corps under Girard, at Philipville; the third, under Vandamme, on the right of Beaumont; the position of the 6th, under Lobau, is not stated.

Three corps of the Prussian army, consisting of, at least, 80,000 men, occupied Charleroi, Givet, Namur, &c. and the left bank of the Sambre. The fourth corps, commanded by general Bulow, and which amounted to 30,000 men, was at a considerable distance in the rear, being stationed in the country between Liege and Hannut.

The British army was posted in the neighbourhood of Brussels, at which city the duke of Wellington had his head-quarters. As it was impossible to know at what point Napoleon would commence the attack, the British and Hanoverian troops were cantoned over a wide space of ground; but they were so disposed as to afford the means of quick combination and mutual support. The duke's force was divided into two corps d'armée, and consisted as follows: the first under the command of the prince of Orange, comprising the 1st, 3d, and 5th, divisions, under the orders of generals Cooke (of the guards), Alten, and Picton; the second corps was commanded by general lord Hill, and composed of the 2d, 4th, and 5th, divisions; the two former of which were under the orders of sir H. Clinton and general Hinuber; and the 6th, nominally that of sir L. Cole, who had not yet joined the army.

This force contained about,

British bayonets	-	-	27,000
German legion	-	-	5,000
Hanoverian infantry, new levies	-	-	24,000
Brunswick and Nassau	-	-	10,000
Dutch 5000 }	-	-	10,000
Belgic 5000 }	-	-	10,000
Total infantry			76,000
Artillery—British, thirty brigades, of six guns each, German legion, Hanoverians, &c.			
	-	-	5,000
Cavalry—British	7000	}	13,500
German legion	3500		
Dutch, &c.	3000		
			94,500

Napoleon, having assembled the different corps of his army, addressed the following proclamation to them, preparatory to the commencement of hostilities.

"Avesnes, June 14, 1815.

"Soldiers! This day is the anniversary of Marengo

and of Friedland, which twice decided the destiny of Europe. Then, as after Austerlitz, as after Wagram, we were too generous! We believed in the protestations and in the oaths of princes whom we left on the throne! Now, however, coalesced among themselves, they would destroy the independence and the most sacred rights of France. They have commenced the most unjust of aggressions. Let us march, then, to meet them. Are they and we no longer the same men?

"Soldiers, at Jena, against these same Prussians, now so arrogant, you were one against three, and at Montmirail one against six! Let those among you who have been prisoners of the English, detail to you the hulks, and the frightful miseries which they suffered! The Saxons, the Belgians, the Hanoverians, the soldiers of the Confederation of the Rhine, lament that they are compelled to lend their arms to the cause of princes, the enemies of justice and of the rights of all nations. They know that this coalition is insatiable! After having devoured twelve millions of Poles, twelve millions of Italians, one million of Saxons, six millions of Belgians, it must devour the states of the second rank of Germany.

"Soldiers! we have forced marches to make, battles to fight, dangers to encounter; but, with steadiness, victory will be ours; the rights, the honour, the happiness, of the country will be reconquered! To every Frenchman who has a heart, the moment is arrived to conquer or perish.

NAPOLEON."

Napoleon was particularly anxious, before he left Paris, to have his army ready for service before he joined it; and on the 10th of June his minister of war issued the following general order: "It being the intention of his majesty the emperor, that all officers who have received letters of service repair to their destination, the general informs them of the obligation they are under to set off within twelve hours to rejoin their corps. The officers of the staff of Paris, and especially the chief of the military police, are charged to watch over the execution of this order. The staff and superior officers and others, who have not yet received letters of service, and who are in Paris, must present themselves to the staff of the place, Rue Vendôme, there to be informed of the destination assigned to them by the minister at war. The officers are informed that they will receive no pay till they prove that they have so presented themselves. In the departments forming part of the first military division, the major generals commanding departments will immediately take the necessary measures for the prompt execution of the instructions of the war-minister of the 5th instant, relative to all disposable officers of infantry."

As Bonaparte had determined to take the allies by surprise if possible, he caused an embargo to be laid on all vessels on the coast, and no strangers, or indeed any person, were allowed to proceed to the frontiers. The embargo took place on the 11th of June. On the same day, in a letter which he wrote to count Lavalette, the post-master, he says, "As I said in my speech this day, that I should depart this night, I wish you would look to it, that no post-horses be taken from the road by which I travel; that particular attention be paid to the persons to whom horses are given on the neighbouring roads; and that no courier, or estafette, be sent off."

In other letters written on the same day, he requested that marshal Massena should take the command of the third and fourth military divisions. Speaking of marshal Ney, he said, "Let Ney come if he wishes to be present at the first battle; he must be at Avesnes by the 13th, where my head quarters will be. Acquaint marshal Suchet that hostilities will commence on the 16th, and on that day to make himself master of Montmeillan."

At the same time he wrote to the minister of war and marine as follows:—"To the Prince of Eckmühl (Davoust.) Look to it, that 240 pieces of naval cannon be placed in battery by the 20th, that I may be without anxiety about the city of Paris." Speaking of muskets,

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"They must be sent quickly, that, when we are victorious, I may arm with them the peasants in Belgium, Liege, &c. Give me also a list of Belgian officers who are here."

Every thing being now ready, the French army broke up from Beaumont at day-break on the 15th of June, and commenced their march for the Sambre. The advance of Bonaparte was bold and sudden. His whole force advanced at all points by Thuin and Lopez, along both banks of the river; upon Charleroy, Marchienne-au-Pont, and Gosselies; where the first corps of the Prussian army, under general Ziethen, was stationed. The 2d corps attacked the outposts of the Prussians, drove them in, and pursued them as far as Marchienne-au-Pont. At the same time, the light cavalry of the French, following the 2d corps as far as Marchienne, turned to the right, after crossing the Sambre, and pushed along the left bank as far as Charleroy. Some severe fighting took place here; and, in consequence of this rapid and unexpected movement, Charleroy was taken before the Prussians had time to destroy the bridge. The French then advanced on Gosselies, a large town situated on the road to Brussels, with the intention of intercepting, at that quarter, the troops driven out of Charleroy. The Prussians retired in great confusion on Fleurus, where their main body was concentrated. They were attacked several times by the French advanced-guard, who afforded them no time to take any position. The presence of Napoleon seemed to electrify the French troops. Some squadrons of his guard charged the Prussian infantry several times; in one of which his aid-de-camp, general Letort, received a mortal wound.

The French thus far overcame all the obstacles opposed to their advance. Towards night they ceased the pursuit; and Napoleon, leaving the third corps on the road to Namur, and the second at Gosselies on that to Brussels, returned with his head-quarters to Charleroy. The French stated, that the loss sustained by the Prussians in these engagements was 2000 men, 1000 of which were prisoners. The French said that the inhabitants of Belgium received them as deliverers. "The joy of the Belgians," said they, "it would be impossible to describe. There were some villages which, on the sight of their deliverers, formed dances; and every where there is a movement which proceeds from the heart."

The actions of the 15th were but the prelude to a more extensive and sanguinary action on the following day. On the 16th, at four in the morning, the French columns which remained on the right bank of the Sambre put themselves in march and passed the river, when the whole army advanced forward. The command of the left wing, consisting of the first and second corps of infantry, commanded by generals Erlon and Reille; and the second corps of cavalry, consisting of four divisions, under the command of count Valmy (Kellerman), was given to marshal Ney, who arrived the evening before at head-quarters, and received orders to march by Gosselies and Frasnes on the road to Brussels.

All the rest of the army, under the immediate command of Napoleon, prepared to march against Blucher. The right wing under the command of marshal Grouchy, consisting of the third and fourth corps of infantry, and third of cavalry, occupied the height in the rear of Fleurus, and were destined to march upon Sombref. The sixth corps, with the remainder of the cavalry, and all the imperial guards, advanced from Charleroy.

The Prussian army was posted on the heights between Brie and Sombref, and beyond the latter place, occupying at the same time, in great force, the villages of St. Amand and Ligny in their front. The whole under the immediate command of marshal Blucher, consisted of three corps, and amounted to 80,000 men. On their right was stationed a considerable force of Dutch and Belgian troops, 12 or 13,000 strong, under the command of the prince of Orange, who, on the 15th, had repulsed an attack made by the enemy on the position of Frasnes. Such were the positions and such the strength of the contending armies

on the 16th. We must now proceed to notice the movements of the army under the duke of Wellington.

The intelligence of Bonaparte's movements reached Brussels on the evening of the 15th, at which time the duke of Wellington, and most of his officers, were at a ball given by the dukes of Richmond. Nothing, however, being known at which point the enemy intended to attack, orders were given to the troops in Brussels and the neighbourhood to prepare to march. On the same evening, the duke received dispatches from Blucher, with the information that Charleroy was taken, and that the French were advancing in the direction of Fleurus. Orders were immediately issued for the troops to march in the direction of *Quatre Bras*; and, at the same time, the cavalry, artillery, and guards, who were stationed at Enghien, were directed to move in the same direction. The spectacle at Brussels, as the troops were collecting and falling into their ranks, is described to have been most peculiar and impressive. It was one o'clock in the morning of the 16th when the bugle sounded, summoning the soldiers to their proper rendezvous. The officers had been in a bustle of preparation for the previous hours since the evening, when they received orders to hold themselves in readiness. Brussels was agitated and anxious in all her hearts; every house was the scene of adieus, not the less tender and sorrowful on account of the shortness of the intimacy that had preceded them. The troops commenced their march before it was day-light. Among the first to muster in Brussels were the 42d and 92d highland regiments. The hasty march was long and painful. The officers, though they knew the enemy had attacked the Prussians, did not think that they were on the road to immediate battle. But the fact was so. As early as five o'clock in the morning of the 16th, some Belgian troops under the command of the prince of Weimar, which the preceding evening had been forced back from Frasnes to *Quatre Bras*, were attacked by part of the left wing of the French army, commanded by marshal Ney. The prince of Weimar, being hard pressed, was forced to fall back; but being reinforced with another brigade by the prince of Orange, he was enabled to regain so much of the ground that had been lost, as to command the communications, leading from Nivelles and Brussels, with marshal Blucher. The combat then continued, without any result, till noon; when the French were greatly reinforced, and quickly returned to the combat with overwhelming numbers. The prince of Orange himself was forced to give way, and by two o'clock had fallen back to *Quatre Bras*.

In the mean time, the British troops from Brussels were pushing forward to this point with the greatest expedition. The duke of Wellington remained some hours in Brussels after the troops had quitted it. He probably waited to hear news from the more distant divisions of his army, in reply to the orders sent them over-night. He then set off for the scene of action on horseback, followed by four or five gentlemen; and arrived on the field before the troops; at which time the Belgians were falling back. Soon afterwards the British regiments began to arrive, one by one. Each, as it arrived, marched directly into the field, and took up its position. The troops belonging to the fifth division, which consisted of two brigades, was commanded by lieutenant-general sir Thomas Picton. This division was followed by the duke of Brunswick's corps; and after them marched the Hanoverian infantry, and the contingent of Nassau. The whole consisted of about 15,000 men; and they were without either cavalry or artillery. Sir Thomas Picton's division, already mentioned, arrived at *Quatre Bras* at the moment when the enemy was about to commence a fresh attack, which would have put them in possession of the great road to Brussels, and separated the British from the Prussian army. The troops composing this division had previously marched about twenty miles in a warm summer day; and, as scarcely any water was to be found on the road, were both thirsty
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and weary. Little time was given to refresh themselves, before immense columns of the enemy, consisting of both infantry and cavalry, were seen approaching their position.

The road to Brussels, on the right hand of the English position, was skirted by a wood, along the edge of which was a hollow way. The French were aware that, if they could gain possession of this wood, they might debouche upon the Brussels road. The prince of Orange had made every effort to defend it; but the Belgians under his command again gave way, and the French succeeded in occupying the post.

The duke of Wellington, soon after three o'clock, rode into that part of the field of battle which is close to the village of Quatre Bras. He was followed by his staff, which was not very numerous. He halted a few yards in front of the 92d regiment, and was exposed to a very heavy fire of round shot and grape. He spoke little or nothing. He looked intently at various parts of the field where there was firing going on, and often pulled out his watch, as if calculating on the arrival of the regiments not yet come up. The shot in the mean time was plunging into and along the ground, close to him. He had not been long in the field before the arm of a gentleman with whom he had just been in conversation was carried off by a ball. Shortly afterwards, the duke dismounted from his horse, and, causing his staff to do the same, sat upon the ground for a short time. The regiments, as they came up, entered the field by the road near which his grace was: the balls were perpetually flying in amongst them; one carried off the knapsack of a private from his shoulders; it went to a considerable distance, but the man ran after it, and brought it back amidst the loud laughter of all those who saw the thing happen. The Brunswick cavalry were charged back upon this point by the French cuirassiers. The duke retired from before their charge. The French troops fought with the most desperate fury; and the attacks of the cuirassiers, in particular, were most impetuous and dreadful. They surrounded the British squadrons with such temerity, that it frequently happened that, in their defence, the squares had to charge their desperate enemies on three sides at once. But every effort of the French was fruitless. Though they suffered severely, the British troops stood firm; and the only difficulty that their officers had, was to restrain their impetuosity, which, against such numbers, might have proved fatal. The general wish of the soldiers was to charge the enemy with the bayonet, without waiting for an attack; but the superior judgment of their great leader commanded it otherwise. The fire of the French was incessant and severe: that returned still more destructive. Nothing was seen in the French columns but men and horses tumbling over each other. It is impossible to convey an idea of the obstinacy with which the contest was maintained.

From half past three till six in the evening, the French kept up a very heavy fire, and twice attempted to carry the right of the British position. The Brunswick troops in advance had been compelled to abandon the post committed to their care, and were falling back before overwhelming numbers. Fresh columns advanced to their support. At this time the duke of Brunswick was killed. He was leading on his men amidst a horrible fire of grape-shot, when his ardour carried him into the thickest of the fire. A ball passed through his bridle-hand, and entered his belly. The liver was penetrated: he fell; and in ten minutes breathed his last. The fall of this brave prince, in the prime of his life, was generally regretted. The treatment which his father had received from the hand of Bonaparte, and his own misfortunes, had created a general feeling in his favour. Both himself and his troops had made a vow to wear mourning till they had avenged his father's death. The fields where he fell did so, though he did not live to see it. He terminated his life, however, on a memorable occasion, and before the eyes of one who could appreciate his bravery and his worth; and his regret, so forcibly expressed, is sufficient

to hand down his name to the latest posterity with honour and applause. Their leader thus lost, his troops were compelled to give way. The French advanced after them, conceiving that they had gained their object. They were mistaken. The 92d regiment, which was posted behind a ditch, on the right of the road from Brussels to Fleurus, and in the centre of which the duke of Wellington was stationed, stood ready to receive them. They allowed nearly all the Brunswick troops to pass, when they opened such a fire upon the French cavalry as stretched them on the ground in numbers, and compelled the remainder to retire in disorder; and not only so, but the repulse of the cuirassiers, and the great number of wounded which were carried to the French rear, created alarm, confusion, and flight, among the numerous attendants of their army. The French assert, that, in this charge, though unfortunate in its issue, a private of their 11th regiment took one of the colours of the English 69th. About four o'clock, however, the French, reinforced, returned to the charge, and, by another furious attack, endeavoured to gain the right of the British position. Again they were driven back with great loss. The 79th regiment charged through and through the French line, and afterwards, returning to its former position, repulsed the repeated desperate attacks of the French. It suffered severely.

In this manner the combat continued for many hours without any prospect of its termination. The French continued to bring forward fresh troops, the British to resist their fury. The Prussians were at this time engaged with Napoleon, while a brigade of guards, and part of the first division, remained at Quatre Bras. The French appeared still to direct their principal efforts against the right of the British position. About seven o'clock the combat raged with the utmost fury. The fire of the French artillery was tremendous, and was the forerunner of another most formidable attack. Through the volumes of smoke, the French was soon seen advancing. As they came near, the fire of the artillery slackened, and the bloody struggle began. The moment was pressing. The duke, who stood with the 92d regiment, turned to them, and said with energy, "Ninety-second, you must charge these fellows." The order was cheerfully obeyed. They rushed against the *black battalions* with an ardour nothing could resist. The French columns fled before this daring band, leaving the field covered with the dead, dying, and wounded. The 92d followed them for a mile, till they came near the main body of the enemy, and till the re-advance of the cavalry rendered it prudent for them to retire, which they did to a wood, where they remained during the remainder of the engagement.

Meanwhile the battle raged in the centre and on the right. The French attempted to separate the divisions of the British army as they came up, but without success. They however still held the wood, which, in some measure, commanded the right of the allied position. It was of the greatest importance to obtain the possession of it. The division of the guards under general Maitland, had newly come up, and were immediately commanded by the duke of Wellington to drive them from this point. They advanced to the charge, and the tirailleurs of the French fled before them. Driven into the wood, the French defended themselves with the greatest obstinacy, disputing every inch of ground, and making every tree a rampart, from behind which they annoyed the British. It was at length cleared; but scarcely had the British troops passed it, when they were attacked by the French cavalry repeatedly, and with the greatest fury; but the guards repulsed all their attacks. The French charged in amongst them, and were almost cut to pieces with comparatively little loss; a square of black Brunswickers, on this occasion behaved firmly, and occasioned the French great loss. Their light troops, however, advanced in such numbers, that they again obtained possession of the wood; but, after three hours severe fighting, it was finally wrested from

from them; and the English guards, though they sustained considerable loss, retained undisputed possession of this important post, which commanded the road to Brussels.

The French were now in great confusion; but, as Ney had left the first corps in reserve, he determined to renew the combat; and, these troops being fresh, he thought of overwhelming the British with superior numbers. On sending for it, however, he was much mortified at finding that Napoleon had called it away to his own aid against the Prussians. He therefore ordered up the reserve of the second corps to cover his broken battalions; and at length retired to his original position at Frasnes.

The loss of the British in this action was very severe; and, as the cavalry and artillery had not come up, they fought under every disadvantage. Including officers, the loss amounted to 2251 killed and wounded, and 31 missing. The whole, including that of the Hanoverians, Dutch, Belgians, Brunswickers, &c. consisted of about 5000 men. The loss of the French was also very considerable, as they acknowledged it to amount to 4200. The field of battle, which was confined to a narrow space, was thickly covered with the slain. The groans and lamentations of the wounded and dying, to whom little relief could be afforded, was dismal and distressing, and filled the hearts of the survivors with pain and anguish. The numbers of dead round Quatre Bras was very great. The walls of the houses were, in many places, covered with blood, which had spouted in streams from the wounded, who retired to lean against them, in order to support their dying bodies. An orchard of four acres, which was thickly planted with fruit-trees, had in many of them from eighty to one hundred balls. In a house at Place Nay, three hundred holes were made in the walls and roof, from the number of bullets which had penetrated into it. In one cellar lay five of the imperial guards, who had been dispatched by the 79th regiment; and a well contained the bodies of twenty Frenchmen, whose putrid remains had completely spoiled the water. Indeed, all the water on this bloody field, as late as the 25th, was quite red, stagnating in puddles, and the smell from it most offensive.

While marshal Ney was engaged with the allies under the duke of Wellington, Napoleon had marched with the whole of his remaining force against the Prussian army, posted at Sombref. Marshal Blücher occupied a strong position on a line where three villages, built upon broken ground, served each as a separate redoubt, defended by artillery and infantry; his right wing occupied the village of St. Amand, his centre Ligny, and his left Sombref. The ground behind these villages was considerably elevated; a deep ravine in front of this elevation. The villages were in front of the ravine, and masses of infantry were stationed behind each. The force with which Napoleon advanced to the attack of the Prussians has never been exactly ascertained; but it probably amounted to about 100,000 men. It appears to have been his intention to turn the principal part of his force against the Prussian general before he could be supported by the army under the duke of Wellington. He calculated upon giving the Prussian army a decisive defeat, separating it from the British general, and forcing it back upon Maëstricht. As Blücher was informed that Wellington had put some troops in motion to support him, and expecting the arrival of the fourth corps of his army in the evening, he determined to give battle. On approaching the Prussian army, Napoleon found some change in his dispositions necessary. He "changed front, the right in advance, and pivoted upon Fleurus." The third corps, under Vandamme, marched upon St. Amand. Girard, with the fourth corps, marched against Ligny; Grouchy upon Sombref, while the reserve, or sixth corps, with the rest of the cavalry, the guards, and the cuirassiers of general Milhaud, were drawn up on the heights of Fleurus.

The battle began at three in the afternoon by a furious

cannonade from the French; and nearly 200,000 men, and 500 pieces of cannon, commenced the work of mutual destruction. The first effort was to turn the right of the Prussian army. Lefol's division of Vandamme's corps attacked the village of St. Amand. The Prussians defended it most gallantly; but the French, charging with the bayonet, succeeded in gaining possession of it, and established themselves in the church and church-yard. As this village was the key of their right wing, the Prussians made several desperate attempts to regain it; and the combat here was peculiarly obstinate and bloody. Each side, at this point, was supported by 50 pieces of artillery. At length the village was stormed by the Prussians, and re-taken; but it was recovered again by the French. The action, meanwhile, extended along the whole line; as Napoleon directed a vast number of troops against the third corps of the Prussian army stationed at Sombref.

It was at Ligny, however, that the combat was most severe and destructive. Having been repulsed in endeavouring to turn the right here, the French attempted to force the centre of the Prussian army. This memorable village stands upon a small river of the same name, a tributary stream to the Sambre. It was large and solidly built, and in the centre of the Prussian line. The utmost efforts of the French were directed against this important point; and the most determined bravery, on the part of the Prussians, was exercised to defend it. Two hundred pieces of cannon, from both sides, were directed against this devoted spot. The battle round this was terrible and bloody. It was maintained hand to hand, and man to man, for seven hours. Both sides continued to bring up fresh troops; and while the contest, from time to time, continued to rage in other parts of the line, it never ceased for one moment at Ligny. Alternate attempts were made to wrest this place from each other for upwards of four hours. Blücher in person, sword in hand, continually led his troops to the combat. The artillery of the enemy was planted on the right bank of a rivulet, and that of the Prussians on the left bank. Each side had, behind that part of the village which they occupied, great masses of infantry, which maintained the combat, and whose ranks were continually renewed by reinforcements, which they received from the rear and also from the heights, both on the right and on the left. The movements on the bloody field were confined to a very narrow space. The French stated, that the village of Ligny "was taken and re-taken several times;" but Blücher says, "Villages have often been re-taken; but here the combat continued for five hours in the villages themselves, and the movements were confined to a very narrow space."

The charges of the cavalry were numerous, severe, and destructive. In one of these charges, on the part of the Prussians, which was led on by Blücher in person, but which proved unsuccessful, that brave general had a very narrow escape from either death or captivity. The French in their turn advanced. A shot struck the marshal's horse. Furious from the pain, the animal darted forward, till exhausted it dropped down dead. It fell, however, upon its gallant rider, who, stunned by the fall, lay entangled under it. The French cuirassiers advanced; the last Prussian horseman had passed their chief, without knowing his situation. One adjutant alone remained. He alighted beside him, resolved to share his fate. The French, pursuing the charge, passed rapidly by without seeing the veteran chief. The Prussian cavalry returned to the charge. The French were driven back, and again passed him without perceiving his helpless situation; and then, and not till then, the gallant Blücher was extricated from his perilous state. He mounted a dragoon horse; and the first words he uttered were, "Well, my brave fellows, let us charge them again." In the mean time, the combat continued at all points with unabated fury. Part of the village of St. Amand was re-taken, by a battalion commanded by Blücher in person. The re-capture of part of this village, and, in consequence thereof, of a height

adjoining thereto, seemed to throw a gleam of hope on the Prussian arms. From the map it appears, that Blücher was here very near separating the enemy's line, and turning the left of his main body, which was attacking him. This bright prospect was, however, but of short duration. At this moment, accounts were received that the English division, destined to support them, was violently attacked by a French corps, and that it could barely maintain itself at Quatre Bras. The fourth corps, under Bulow, had not made its appearance, as had been calculated upon; and no prospect remained of deriving any benefit from its assistance during the day. The Prussians invoked, but invoked in vain, the arrival of those succours which were so necessary. Ligny was still held; there the combat raged with the same fury, and with an equality of success. The Westphalian and Berg regiments fought at this point. A whole company of the former fell in the court-yard of the church; and on the terrace before it lay fifty dead. Each side made a fortress of the houses occupied by them. The French held one end of the village, and the Prussians the other. The French were driven out four times, and as often resumed the ground which they had lost: at length the village was set on fire by the French, and the combatants fought amidst the burning houses. All the Prussian divisions either were or had by this time been engaged. No fresh corps remained at hand to support them. The French, on the other hand, continued to pour forth fresh troops to the combat. But even their strength, numerous as it was, had been nearly exhausted. "By seven o'clock," said they, "we remained masters of all the villages situated on the banks of the ravine which covered the Prussian position." Part of these they had obtained, but not yet all. On the heights of Büffly and Ligny the Prussian masses still remained unshaken. A desperate effort became necessary to decide the bloody day. "Almost all the troops," said the French, "had already been engaged in the villages." How hard they were pressed, and how uncertain the combat long was, appears from Ney's letter, wherein we are informed that, without acquainting him, the emperor took away the first corps of the army to his assistance, as also a division of Girard's corps, which Ney depended upon for support. The emperor must, therefore, have been very doubtful of the issue of the combat where he was, before he would venture to withdraw half of his force from Ney, without consulting him. In fact, the bravery of the Prussians proved long equal to his fiercest attacks. At St. Amand, the destruction had been so great amongst the French troops, that Napoleon was, in reality, forced to call forward, in the greatest haste, the first corps to his assistance at this point. But by the time this force arrived, the Prussians had been compelled to abandon this place. It was then sent back to Ney; but it arrived too late to render him any assistance.

At Sombref, on the Prussian left, general Thielman, with the third corps, remained immovable against all the efforts of the French. Bonaparte, therefore, resolved to complete his success by one of those skilful and daring manœuvres which characterised his tactics. In the village of Ligny, which fronted the centre of the Prussian line, he drew up the imperial guard, which he had hitherto kept in reserve. Eight battalions of these troops formed into one solid column, supported by four squadrons of cavalry, two regiments of cuirassiers, and the horse-grenadiers of the guard, traversed the village at the *pas-de-charge*, threw themselves into the ravine which separates the village from the heights, and began to ascend them, notwithstanding a dreadful fire of grape and musketry from the Prussians. Their advance, however, was not stopped, nor even in the smallest degree shaken, by this fire; but, boldly coming up the heights of Büffly, they made such an impression on the masses of the Prussian line as threatened to break through the centre of their army. The combat at this moment was truly dreadful;

but the impetuosity of the French grenadiers surmounted every obstacle, and cut their way through the opposing ranks with a horrible carnage. The division of Pechaux, supported by the cuirassiers, having made a circuit round Ligny, came from both sides at once, unobserved, upon the main body of the Prussian force at this point, which was posted behind the houses. At the same moment also the Prussian cavalry, which were posted on a height behind the village, were repulsed in repeated attacks upon the French cavalry. It was now dark. "The movement made by the enemy," said Blücher, "was *decisive*." Nevertheless, though thus surrounded, and in the shades of night, which heightens the idea of danger in the human mind, the Prussian columns behind Ligny did not suffer themselves to be discouraged. "Formed in masses, they coolly repulsed all the attacks made upon them; and this corps retreated in good order upon the heights, whence it continued its retrograde movement upon Tilly." In consequence, however, of this sudden eruption of the enemy's cavalry, the artillery belonging to the Prussian army, in their precipitate retreat, got into defiles, in which they fell into disorder, and Blücher acknowledged that fifteen pieces were taken by the enemy.

The Prussian army retreated during the night, and the next morning was followed by general Thielman, with the third corps, who retired upon Gembloux, where the fourth corps, under Bulow, had arrived during the night. The whole army then retreated upon the village of Wavre, where Blücher established his head-quarters. The French did not attempt to pursue them. The loss of the Prussians, in the battle of Ligny, amounted to at least 20,000 men; that of the French was also severe. Although hostilities had commenced only on the preceding day, yet, in this short space of time, upwards of 40,000 men had fallen in the three armies. Great, however, as this destruction was, it is trifling to what followed.

In the night of the 16th, the conversation in the French camp turned on the events of this sanguinary day. The Prussians had given way; and how had it happened that the British, whom the French had made sure of defeating, had gained ground? It was owing, said the infantry officers, to the inferiority of the French in number, and to the cavalry not having boldly repeated their charges; *ils n'avoient pas franchement abordé l'infanterie*. Marshal Ney has declared his opinion that, had Napoleon, on the 16th, directed his preponderating force against Quatre Bras, he would have overpowered the British, without incurring great danger from the Prussians, who might have been watched or opposed by the remainder of the French. He should, however, have taken into the account that such a movement could not have escaped the observation of the Prussians, or of the British van-guard; that our regiments would have received orders to halt before they reached Quatre Bras; that, the march of the French being thus unavoidably lengthened, the action could not have begun till late in the afternoon; and that, on the next day, Blücher would not have failed to have burst through the opposing division of the enemy, and have marched to our support. It must at the same time be admitted that the extent of mischief might have been fully as serious in this case as in that which actually took place, and would have been owing in both to the same cause.

It is a very general notion, even among the duke of Wellington's admirers, that at the outset of the operations he allowed himself to be taken by surprise; and some of them have gone so far as to apologize for him by throwing the blame on Fouché, who, it is gravely alleged, sent a female with an exact plan of Bonaparte's operations to the frontier, but managed so that her arrival at the British head-quarters should not take place till *after* the battle of Quatre Bras. (Paul's Letters, p. 92.) Some sagacious politicians imagine that Fouché acted thus in order that he might *keep in* with both parties: but the fact will be found to be, that the duke of Wellington, like

like other eminent commanders, would not place much faith in the intelligence received from sources that may be so easily corrupted. Frederic II. was surprised at Hochkirchen, in consequence (it is said) of his secret correspondent in the Austrian camp being discovered by marshall Daun, and obliged to send him a false dispatch: but, be this as it may, the truth is, that the greatest military successes are obtained, not by relying on such precarious information, but by vigilance and activity in watching the enemy's movements. If ever a general was fitted for the intriguing business of *espionnage*, it was Bonaparte; yet, if we scrutinize the causes of his mightiest victories, whether in his memorable campaign of 1796, in his capture of Mack in 1805, or in the movements that led to the more disastrous day of Jena, we shall perceive that the whole may be explained without a reference to such mysterious communications. It admits of no doubt that at the battle of Quatre Bras our troops were in a very unprepared state: but the explanation of this fact will be found to involve very little censure on a general who had been always distinguished, when commanding separately, for his promptitude in point of information. The duke seems to have erred in nothing but in placing too much confidence in the vigilance of the officers, whether Prussian, Belgian, or British, who were stationed on the frontier: but the great cause of our fighting unprepared is to be sought in the temper of a veteran (Blucher) glowing with all the impatience of youth to come into contact with the oppressors of his country, and determined to fight in Flanders, as he had done in Champagne, without allowing much time for the co-operation of his allies.

The plan of the Prussians, against so active an enemy as Bonaparte, should have been to place in the advanced positions such small bodies of horse or foot as might have made a temporary resistance during the two days that were evidently necessary to collect the numerous bodies of the allied troops scattered over an extent of fifty or sixty miles. These detachments might have been ordered to retreat, or authorized to surrender, as soon as their commanders had ascertained the decided superiority of the enemy, and could transmit such intelligence to headquarters as would enable the allied generals to determine with confidence the real direction of Napoleon's march.

On this system, the day for a general action would have been the 17th; by which time all the allied troops might have arrived, from right and left, at a central position on the Brussels road in the neighbourhood of Waterloo or Genappe. Blucher, however, chose to try the fate of arms on the 16th, without calculating the time required by the British to arrive, and even without waiting for one of the divisions of his own army. "The marshal's plan," says the Prussian official account, "was to fight a general engagement with the enemy *as soon as possible*. On the 16th, Bulow's corps had been delayed in its march, and had not yet come up; nevertheless, the field-marshal resolved to give battle:" a resolution in which he persisted without considering that the British general was not on the frontier, but at Brussels.

No time appears to have been lost by the duke, in acting on the intelligence transmitted to him by the Prussians. It reached him only on the evening of the 15th, and our troops (at least our infantry) began their march from all points at daylight on the 16th. Had the assembling of the French force been made from the east, the duke would have had less hesitation in directing his march immediately towards the Prussians: but a great part of the enemy came from the west, and might have threatened Brussels by a shorter road than that which they actually took. The consequence of making a stand in so advanced a position as Ligny was that, as early as the forenoon of the 16th, Ney's vanguard was in possession of the great road of communication between the British and the Prussians. The intercourse of the two armies was thus interrupted; so that the duke remained during the whole of the succeeding night in uncertainty as to the issue of the

battle of Ligny. A patrol sent by his grace in the direction of Ligny, in the morning of the 17th, seems to have brought him the first account of Blucher's retreat: it was confirmed by a Prussian aid-de-camp some time afterward, but too late to save the double labour of first bringing up our artillery, and afterward dragging it back all the way to Waterloo.

In thus animadverting on the over-eagerness of Blucher, we must not be deemed insensible to the merits of that gallant and estimable veteran. His fierce impetuous mode of fighting had great effect in checking and enfeebling the French; which was apparent, among other things, by Bonaparte finding it necessary to call to his assistance, on the 16th, the corps of 25,000 men from under the command of Ney.

While the Prussian army was retreating, the duke of Wellington and the army under his command, remained on the field-of-battle at Quatre Bras; (so named from its standing near where the roads from Brussels to Charleroi, and from Nivelles to Namur, cross each other.) He had been joined by the cavalry and artillery, and the rest of the army. By the morning of the 17th, he had placed the whole in the position of Quatre Bras, and was combining his measures to attack Ney at Frasnes, when he received a dispatch from Blucher, informing him of the unfortunate result of affairs on his side. The retreat of the Prussian army rendered a corresponding movement, on the part of the British general, absolutely necessary, in order to maintain his communication with the Prussians. He accordingly resolved on retreating towards Brussels, which was done in the most perfect order.

Such were the results of the sanguinary combats of Ligny and Quatre Bras, where, according to marshal Soult, "the overthrow was terrible, and the effect *dramatic*." The emperor had, indeed, at one point beaten, but not broken, the line, so far as to compel the allies to choose other ground to re-form it; but from that he was not able to derive any material advantage, and certainly none such as he had anticipated. Although the allies had found it necessary to retreat, yet he did not attempt to pursue them. In the battle of the 16th, both sides fought with the utmost resolution; but the French soldiers with the bitterest animosity. The first and third corps of the French army had hoisted the *black flag*, and resolved to give no quarter to their enemies. But the animosity of the French troops was particularly directed against the Prussians: "On the 15th, before Charleroi," said an official account to Davoust, "several squares of Prussian infantry were broken by some squadrons: of 5 or 6000 men, who composed those squares, only 1700 could be saved." The *Moniteur*, however, comes closer and more boldly to the point. On the 16th, said that paper, "the firing of our troops against the Prussians, whose government has been the principal instigator of this unjust war, was such, that the emperor was obliged to order the recall to be beaten three times, for the purpose of enjoining the making of prisoners, and of stopping the carnage."

The retreat of the allied armies gave the French an opportunity, at which they are adepts, and which at this time was peculiarly necessary, namely, to claim great and brilliant victories; and also to anticipate the most happy and decisive results in their favour. Bulletin after bulletin was transmitted by telegraph to the interior, and to the shores of the ocean, to announce that the emperor "had completely beaten the united armies of Wellington and Blucher." Three of these dispatches were received at Boulogne on the morning of the 18th. Paris was illuminated. The most extravagant joy was manifested by the friends of the emperor. The whole vanity and arrogance of the ambitious and thoughtless French people were again brought forward to public notice: "His majesty," said the *Moniteur*, "was to enter Brussels the day after this glorious action, in which, it is said, the safety of the general-in-chief, Wellington, is compromised. Whole bands of prisoners are taken. We do not know

what

what is become of their commanders. The rout is complete on this side; and I hope we shall not soon hear again of these Prussians, if they should ever be able to rally at all. As for the English, we shall see what will become of them. *The emperor is there.*"

On the 17th, Napoleon having sent the third and fourth corps of infantry, under Girard and Vandamme, and the third corps of cavalry, under general Pagol, the whole amounting to about 35,000 men, and commanded by marshal Grouchy, to follow the movements of the Prussian army to Wavre, proceeded with the remainder of his force to the position which the troops under Ney occupied; but, before his arrangements were completed, and his orders given for his army to advance, the British troops were in full retreat, with the exception of the rear-guard, which was still at Quatre Bras. Napoleon, thinking the British army remained in their position at this place, advanced his troops in strong columns of attack against them; but, when they reached the heights above the village of Frasnes, he was surprised to find that the British had retreated; and that the troops against which his columns were advancing were nothing more than a strong rear-guard, which fell back as his troops advanced. He immediately ordered his cavalry to advance in pursuit; and his columns of infantry continued their march in the direction of Brussels. Many skirmishes took place with alternate success, until the rear of the British army arrived at Genappe. The British had to defile through the narrow streets of this village, and over the bridge which there crosses a small river, in the very face of the pursuing enemy. The cuirassiers being in advance, the earl of Uxbridge ordered the 7th hussars to charge them; but their horses were too small to produce any effect, and their swords shivered into atoms like glass, when they struck the steel armour of these men; and the regiment was forced to retire with some loss. The cuirassiers pursued them rapidly, and took the rear-squadron prisoners. The life-guards were then ordered up to protect the hussars, and the rear of the army. The guards immediately charged; and, after a short but severe contest, the French retired in confusion. Several other charges took place with the same success, in which the Oxford blues greatly distinguished themselves. The retreat of the British was then continued, without any further interruption, to the heights of Mount St. John, in advance of *Waterloo*, a village in front of the forest of Soignies, and on the great road to Brussels, within nine miles of that city.

During the whole of the afternoon of the 17th the rain fell in torrents, accompanied by dreadful thunder and lightning, as if the elements also had collected to this point all their destructive engines to engage in the mighty conflict. This state of the weather was of great advantage to the allied army; and, the roads being broken up by their artillery, rendered it difficult for the French to pursue. It was five o'clock when the allied troops arrived at the position destined for them by their skilful commander. Napoleon's army halted in the neighbourhood of Genappe. In the evening a short cannonade took place towards Hougomont, but without any result. On the left the Belgian troops advanced in parties in front, brandishing their arms, shouting, and firing some cannon, in token of defiance to the enemy; but to this they paid no attention.

All the army of Wellington was now collected at *WATERLOO*; and the duke wrote to marshal Blucher, that he was resolved to accept the battle in that place, provided that the marshal could spare two corps of his army to assist him. This the gallant veteran not only agreed to do, but promised, if necessary, to come with all his army to the assistance of the British general. At the same time he proposed, that, if Napoleon did not attack the allies on the 18th, they should, on the subsequent day, attack him with all their forces. When the evening approached, the allied soldiers, wet, weary, and hungry, took up their bivouack amidst the dripping corn, mud,

and water, and in the open fields, with scarcely any covering. The ground afforded no shelter for the troops; so that generals, officers, and men, were equally exposed to the rain, which was falling in torrents.

The French army was in a similar situation. The troops had been gradually coming up, during the evening, and occupied a ridge nearly opposite to the position of the English army. Napoleon slept at the farm-house of Cailou, near Planchenoit. Thus arranged, both generals and their respective armies waited the arrival of morning, and the events it was to bring. During the greater part of the night, the thunder and lightning continued most tremendous, accompanied by a high wind, and incessant and heavy rain; but, though this night was dreadful to the soldier, it must have been still more so to the wretched inhabitants of the country which the armies occupied. Obligated to abandon their humble dwellings, in despair they had fled to the deep recesses of the forest for security, and in the hope of saving their lives. The rich crops of grain, which were fast hastening to maturity, were trodden under foot, or eaten up by the cavalry; and the helpless farmer saw the labour of a whole year destroyed in a single day!

Napoleon had been partially successful. His great object remained yet to gain; and which, if he did not gain immediately, would have compelled him to relinquish all the advantages which he had previously obtained. Numerous reinforcements, he was well aware, were at hand to augment the armies of his opponents. Three corps of the Prussian army were on their march, and making every exertion to join their comrades. He had therefore no alternative but to persevere before these corps joined, or to return into France before the forces of the enemy. From the bravery of the allies on the 16th, he must have been aware that the object which he had in view was a most arduous, and even a doubtful, undertaking. Nevertheless he was resolved to persevere; and believed that, however difficult it might be, still he could carry his point. His self-confidence here led him into one of those errors which had oftener than once before proved fatal to him. He calculated that he had gained much more from the bloody operations of the 16th than he really had. He believed that Blucher's army was incapable of any further resistance that could be serious, or impede him. "He believed," said the Prussian general, "that the Prussian army was retiring upon Maestricht." The duke of Wellington therefore alone remained, as Napoleon conceived, to offer any serious resistance to his progress; and he had determined to attack him before he could receive any assistance from the army of Blucher. The former disposed of, he calculated he should be able to turn a sufficient force against the disordered remnant of the Prussian army, which he made sure of destroying altogether. Accordingly he had dispatched the army, under marshal Grouchy, to turn the left of the Prussian army, attack its rear at Wavre, and be ready to advance upon the road to Brussels, and in the rear of the whole, at the hour when he calculated that he should be able to force the front of both the allied armies, and completely separate them the one from the other, should the Prussians at all attempt to come to the assistance of the British general. Such were his prospects; such were his schemes. The possession of the capital of the Netherlands, and the destruction of Wellington and Blucher, two of the most celebrated generals of the age, were the mighty prizes for which he immediately contended. Others more remote were also in his view. His tottering power to re-establish, his tarnished glory to restore, and to disorganize the general plan of his mighty and numerous adversaries, were the next objects for which he fought. No common motives impelled him on; no common energies seconded his movements. An army, considering its numbers, more select than any France had ever before sent to the field, stood ready, heart and soul, to second his exertions. The whole were personally and enthusiastically attached

to their chief. They were also known to each other, bound together by one common feeling and one common interest; confident in their leaders; the flower of France; and composed of those veterans, returned from European prisons, who had formerly carried terror over the continent. All were burning to wipe away the stains which the previous campaigns had heaped upon their arms; and all were eager to earn fresh laurels, honours, and rewards.

On their parts, the commanders of the allied armies were not idle. The character of Blecher, for firmness and decision, was well known. That of Wellington, many a proud day had celebrated over the world. The position of Waterloo had been previously pitched upon by his comprehensive mind, as the best he could choose to cover Brussels, and to meet the fury of his formidable antagonist. The untarnished fame of Wellington was now fairly and conspicuously opposed to the ruler of France, who had long been characterized, and was still believed by many, to be the greatest captain of the age; who also, in the present contest, had every thing to hope from success, and absolute ruin to expect from defeat. The army of Wellington was confident in, and proud of, their chief; but they were composed of five different nations, scarcely known to each other. The Dutch and Belgian troops were newly raised, and in their first assay in arms. The Hanoverians, forming a fourth of the army, were all new levies, and young troops. Yet with these the duke of Wellington resolved to face his skilful adversary. Europe watched the movements of each with fear and silence; Britain with anxiety and hope. The British general, and the British troops, were thus, even under very disadvantageous circumstances, pitched against the *élite* of France and her boasted leader.

In the mean time, various unpleasant rumours had spread through Brussels and the surrounding country, in consequence of the retreat of the allied armies. After the British army had left Brussels, on the morning of the 16th, that city looked like a perfect desert. Every countenance was marked with anxiety or melancholy; every heart was filled with anxious expectation. It was not, however, supposed that any action would take place that day. What was then the general consternation, when, about three o'clock, a furious cannonading began! It was certainly in the direction the British army had taken; it came from Waterloo! In vain did every one ask questions which none could answer—numbers of people in carriages and on horseback, set off towards Waterloo, and returned no wiser than they went, each bringing back a different story. A thousand absurd reports, totally devoid of foundation, were circulated. What was told one minute was contradicted the next. According to some, Blecher had been completely beaten; according to others, he had gained a complete victory. Some would have it, that 30,000 French were left dead on the field of battle; others, that about the same number were advancing to surprise Brussels.

This last conjecture was improved into almost a certainty by the sudden appearance, between five and six in the morning of the 17th, of a troop of Belgic cavalry, covered, not with glory but with mud, galloping through the town at full speed, as if the enemy were at their heels. The alarm was soon given. In less than two minutes, the great square of the Place Royale, which had been crowded with men and horses, carts and baggage-waggons, was completely cleared of every thing, and entirely deserted. The cry was, "The French are at the gates of the town!" The doors of all the bed-rooms were thrown open; the people flew out with their night-caps on, scarcely half-dressed, and looking quite distracted, running about pale and trembling they knew not whither, with packages under their arms; some carrying huge heterogeneous collections of things down to the cellars, and others loaded with their property flying up to the garrets. In the court-yards of the inns, a scene of the most dreadful confusion ensued. Description can give but a faint idea

of the scuffle that took place to get at the horses and carriages; the squabbling of masters and servants, ostlers, chambermaids, coachmen, and gentlemen, all scolding at once, and swearing in French, English, and Flemish; while every opprobrious epithet and figure of speech, which the three languages contained, was exhausted. Some made use of supplication, and others had recourse to force; words were followed by blows. Those who had horses, or means of procuring them, set off with most astonishing expedition; and one English carriage after another took the road to Antwerp.

It was impossible for the people of Brussels, who were wholly ignorant of the event of the battle, and acquainted only with the disadvantageous circumstances under which it had been fought, not to fear that the enemy might at least have succeeded in breaking through the British, or at least the Prussian, lines; or that Bonaparte, ever fertile in expedients, might have contrived to elude their vigilance and to send a detachment, under cover of night, by a circuitous route, to seize the unguarded city, the possession of which was to him of the highest importance. The news of the advance of the French; the alarming reports which had been brought in from all quarters during the night; the flight of the Belgic troops, and, above all, the failure of any intelligence from the British army; tended to corroborate this last alarm, and it seemed but too certain that the enemy were actually at hand. At length, after a considerable interval of terror and suspense, an aid-de-camp of the duke of Wellington arrived, who had left the army at four o'clock; and, to the unspeakable joy of the people, this was found to be a false alarm. It had been spread by those dastardly Belgians who had been scampering through the town, and who had, it is supposed, met with some straggling party of the French. A considerable number of French did indeed enter the town soon after; but they were French prisoners.

The defeat which the Prussians had sustained could not, however, be concealed; and the Belgians were still filled with consternation and dismay. The corpse of the duke of Brunswick had passed through Brussels during the night, and his fate seemed to make a great impression upon the minds of the people. Waggons filled with the wounded began to arrive, and the melancholy spectacle of these poor sufferers increased the general despondency. The streets were filled with the most pitiable sights. A Belgic soldier was seen dying at the door of his own home, and surrounded by his relatives, who were weeping over him; numerous were the sorrowful groups standing round the dead bodies of those who had died of their wounds in the way home. Numbers of wounded, who were able to walk, were wandering upon every road; their blood-stained clothes, and pale haggard countenances, perhaps giving the idea of sufferings much greater than the reality.

It would be endless to dwell upon every fresh panic. An open town, like Brussels, within a few miles of contending armies, is subject to perpetual alarms; and scarcely an hour passed without some false reports occurring to spread terror and confusion. Every hour only served to add to the dismay. So great was the alarm in Brussels on the evening of the 17th, that a hundred Napoleons were offered in vain for a pair of horses to go to Antwerp, a distance of thirty miles; and numbers set off on foot, and embarked in boats upon the canal. Next day, the terror and confusion reached its highest point. News arrived of the French having gained a complete victory; and it was universally believed. A dreadful panic had seized the men left in charge of the baggage in the rear of the army, and they ran away with a rapidity that could not have been surpassed even by the French themselves. The road between Waterloo and Brussels, which lies through the forest of Soignies, is completely confined on either side by trees; it was soon choked up; those behind attempted to get past those before; officers' servants were struggling to secure their masters' baggage; panic-struck people forcing their way over every obstacle,

with the desperation of fear; and a complete scuffle ensued, which might really be called a battle burlesqued, in which numbers of horses were killed, and some lives lost, not to mention the innumerable broken heads and bruises sustained on the occasion.

At Antwerp, though more distant from the scene of action, the consternation was nearly as great. Long rows of carriages lined the streets, filled with fugitives, who could find no place of shelter; and people of rank and fortune were glad to eat and sleep in one and the same miserable hole, which, at any other time, they would have disdained to enter. So great was the universal anxiety, that during the whole of the 18th, though the rain was almost incessant, the great Place de Maire was crowded with people, who stood from morning until night, under umbrellas, impatiently watching the arrival of news from the army, and assailing every body who entered the town with fruitless inquiries.

But to return to the movements of the contending armies. Napoleon found, upon bringing up his troops on the evening of the 17th, that it was too late, for that day, to make any attempt against the position chosen by his skilful adversary. "It would have required three hours more of day-light," said he, "to have attacked them;" in consequence of which, he deferred the attack till the 18th.

We shall here endeavour to state the amount of the French army on the morning of that day as nearly as possible. We have already said that it consisted of 130,000 men, before the invasion of the Netherlands took place; but, when Napoleon joined it with his guards and other troops on the 12th, it was increased to between 140 and 150,000 men. It was divided into five corps of infantry, and four of cavalry, and was accompanied by 300 pieces of artillery. The cavalry consisted of 25,000 men; and a finer body never entered a field. It was supposed that Napoleon was peculiarly weak in this arm; but the reverse proved to be the case. Among the cavalry were the lancers, who were distinguished by their address, activity, and ferocity; and the cuirassiers, of whom there are said to have been nine regiments, were remarkable for the excellence of their equipments, and the superior power of their horses. Of the quality of this last corps we shall have occasion to notice hereafter. It is impossible to speak too highly of the French infantry in point of bravery and discipline in the field. The *élite* of the army consisted of the imperial guards, who were, at least, 20,000 strong. All these troops were completely armed and equipped, and supplied even to profusion with every kind of ammunition. Their loss, in the battles of Quatre Bras and Ligny, amounted to about 15,000 men, leaving a force of about 130,000 on the morning of the 18th of June. Of these, however, 35,000 were with marshal Grouchy, observing the Prussians; but there still remained 95,000 effective men to attack the British army, though Napoleon himself affirms he had but 71,000.

We have already noticed the amount and composition of the allied army under the duke of Wellington. Deducting the loss which it sustained on the 16th, and a corps which had been detached under prince Frederic of Orange, it was now reduced to about 70, or 75,000 men.

The glorious "field of Waterloo" has been so often described, that little novelty is to be expected from any account given to the public at this comparatively late period. It is quite impossible for us, however, to refrain from entering into the details of that memorable day; and we hope that the account we shall give may conduce to illustrate some tactical observations which appear to have escaped the attention of former writers. Much has been said in praise of the talents of the rival commanders, and the gallantry of their troops; but scarcely any one has made a point of specifying, in a clear and connected detail, the dependence of one event on another; or has tried to analyze, with the deliberate eye of an historian, the causes to which our triumph is to be attributed. The time is now

come to exchange the enthusiasm of admiration for calm inquiry; and, without pretending to many other sources of information than such as are furnished by the various official reports and the printed letters of individual officers, we shall contribute our humble endeavours towards preparing a more precise colouring than has yet been given to this dazzling picture. We may thus hope to enable our readers to form their decision with regard to several interesting questions, which are still introduced as doubtful in print or in conversation; and, if we do not seem to rival some cotemporary writers in high-sounding panegyrics on the British army, we shall not be backward in tracing and pointing out the distinguished features of its superiority; assured that, the more close is our examination, the more substantial will be found that basis on which rest both the pride of our troops and the security of our country.

The army under the command of the duke of Wellington was, as we have already noticed, posted about a mile in front of Waterloo, at the point where the position crossed the high roads leading from Brussels to Charleroy and Nivelles. Its right was thrown back to a ravine near Merke Braine, which village was occupied. Its left extended to a height above the hamlet of Ter la Haye, which was likewise occupied. In front of the right centre, and near the Nivelles road, his grace occupied the house and garden of Hougoumont, or Chateau Goumont, which covered the return of that flank; and, in front of the left centre, he occupied the farm of la Haye Sainte (the Holy Hedge). The centre occupied the village of Mount St. John. A road runs from Ter la Haye to Ohain, and the woody passes of St. Lambert, through which the duke of Wellington kept up a communication by his left with the Prussian army at Wavre. The whole position was situated upon an eminence, and extended about a mile and a half. The army was disposed in two lines. The first line, which was composed of the choicest troops in the duke's army, occupied the top of the hill, and were defended on the left partly by a large ditch and hedge, which ran in a straight line from Mount St. John. The second line lay behind the brow of the hill; and was, in some degree, sheltered from the enemy's fire. The reserve, under the command of lord Hill, was placed in reserve on the right of the position, in front of the village of Merke-le-Braine, with its right resting on Braine-la-Leud.

The Prussian army, which began to move at break of day, was placed as follows, viz. the fourth and second corps marched from Wavre by St. Lambert, where they were to take a position covered by the forest of Soignes, near Frischermont, in order to take the French in the rear when the moment should appear favourable. The first corps was to operate by Ohain, on the right flank of the enemy. Their line, in the evening, extended about a mile and a quarter.

The French army was posted on a range of heights, in front of the army under the British general. The first corps was placed with its left on the road to Brussels, in front of the village of Mount St. John, and opposite the centre of the allied army. This corps had not been engaged on the 16th, and was consequently entire. The second corps had its right on the road to Brussels, and its left upon a small wood within cannon-shot of the English army. The cuirassiers were in reserve behind, and the imperial guards in reserve on the heights. The sixth corps, with the cavalry of general Detourmont, under the chief command of count Lobau, was destined to oppose the Prussians on the rear of their right. The rest of the cavalry were with the guards, and the other two corps of the army. Over the whole position of the French army there were sixty batteries of cannon. The front, when extended to meet the Prussians, was about two miles and a half.

The country thus occupied by the armies was the most elevated ground in those parts, and rises from every quarter as you approach it. The whole forms numerous ridges,

ridges, without any very prominent eminences; and the valleys betwixt them are intersected with ravines. For half a league in advance of Waterloo the ground invariably rises to Mount St. John. It is interspersed, as it rises, with ridges, like the waves of the sea, wave behind wave. The position occupied by the Prussians; at the close of the day, joined the British at Ter la Haye. From that place, the ridge which forms Mount St. John, turns first in a south, and then in a south-west, direction, by Frischermont, towards Planchenoit. Its front, opposite the French position, rose like an amphitheatre, in several swells or ridges, each higher than the other, but all inferior in height to the chief ridge, on which Mount St. John is situated. At their foot is a valley, from whence the ground again rose, in an elevated chain, towards the position of the French. On the front opposite, and nearly on similar ground, with a valley between the allies and them, and also between their centre and their right wing, the French army was posted. All these eminences were covered with artillery.

In the valley, which lay between the positions of the French and British armies, about half-way between the two ridges, and to the right of the centre of the British, is situated the farm-house and chateau called Hougoumont, or Chateau Goumont. This was a gentleman's house, of the old Flemish architecture, having a tower and battlements: it was surrounded on one side by a large farm-yard, and on the other opened to a garden, and fenced by a brick wall, which was loop-holed by the British on the night of the 17th. The whole was encircled by an open grove of tall trees, covering a space of about three or four acres, without any underwood. This chateau, with the advantages afforded by its wood and gardens, formed a strong point d'appui to the British right wing. The duke of Wellington had occupied this house, as also the wall and garden, with a detachment of guards from the second brigade, and a regiment of the troops of Nassau. It was a post of the utmost importance; for, while it was held, the French could not approach the right of the British army.

The country around is generally open, groups of trees only appearing behind Frischermont, Planchenoit, Mon Plaisir, and near the so-much-talked-of Observatory. Several villages and farm-houses rose amidst those fields, which were cultivated in the highest manner, and covered chiefly with rye, at this season of the year in the utmost luxuriance of vegetation. From the incessant rain all the ground was very soft; and, in some new-ploughed fields the troops could not move without sinking to the calf of the leg. In the rear of those memorable fields lies the vast forest of Soignies, consisting chiefly of bushes, extremely tall and beautiful. Through this forest, for several miles, runs the great road from Brussels to the frontiers. In passing the position which we have just described, the duke of Wellington, on the preceding year, remarked that it was a spot which he should choose were he ever called upon to defend Brussels. Little did he at that moment imagine, that he should so soon be called upon to defend Brussels; and still less could he think that it would be against such an enemy.

Such was the ground, and such were the positions of the formidable armies who were about to contend for the fate of Europe. The shades of a short, but gloomy, rainy, and uncomfortable, night, were past. The morning of the 18th (Sunday) dawned. Like the night, it was cheerless and rainy; dark and sullen clouds obscured the face of heaven, and blackened the approach of this eventful and bloody day. No sun of Austerlitz here shed his morning beams on those ranks who looked upon such omens as an infallible sign of victory. With the morning arose thousands who were destined never to see the dawn of another. Stiff, and almost motionless, from having slept on the open fields, and under such deluges of rain, the officers and soldiers awoke, and began to prepare for battle.

It appears, however, as if Napoleon did not expect that the British would await the issue of a battle in the position they had taken up; for, when the dawning of the 18th of June showed him his enemies still on the heights, and apparently determined to maintain them, it is said he could not suppress his satisfaction; and, while he stretched his arm towards their position, as if to grasp his prey, he exclaimed, "Ah! I have them, then, these English!" Afraid, however, that they would still steal away, he sent the most pressing orders to hasten up his columns from the rear, that he might commence the attack. The weather still continued tempestuous; but, about nine o'clock, it cleared a little, and soon afterwards the sun made his appearance from amidst the dark clouds which rolled along the atmosphere.

The British troops were in the act of preparing their breakfast, when aid-du-camps, passing through their ranks, proclaimed that the French were moving. The troops immediately stood to their arms, and the artillery moved to the front. Before entering upon the terrible details of of this day, it may not be unnecessary to state, for the better understanding the subject, that this battle may properly be divided into six great periods. The first was the impetuous attack upon the right at Hougoumont, which lasted from eleven to one; the second was the dreadful attack from the centre to the left, which lasted from one till three; the third was the tremendous attack along the whole line, but severest towards the centre, which lasted from three till past six; the fourth was the terrible attack made by the imperial guards, which lasted from half-past six till eight; included in these periods also is the murderous combat maintained by the Prussians against the French right wing; the fifth was the general attack upon the offensive, on the part of the allies, and the attempt of Napoleon to resist it, which lasted from eight till near ten; the sixth was the general rout and pursuit, which lasted from ten till near midnight on the part of the British, and on the side of the Prussians all night. In each attack arose a multiplicity of sanguinary combats; and each were equal in their consequences to combats which, in other wars, had decided the fate of empires.

The whole of the French line now appeared to be in motion; their columns formed rapidly; and a terrible cloud of cavalry and cuirassiers hung opposite the British right. From a deep column of infantry, which was afterwards known to be composed of the imperial guard, and also ascertained to be the head-quarters where Napoleon himself was stationed, numerous officers were seen, from time to time, passing to and fro in all directions. These were carrying the necessary and definitive orders. Immediately after this, Napoleon passed before the line, and addressed the troops, in order to encourage them to greater exertions. He reminded them of their former victories. He pointed out to them the consequences of defeat in the present instance. He held out to them honours and rewards; and pressed upon their minds the glory which they would gain by vanquishing the English, their ancient and most inveterate enemies, and the great cause of all the opposition against them. He asked them if they would suffer the newly-organized troops of Holland, Belgium, and the petty states of Germany, once their servants, to vanquish them. He told them that a rich reward for all their toils lay before them, and was within their grasp; for "to-night," said he, "we shall be in Brussels."

1. It was near eleven o'clock when the battle began, with the attack on Hougoumont. Napoleon, upon reconnoitring, had seen the importance of that post, and the necessity there was for his getting possession of it. He therefore sent orders for marshal Ney, who commanded the left wing of his army, to direct an attack upon it with such a force as should at once take it. That officer immediately ordered the division of infantry, commanded by Jerome Bonaparte, to advance against Hougoumont. About eleven o'clock, the first columns of Jerome's divi-

sion made their appearance from the ravine, or rather hollow ground, which leads down from the public-house of la Belle-Alliance to the chateau. The British artillery had taken up a position on the ridge of the hill in front of the line of infantry; and the moment the French made their appearance with loud shouts of *Vive l'Empereur*, the nine-pounders opened a tremendous fire. So great was the effect produced by this fire, that all Jerome's bravery could not make his soldiers advance; and in a moment they were again hidden by the rising ground, from under cover of which they had but just emerged. This, which was the commencement of the action, was considered a very favourable omen by the British soldiers who witnessed it; and, for a short time, they were much amused with the manoeuvres of Jerome's division, and the cautious manner in which it seemed to emerge from its hiding-place.

This state of things, however, did not last long, as the French were observed bringing up a powerful artillery to bear upon the guns which had so annoyed his first advance. Under the protection of this artillery, they attacked Hougoumont with such vigour, that the troops of Nassau-Ussingen, who lined the grove of Hougoumont as sharpshooters, abandoned that part of the post; and the chateau itself must have been carried, but for the stubborn and desperate courage of the detachment of guards. The occupation of the wood by the French made Hougoumont, for a considerable time, an invested and besieged post, indebted for its security to the strong walls and deep ditches with which the garden and orchard were surrounded, but more to the bravery of those by whom they were maintained. The impetuosity of the French troops was incredible, and the fire of their artillery terrible. Every tree, every walk, every hedge, every avenue, was contended for with an obstinacy altogether inconceivable. The garrison fired through the holes which they had knocked out in the garden-walls; and the assailants made the most desperate attempts to carry the post, but in vain. This part of the British line was supported by thirty pieces of cannon, which made dreadful havoc amongst the enemy. The French were killed all round to the very door of the house; but they were never able to penetrate beyond the threshold.

As Hougoumont was in some degree insulated, and its defenders no longer in communication with the rest of the British army, the French cavalry were enabled to march round it to the British right wing, which they attacked with great vigour. The light troops, who were in advance of the line, were driven in by the fury of this general charge; and the foreign cavalry who ought to have supported them, gave way on all sides. The black Brunswick infantry, however, stood firm. They were drawn up in squares, as most of the British forces were, in this memorable battle.

The duke of Wellington, with his usual quickness, had foreseen the nature of the attack that would be made upon his line; and, when the troops stood to their arms in the morning, he gave orders that they should be formed into squares of half-battalions, and in that state to await the attack. These squares were not quite solid, but nearly so, the men being drawn up several files deep. The distance between these masses afforded space enough to draw up the battalions in line, when they should be ordered to deploy; and they were posted, with reference to each other, much like the alternate squares upon a chess-board. It was, therefore, impossible for a squadron of cavalry to push between two of these squares without finding themselves at once assailed by a fire in front from that which was to the rear, and on both flanks from those betwixt which it had moved forward.

2. After the French had made the most desperate efforts to push back the right wing of the British army, and to establish themselves on the road to Nivelles, the battle slackened in some degree in this quarter, to rage with greater fury towards the left and centre of the British line.

The French had been foiled in every attack which they had hitherto made, and therefore turned their attacks to the left of the British, in order to gain the road to Brussels. This attack was made in columns of cavalry and infantry, protected by the fire of upwards of a hundred pieces of artillery, which did dreadful execution. The French advanced with intrepidity, and charged with such resolution, that it required the utmost skill of the British general to post his troops, and valour of the soldiers, to resist the overwhelming numbers that were brought against them. The attempt against Hougoumont and the right was severe; "but on this point," said marshal Blücher, "the enemy attacked with fury," intending to throw the left wing of the allied army upon the centre, and thus effect its separation from the Prussian army. The combat was of the severest description. La Haye Sainte was the enemy's first object. This was a large farm-house, with offices, surrounded with a high wall, and lay upon the right of the great road from Brussels to Charleroy, in front of Mount St. John, at the bottom of the ridge. The garden attached to this house, which had only a brushwood fence, extended about fifty yards into the plain. Being a covering-point of much importance, the duke had occupied it with a considerable force of the light troops of the German legion. The French attacked this post with great fury, but were repeatedly repulsed; they, however, advanced again with fresh troops, the place was carried, and all its brave defenders were put to the sword.

While the combat raged with the utmost violence at La Haye Sainte, the columns of the French pressed forward against the whole body of the British left wing, directing their efforts along this part of the line, towards the village of Mount St. John. It was about one o'clock that the attack on the left became serious. Three columns of between 3 and 4000 men each, and 40 pieces of cannon, advanced against the line on the left, where the Belgians were posted. The fifth division, a brigade of heavy dragoons, and two brigades of artillery, assisted them. The combat was severe, and the slaughter dreadful. For about an hour, the Belgian infantry, assisted by the fire of the British artillery, arrested their progress; but they were at length obliged to give way. The 3d royals and 44th regiment were then sent to occupy the ground which the Belgians had abandoned; but these troops, after the most gallant conduct, and the greatest exertions, were, in about half-an-hour, also forced to yield; and the French succeeded in getting to the hedge that ran in front of the position. They were, however, driven back by the brave 92d, under general Pack; and the Scotch greys followed, who did terrible execution. The French, however, rallied, and with fresh troops renewed the attack: they advanced in deep and solid columns, with loud cheers, and confident of victory. General Picton, who was with his division on the road from Brussels to Charleroy, advanced with the bayonet to receive them: the conflict was close and murderous; unable to withstand the shock, the French soldiers turned and fell back in disorder, suffering at the same time a terrible loss. In this furious conflict, however, general Picton fell, mortally wounded, while leading on his division to the charge.

The French were not to be deterred by this repulse. They immediately brought a large body of cavalry to cover their infantry, and the attack commenced again. These attacks were sometimes carried on by cavalry and infantry intermixed, and sometimes separate. In those, however, made at this period of the day, both were employed, in which the most desperate attempts were made to drive the British from their position at the village of Mount St. John; but they were unsuccessful. The cannonade, at this moment, on both sides, was dreadful. The French artillery, which was led by count d'Erlon, vomited forth terrible showers of grape-shot, which made frightful chasms in all the left of the British line, which nevertheless remained firm and immovable. The British artillery

lery also did considerable execution. It cut to pieces the masses of the French infantry and cavalry as they advanced. The French, exasperated at the loss which they sustained, attempted to charge the guns with their cavalry. In these charges the artillerymen stood at their guns as long as they could, and then retired under the bayonets of the infantry; and, as soon as the French cavalry were driven back, they returned to their guns, and gave them a parting salute.

During all this first terrible struggle on the left, the scene, said a person who was present, was indescribably grand and terrific. The atmosphere, for some time, was heavy and tempestuous, which prevented the smoke, occasioned by the cannon and musketry, from rising; and, while both armies fought under these gloomy clouds, they served to conceal the advance of the columns of the French infantry till they were close at hand. Hence the prospect was more terrific. The cries of the wounded and dying, the thunder of the artillery, the volleys of musketry, the bursting of shells, the noise occasioned by Congreve's rockets, the fury of the combatants, the cries of *Vive l'Empereur* on the one side, and of *Vive le Roi*, and the British huzzas, intermixed with the loud cheers of "Scotland for ever," from the other side, formed a scene which it is impossible to describe. The shot from the French artillery passed over the line of the British guns, and fell into the squares of infantry behind them, and occasioned a great loss to several regiments, without their having been at all engaged. The French army was also similarly situated with regard to the tremendous fire of their antagonists. Many of the rockets, in particular, carried destruction to a great distance, passed over the front lines, and fell amidst the equipage which was placed behind on the road, which rendered it indispensably necessary to remove the train to a greater distance.

Though repulsed in every onset, and notwithstanding the loss which the French had sustained, they still persevered, and sent forward fresh troops to reinforce those which had been defeated. In one of these attacks, general Ponsonby charged with his brigade, consisting of the 1st dragoon-guards, the Scotch greys, and the 6th or Inniskillen dragoons. Sir William Ponsonby led the charge at the head of the latter regiment, which cut down every thing before them; and the French troops were overthrown with great loss. The charge, however, though successful, proved fatal to the brave sir William Ponsonby. In returning from the charge which he had made, his horse stuck fast in a newly-ploughed field. The French had rallied, and were again advancing. Finding it impossible to escape from a column of lancers, he alighted, and was in the act of giving his aid-de-camp his watch and a picture, in order that these memorials might be delivered to his wife and family, when the lancers came up. Both were cut to pieces in an instant; and, when his body was found, it was pierced with seven lances. His brigade afterwards came up, and amply revenged his death, and the lancers were nearly annihilated.

Finding all their efforts fruitless, the French now sent another column of cavalry against the British lines. At the head of this column marched those formidable troops named *cuirassiers*. These soldiers were not only clad in armour, but were all chosen men, about six feet high; their horses were the best and strongest which could be procured; and it was necessary to have served in three campaigns, and to have been twelve years in the service, before they got into that corps. From their chin downwards to the lower part of the body they were cased in armour: the front cuirass was made bright, and in form of a pigeon's egg; the back one was made to fit the back: the inside was stuffed with a pad, and both were fitted on with a clasp. They were easily put off and on; and weighed from nine to eleven pounds each, according to the size of the man: they resisted in a great measure musket-balls, which, striking against them, flew off in an oblique direc-

tion. On their heads they had large maffy helmets; and their weapons were straight long swords and pistols. These troops being brought forward, they advanced against the British line with the utmost confidence. The attack of this body of troops was tremendous, and for a considerable time every attempt that was made to repel them proved unavailing. The British light-cavalry were found to suffer cruelly in their unequal contest with the ponderous and sword-proof cuirassiers, and even with the lancers. They were driven back with considerable loss, and many were made prisoners. Even the German legion, so distinguished for discipline and courage during the peninsular war, were unequal, on this occasion, to sustain their shock. They then attacked the infantry, who, notwithstanding the loss which they sustained, remained immovable, and repelled every attack made upon them. The 28th regiment particularly distinguished itself; and its colonel, sir Philip Benson, had four horses shot under him. In this manner the engagement continued at this point upwards of an hour. Both sides behaved with the most extraordinary gallantry, and neither the one nor the other would yield an inch of ground. The attacks of the French, however, were incessant and severe; three times were they upon the point of carrying the position at this point, and as often were they repelled. The cuirassiers deliberately advanced to the mouth of the British cannon: at one time they galloped along, and at another coolly walked their horses in front of the British squares, continuing to look for an opening into which they might dash: but none appeared, the ranks were filled up as soon as they were broken; while with the bayonet they resisted and unhorsed these armour-equipped cavaliers. Some of these men were so bold, that they frequently rushed singly out of their columns, and, firing their pistols in front of the British line, endeavoured to irritate the troops so as to make them throw away their fire upon them, that their main columns might attack with more safety.

These cuirassiers repeatedly charged the 30th regiment; but they did not succeed in making the least impression. When the horsemen had passed, the regiment deployed into line, that its fire might be more extended and effectual. As soon as this was done, the word was given, "Re-form square; prepare to receive cavalry." The cuirassiers several times walked round this gallant regiment, eagerly watching for an opportunity to dash in. Finding no opportunity of breaking this regiment, the cuirassiers marched off to try another; and, having come upon the 69th before the square was completely formed, cut down a vast number. These cavalry frequently penetrated between the squares to the very rear of the British line; but in retiring they suffered dreadfully.

In order to repel these desperate attacks on the British line, sir John Elley, now quarter-master-general, was directed to bring up the heavy brigade of cavalry, as the other cavalry were found inadequate to the task. These consisted of the life-guards, Oxford blues, and Scotch greys, who instantly charged, and the most sanguinary cavalry-fight ever witnessed took place. Notwithstanding the weight and armour of the cuirassiers, and the power of their horses, they proved unable to withstand the shock of the heavy brigade, being literally rode down both horse and man, while the strength of the British soldiers was no less pre-eminent when they mingled and fought hand to hand. Several hundreds of French were forced headlong over a fort of quarry, or gravel-pit, where they rolled a confused and undistinguishable mass of men and horses, exposed to a fire which, being poured closely into them, soon put a period to their struggles.

This great movement of the French against the left comprehended one of the severest attacks during this tremendous day. The cavalry was completely beaten off, after losing immense numbers; and of the infantry, two regiments, the 45th and 105th, were broken, and lost an

eagle and a standard, and from 2 to 3000 prisoners. The colours of the 105th were a present from the empress Maria Louisa. The eagle of the 45th was most superbly gilt, and inscribed with the names of Austerlitz, Jena, Friedland, and Wagram. In the struggle to take it, it was much tarnished, and covered with blood and dirt. It was a Serjeant Ewart, of the Scotch greys, who captured this trophy; in effecting which, he first killed the bearer, then a lancer, and, lastly, a foot-soldier, who, at the moment, successively attacked him. The cuirassiers also lost an eagle, which was taken by the royal horse-guards.

While this tremendous struggle was going on in the centre and left of the British line, the attack upon Hougoumont and the right was renewed with greater fury than before. The French made the most furious attempts against Hougoumont, in order to turn the right of the British position; but the guards disputed the wood and orchard most gallantly. About three o'clock, when Napoleon found that Jerome's division could not drive the guards from Hougoumont, he ordered the chateau to be set on fire. The shells from several mortars, which were brought to bear upon the houses, soon had the desired effect; but the British troops, retiring into the garden, did not yield one inch of their ground; and the only thing which he gained by this cruel measure was the destruction of some wounded British soldiers, who were too ill to be removed, and who fell a prey to the flames.

Meanwhile, the attack was renewed along the whole line of the British right wing, by successive columns of cavalry, who rolled after each other like waves of the sea. These were supported by a most tremendous fire of artillery, which seemed to threaten to sweep every thing before it. The Belgian horse were forced to give way, and galloped from the field in great confusion. The advanced line of guns were stormed by the French, and several pieces fell into their hands. After gaining these, the French cavalry rode furiously up and down among the small squares of British infantry, seeking some point where they might break in upon them. A brigade of horse-artillery, commanded by major Norman Ramsay, opened its fire upon the French cavalry, which forced them to retreat repeatedly; but they again advanced with fresh fury. As often as they retired, the British artillerymen rushed out of the squares where they sheltered themselves, and began again to work their pieces. On the part of the French, a most wonderful degree of bravery was displayed in this part of the battle; and, on the part of the British, at least an equal degree of bravery, united with much more coolness.

Though the French had hitherto not been able to break the British line, yet the situation of the latter was critical. The duke of Wellington had placed all his best troops in front; and these had suffered so dreadfully, that it became necessary to bring forward troops from the second line. These were not of equal quality, and some of them were found unfit for the task. The duke himself saw a Belgian regiment give way at the instant it crossed the ridge of the hill: he rode up, halted the regiment, and again formed it, intending to lead them into the fire himself; but as soon as they crossed the ridge of the hill, and again encountered the storm of balls and shells, they went to the right-about once more, and fairly left the duke. Upon this he brought up a Brunswick regiment, who kept their ground with more steadiness.

The battle continued to rage with the utmost fury in every part of the line; and "the British army," as Blucher justly said, "fought with a valour which nothing could surpass." But the French renewed their attacks with such rapidity, that, with whatever firmness the allied army maintained their position, it was impossible but that such heroic conduct, and such continued and immense exertions, must have had a limit. The arrival of the Prussians, therefore, who were known to be advancing to co-operate with them, was most anxiously expected.

The duke of Wellington had dispatched an officer of his staff, about two o'clock, to the head-quarters of Blucher, to ascertain his movements, and to know when it was probable his advance would come in contact with the enemy.

3. Nearly four hours had now elapsed, during which the battle had been maintained with the most determined courage and obstinacy on both sides. Yet it was little in comparison to what followed. It was three in the afternoon. Affairs became more urgent. Napoleon having been baffled in every attempt which he had made upon the British lines, except the temporary success at La Haye Sainte, resolved to make some alteration in his plan of attack. He had hitherto remained on an eminence near La Belle Alliance, from whence he had a clear view of the whole field of battle. He continued walking in deep thought, sometimes with his hands joined together, and at other times taking snuff copiously, but all the while in great anxiety. The story of his standing upon the observatory, which is a mile distant, is an idle tale: at La Belle Alliance was his station during the afternoon. "It was there," said marshal Blucher, "that Napoleon was during the battle; it was there he gave his orders, and that he flattered himself with the hope of victory." From this point he contemplated the immediate and complete success of those terrible French tactics, which had so often appalled his enemies. He was, however, much chagrined when he saw some of his best troops, and his cavalry and cuirassiers, driven back, heels over head, at every onset, by the British line, and with amazing carnage. A great part of his troops had already been engaged, except his guards, which were the flower of his army, and who idolized and adored him. He, therefore, determined to bring a part of these troops forward, and, with all his cavalry, formed into masses, to make one desperate effort against the centre of the British army.

Having formed his plan, the infantry and cavalry were formed into columns, and advanced rapidly to the attack, under cover of a most tremendous cannonade, which was directed against the whole line, but severest towards the centre. The British cavalry was driven to the rear of the infantry, after sustaining several charges, in which the carnage on both sides was dreadful. The French cavalry then charged the infantry, who, being in squares, repulsed them. They returned to the attack, and charged with both infantry and cavalry in such numbers, that it required every effort on the part of the British to resist them; and the combat became close and sanguinary. About 300 pieces of artillery opened against the British lines, the fire from which was incessant and terrible. "It unfortunately," said the Spanish general Alava, "made horrible ravages in our line, and killed and wounded officers, artillerymen, and horses, in the weakest part of the position." The loss of the third battalion of the 1st regiment of British guards, and the rifle-battalion of the German legion, was immense. Files upon files were carried out to the rear from the carnage. Shocking as the slaughter was, it would have been much greater had it not been for the state of the ground, which was thoroughly soaked with rain; for although this, by preventing dust, afforded better aim to the artillerymen, many shots never rose after they had touched the ground, and none bounded so often as they would otherwise have done. The shells also frequently turned themselves, and, when they exploded, threw up the mud like a fountain.

For more than three hours, the French continued to make charge after charge, from one end of the British line to the other, in order to force it wherever they could. Victory was several times doubtful; but the duke of Wellington was every where present, exposed to the hottest fire, animating his men. He often threw himself into the midst of the squares, in full determination to stand or fall with them.

Though repulsed in every point, the French continued their attacks with such impetuosity, that the squares began

gan to assume the appearance of a great reduction of numbers. One English officer was under the necessity of stating, that his brigade was reduced to one-third of its numbers, that those who remained were exhausted with fatigue, and that a temporary relief, of however short a duration, was a measure of peremptory necessity. "Tell him," said the duke, "what he proposes is impossible: he and I, and every Englishman on the field, must die on the spot which we now occupy."

In order to give our readers a better idea how this dreadful conflict was carried on, it may be proper to explain, at one view, how the attacks of the enemy were made. In general, the whole French artillery first advanced in front, towards the British lines, pouring a most destructive fire of grape-shot and shells into them. Its approach was close indeed. This artillery played upon the British squares at the distance of 150 paces (375 feet.) Next succeeded the tremendous charges of cavalry and cuirassiers; and, lastly, the bold and determined attacks of the close columns of infantry. These repelled, the French retired behind their guns, which again advanced while the cavalry and infantry re-formed, and prepared to renew the onset in the same order. To separate the British army, to break through the centre, and to crush their firm battalions, the French made the most astonishing and reiterated efforts. Six times, from two o'clock to seven, said the Austrian official report, did Bonaparte make the attempt with equal courage, and as often was he driven back. "No troops but the English," said the same important document, "could have resisted such attacks." As the wave impels the wave, so column propelling column advanced to the attack, while the artillery and the mortars scattered destruction along the British line. The French cavalry repeatedly attacked squares after squares, and were repulsed ten or eleven times with immense loss. One mass was no sooner repulsed and broken, than another took up its place. The British squares remained immovable; and nothing could shake them.

The battle was maintained, on both sides, with inconceivable violence. The fire of the artillery and the attacks of the cavalry were so terrible, and so severe, that the allied troops absolutely looked upon the present attacks of the infantry as a breathing-time from their unparalleled toils. The anxiety of the duke for the sufferings of his gallant comrades became great: "I saw him," said a person who was present, "pull out his watch several times, calculating, no doubt, when the Prussians would arrive."

Blücher in the mean time was not idle; but his army had great and unforeseen difficulties to encounter before a junction with the British could be effected. The fourth corps, as we have already observed, had been in motion since four o'clock in the morning. Blücher himself, weary and unwell from the dreadful crush which he had received on the 16th, was in bed when he received the intelligence that the duke was attacked. He instantly arose; followed his army; and, putting himself at the head of the first corps, hastened to the field of battle. The cross-roads in that part of the country through which they had to pass were, from the late incessant rains, almost impassable. The Prussians experienced considerable difficulty in passing the defile of St. Lambert; and this, added to the badness of the roads, retarded their march some hours, so that it was past four o'clock in the afternoon before two brigades only of the fourth corps arrived at the covered position which was assigned them. The decisive moment was come: there was not an instant to be lost; and general Bulow resolved to commence the attack with what forces had come up. The Prussians, therefore, immediately advanced towards Planchenoit, against the right wing of the French. Napoleon, however, had been aware of a movement of this description, and had endeavoured to guard against it. From a letter intercepted on the preceding evening, he learned that 15,000 Prussians were to arrive on his right. The rest of the Prussian army he seems not to have thought of; and, no doubt, considered that it

would be fully occupied with the French troops under marshal Grouchy. Therefore, when the small body of Prussians appeared on his right, he immediately sent his reserve, or sixth corps, under count Lobau, against them; and a most sanguinary contest commenced at this point. The Prussians fought with uncommon courage, and the most dreadful animosity; and the tarnish which their arms had sustained on the 16th, they were resolved, if possible, to wipe away. The conflict, on this side, continued long uncertain; while the battle with the British army raged with the same violence as ever. Napoleon still had the strongest hopes of succeeding in beating the British army: "These English," said he, "are devils; yet, though they fight bravely, they must give way soon." Marshal Soult, however, who had some cause to know these devils better, told him that such an event as their giving way was not probable. "And why not?" said Napoleon, rather peevishly. "Because," said Soult, "they will rather be cut to pieces." Napoleon, however, continued to think otherwise; and, notwithstanding the delay which he had already experienced, he observed, jesting, that "he should yet be in Brussels time enough for supper." He brought up fresh troops, and the battle every moment became more bloody.

The humanity of two French officers in this battle deserve to be noticed. The honourable colonel Ponsonby, of the 12th light dragoons, fell in the first of the three charges of the light horse, soon after the commencement of the action. His wounds were desperate, and he was lying in a helpless state, when a lancer, probably to ascertain the fact of his existence, in the barbarous manner of all soldiers, plunged his lance at his shoulder, which penetrated to his lungs; meaning, as it was supposed, afterwards to plunder him, when an advance of another corps drove him away. In this state he lay for a considerable time, with several severe wounds, and suffering great agony, particularly from thirst. At length his situation was noticed by a French officer, who lay severely wounded at some distance, and, with great difficulty, crept towards him, and presented a bottle to his mouth, when he seemed at the last gasp, from which he drank some kind of spirit. This saved his life. After his recovery, he made every endeavour to find this officer, that he might return his grateful acknowledgments; but in vain.—Colonel Hervey, of the 14th, was also in a charge of the light horse, when he found himself opposed to a French officer, who was proceeding to make a cut at him, when, perceiving the colonel had but one arm, he dropped his sword, exclaiming, he would never use his sword against a man thus situated. In this instance, also, the gallant colonel was not able to find his noble opponent.

In the mean time, the contest on the left of the British was so severe, that for some time all that the Prussians could do was to maintain their position. More Prussian troops, however, came into line, and more were still advancing; Bulow's force soon amounted to 30,000 men, and the second corps were hastening to join them. Napoleon, therefore, without relinquishing his object in front, found it necessary to send general Duhesme, with the young guard and several battalions of the reserve, to this part of the line. These troops, making a vigorous attack upon the Prussians, forced them back with considerable loss; and, having made themselves masters of Ter la Haye, Pappelotte, and Frischermont, separated the Prussians from the British army.

Napoleon now determined to improve his success by following up the attack upon the centre of the British army. He had observed the destruction which his artillery had made in the British line; and about six in the evening he made a most vigorous attack upon the centre, with the whole cavalry of his guard. These succeeded in penetrating to the top of the ridge, and took the artillery which was in front. The duke of Wellington, however, who was at this point, immediately charged them with three battalions of British and three battalions of Brunswickers,

wickers, and compelled them to abandon the artillery. The British, however, were unable to withdraw them, for want of horses; nor did the French dare to advance to recover them. At this time, the earl of Uxbridge (now marquis of Anglesea) made some brilliant charges with the cavalry of household-troops, and repelled the French. Two battalions of the old guard were cut to pieces.

It was now near seven o'clock in the evening, and the battle still raged in every part of the line. Of the Prussian army, only the fourth corps had as yet come up. Marshal Blücher, with the first corps, as he was approaching the scene of action, received, about six o'clock, intelligence from general Thielman (Zeithen) that he had been attacked, and was hard pressed at Wavre by a formidable force of the French, and "who were already disputing with him the possession of the town." Blücher, however, notwithstanding that his rear was thus threatened with a superior force, said, that he "did not suffer himself to be disturbed by this news; it was on the spot where he was, and no where else, that the affair was to be decided." He therefore directed Thielman to do the best he could, and not to look to him for any immediate assistance. The moment, indeed, was critical. Had Blücher hesitated for one half-hour, the most fatal consequences must have ensued; but, instead of endeavouring to secure his rear, he continued to advance with his columns to the assistance of the British army.

General Thielman, thus left to himself, was obliged to maintain an unequal contest with the French troops, under Grouchy, at Wavre. We must here attend to the operations of these two generals, as they formed a part, and no mean part, of the battle of Waterloo. If Thielman, when attacked by Grouchy, had yielded or given way early on that important day, Bulow's corps would have been taken in the rear, as Napoleon calculated that it would be, almost as soon as it was engaged. Indeed, Napoleon relied much upon the diversion which he supposed Grouchy was making in the Prussian rear; and he expected that he would have come up and decided the day, as Desaix did at Marengo. Marshal Soult had transmitted an order to Grouchy, on the evening of the 17th, to proceed with the third and fourth corps of infantry under Girard and Vandamme, and the third corps of cavalry under Pajol, towards the Dyle, in order to throw himself in the rear of the Prussian army, which, at that time, Napoleon conceived to be disorganized and incapable of much resistance. Grouchy accordingly marched with this force, consisting of about 35,000 men, by St. Lambert, and on the right bank of the Dyle. On the 18th, he fell in with the third corps of the Prussian army, under Thielman, which had suffered least in the battle of the 16th, and a severe engagement immediately commenced. The French carried that part of the town of Wavre situated on the right bank of the Dyle, after much resistance: but, having gained this point, they found considerable difficulty in passing the river; and general Girard, in endeavouring to carry the mill of Bielge, was wounded in the breast by a ball. The mill, however, could not be carried; and, without that, the river could not be crossed. Grouchy was aware of the march of Bulow's corps to the assistance of Wellington, and was therefore eager to proceed against it. His orders were urgent, and his object most important. "Impatient," said he, "to co-operate with the army of your majesty on that important day, I detached several corps to force the passage of the Dyle, and to march against Bulow." General Vandamme continued the attack on the town of Wavre and the mill of Bielge; and Grouchy, having arrived at Limale, passed the river, and, after an obstinate struggle, carried the heights. In Wavre and Bielge, however, the Prussians remained immovable against all the efforts of the French; and, by the time the heights were carried, it was so late, that nothing more could be done that day. Thus Thielman, though much inferior in numbers, was enabled, by the difficult nature of the country, interspersed with defiles, woods, and ra-

vines, to oppose an obstinate resistance; and, what was of still greater importance, it kept all Grouchy's force from the point where it was so much wanted; and though the distance was only about twelve miles, it was, in the words of Ney, the same to the rest of the French army as if he "had been a hundred leagues from the field of battle."

In the mean time, the battle continued to rage on the heights of Mount St. John with as much fury as ever. The allied army remained firm at their post, without wavering for a moment, against every effort of overwhelming and furious numbers, led on by a skill which was of the first order, and by a spirit which neither relented nor melted at the sight of human suffering or blood. The carnage in both armies was dreadful; and the British soldiers, like their general, had made up their minds to die where they stood. At this time the fifth division was reduced from 6000 to 1800 men; and these, stationed in that part of the line against which the principal attacks were directed: the 92d regiment was reduced to less than 200 men. But Hougomont, with its gallant defenders, defied all the shells, balls, bayonets, and swords, of the French. Napoleon, however, and his army, were in a critical situation. As yet, indeed, he thought things went on well. He had succeeded in repulsing the Prussian troops under Bulow; and, thinking Grouchy was now near at hand to attack them in the rear, he determined to make one desperate effort against the left centre of the British army, near the farm of La Haye Sainte, and decide the day in his favour. For this purpose, he brought forward the reserve of his guards, amounting to about 15,000 men. These troops, the *élite* of his army, had always been considered invincible, and only brought forward to decide the fortune of such tremendous days and the fate of kingdoms.

4. Napoleon having formed his resolution, the guards prepared to advance to the attack. At the same moment, he dispatched instructions to every part of the line, that the movement, which was to decide the victory in his favour, was taking place, and commanding a simultaneous movement against the whole line of the British army. Every thing being now ready for the final attack, Napoleon addressed his guards, and told them, that by his previous attacks he had destroyed the greater part of the British cavalry and infantry, and that the artillery alone remained, which they were to attack with the bayonet. He then led them to the rise of the hill, and pointing to the causeway, exclaimed, "There, gentlemen, is the road to Brussels." The guards immediately raised a shout of *Vive l'Empereur*, which was distinctly heard by the British, and induced them to believe that the emperor himself was coming against them. Napoleon, however, ordered marshal Ney to head them. These veteran warriors, so long esteemed the first troops in Europe, advanced across the plain which divided the two armies, with a firmness which nothing could exceed; and, though the grape and cannister shot from the British artillery made dreadful havoc in their ranks, they were never disconcerted for a single moment. In their advance to the charge, the imperial guard rallied the broken and dispirited troops. The French army resumed its vigour, and the combat was renewed along the whole line. The artillery on both sides made a terrible carnage. Although the foreign troops in the British army acted with great resolution and much ardour, yet it was not to be expected that many of them, who as yet had never witnessed a contest of this kind, could stand against the flower of the French troops, led against them by consummate skill, and in formidable masses. Of this the duke of Wellington was well aware; and, therefore, he took the precaution to support each body of them by English infantry, all disposed in such a manner as to succour the point threatened.

The imperial guard continued to advance against the British line, under cover of the fire of their artillery. They charged a body of Brunswickers who attempted to arrest

arrest their progress, and drove them back with great slaughter. The moment was critical. The duke of Wellington, from the extraordinary loss of men, was obliged to bring up the last of his reserve, and to withdraw his artillery into the second position. Victory now hung in the balance in such a manner, that, to all appearance, a grain would have turned the scale. The British line had to sustain the most impetuous attacks from the French; and one time the victory appeared more than doubtful. The duke was aware of the importance of the moment. He rallied the Brunswick troops, and said, "My brave men, we must not be beat." He put himself at their head; and, charging the French, again restored the combat. The prince of Orange and the Belgian troops conducted themselves with the greatest gallantry, being in that part of the line which marshal Ney attacked in person. In this attack the prince was wounded by a ball in the shoulder, which obliged him to be removed from the field. The French troops, in some places, approached within forty paces, and in others within twenty yards, of the British artillery, which opened a dreadful fire upon them. The French, however, continued to fight with great resolution, notwithstanding the numbers which fell in their ranks at every fire, and which they closed up with the greatest coolness. The first brigade of guards, and a Dutch brigade, made a dreadful slaughter amongst them, and more than 300 fell at this point. The British 92d, although reduced to less than 200 men, charged a column of the imperial guards; and, being followed and supported by the Scotch greys, the whole was nearly cut to pieces. The carnage was dreadful. The imperial guard, however, once more advanced to the attack, covered by their artillery. As soon as they reached the ridge, the British foot-guards, who had lain on the ground for the purpose of avoiding the fire of the enemy's artillery, were now ordered to rise. The duke had watched their approach; and, when they were within a hundred yards of his men, he exclaimed, "Up, guards, and at them." They needed no second bidding. In an instant they sprang up, and rushed upon the attacking columns with the bayonet. This charge even the imperial guard could not stand against; and those undaunted troops, who, at one time, considered themselves the conquerors of the world, were obliged to give way. In this attack the British and French guards were, for the first time, fairly opposed to each other. The shock for a moment was dreadful. The French refused to take or give quarter, and the carnage was horrible; at last the whole of their ranks were broken, all discipline was at an end, and they began to give way in the utmost confusion. The tirailleurs of the imperial guard gallantly attempted to cover their retreat, and, for a short time, did considerable execution among the British; but, being charged by a body of cavalry, they fled in disorder.

Thus terminated the last dreadful effort of the French against the British line. In this attack the dead of the French guards, without exaggeration, lay in sections, men and horses together. From this moment the spirit of the French soldier was fairly broken; the cries of *Vive l'Empereur* were silenced; and Napoleon, with grief, beheld the field of battle covered with the bodies of his best troops, and on the exertions of whom were placed his firmest and his last reliance. Marshal Ney, who had witnessed many severe battles, declared that he had never witnessed such a scene of carnage as the field at this moment exhibited. To reanimate the troops, when leading them to the last attack, Bonaparte had recourse either to a direct falsehood, or else he must have been grievously and culpably ignorant of his situation. He caused to be circulated throughout the army that Grouchy had arrived, and was overwhelming the Prussian rear. "At seven in the evening," said Ney, "after the most dreadful carnage I ever witnessed, general Labedoyere came to me with a message from the emperor, that marshal Grouchy had arrived on our right, and was attacking the left of the united

English and Prussian army. This general (Labedoyere), continued he, circulated this intelligence to animate the troops."

5. While this last attack was going on against the British line, the whole of the fourth corps and a part of the second corps of the Prussian army, had successively come up, attacking, as they arrived, the right wing of the French with the greatest impetuosity. Marshal Blucher had also joined with the first corps. The head of this corps reached Ter la Haye soon after seven o'clock, and immediately attacked and drove the French from that place, and also from Pappelotte, and Frischermont, and completely opened the communication between the British army and the fourth corps, which had before been separated. At this extremity of the allied line were stationed the troops of Nassau, whose uniforms were so much like those of the French, that the Prussians mistook the former for the latter, attacked them with the utmost fury, and drove them from their post, before discovering their error. The Prussians, which had now arrived on the right of the French army, amounted to 40,000 men.

The duke of Wellington beheld with satisfaction the firm and determined advance of the Prussians against the right wing of the enemy, which was giving way every moment. The Prussian artillery formed one tremendous roar, from Ter la Haye to Planchenoit. "There goes old Blucher at last, and like himself," exclaimed the duke. With the eye of the eagle when in search of his prey, he now perceived that the victory was his. He saw Napoleon's laurels withering upon his brow; and, with his characteristic decision and energy, he seized that fortunate moment. He had particularly noticed the confusion in which the enemy had retired from his last attack, and also that the march of general Bulow by Frischermont upon Planchenoit and la Belle Alliance had begun to take effect. He immediately ordered the whole line of infantry, supported by the cavalry and artillery, to advance against the French. At the same time, he put himself at the head of the foot-guards; and having addressed a few words to them, to which they replied with a general *hurrah*, he led them on with his hat in his hand. The whole army advanced with the greatest intrepidity up the opposite heights, notwithstanding the fire of the French from 150 pieces of cannon. So impetuous and furious was this attack, that all idea of quarter, on either side, was for some time out of the question; and the contest thus became a perfect massacre. The French position was soon carried; and, their artillerymen having deserted their guns, the whole army fled in the utmost confusion. Entire columns threw down their arms and cartouch-boxes, in order to escape the better; and 150 pieces of cannon, with their ammunition, fell into the hands of the conquerors. What added to the confusion, the Prussian corps, under general Zeithen, with which marshal Blucher was, charged the right flank of the French, near the village of Smouhen, at the same time that the duke of Wellington attacked them in front. The right wing of the French army was broken in three places. The battle at this point was for a short time most sanguinary. Officers of all ranks exposed themselves like the meanest soldier. General Gneisenau, the chief of Blucher's staff, had first one horse killed by a cannon-ball, and then another twice wounded by musket-balls. His sabre was once beat out of the scabbard, and once shot to pieces.

Previous to the engagement on this day, Napoleon had taken along with him a farmer, of the name of Lacoste, as a guide, to point out to him the country. This man related, that, when Bonaparte saw the Prussian troops advancing, and supposing them to be the troops of Grouchy, he desired an officer to inform him whose columns these were that advanced towards the right? "Prussian," was the reply. A death-like paleness, for a moment, overspread his countenance; but he did not say a word.

Although the French army was now in one mass of confusion,

confusion, the means of retreat was not yet cut off. They still held the village of Planchenoit in their rear, with a part of the old guard in reserve. The Prussians advanced against them; and the ground for the attack was extremely favourable. It rose like an amphitheatre, so that the Prussian artillery could open from the summit of a great many heights, which rose gradually above each other. The old guard, however, stood firm to the last; but the place was at length stormed. The slaughter was dreadful; for the Prussians were so exasperated, that they neither gave nor fought quarter. From this moment the rout was general and complete; and the road soon became choked with fugitives, equipages, cannon, and wrecks of every description. The commanders, of all ranks, were separated from their corps, and hurried along with the multitude. In vain did Napoleon make an effort to rally his troops, by bringing up some battalions of the young and old guard, which had not yet been engaged; but it was useless. Intimidated by the confusion around them, overpowered by the recoiling friend and advancing foe, they soon yielded to the alarming torrent. Emperor, princes, generals, officers, and soldiers, fled in dismay, and in the utmost alarm and terror. The soldiers of the wagon-train cut the traces of their horses, the artillerymen fled from their guns, the officers of the highest rank were hurried away and lost in the crowd; and not a single battalion existed, behind which another could rally. Cavalry, infantry, and artillery, rushed pell-men upon each other, and became blended in one mass of confusion. The dragoons rode over the foot-soldiers, and trampled them to death. A complete panic had spread itself throughout the field of battle.

6. The cavalry and infantry of the allies pursued them rapidly; and for about five miles the ground was covered with the dead bodies of Frenchmen only. At the farm-house of La Belle Alliance the slaughter was prodigious. The French formed a battery of the garden-wall, by making holes through it. All the trees in the orchard were stripped by the bullets. Every house, and every hole, was found full of dead and dying Frenchmen. The duke of Wellington met marshal Blücher at the small public-house at this place, where they cordially embraced, and congratulated each other upon their glorious and decisive success. The British army having been warmly engaged for upwards of nine hours, and exhausted with fatigue and hunger, was now halted, the Prussian general promising to continue the pursuit during the night. Before halting, the British columns gave the flying enemy three cheers. If any thing had been wanting to raise the spirits of the duke of Wellington's army, or to exalt the glory of Britain, at this important moment, it was found in the conduct of the Prussians. In the pursuit, when they came in contact with the British columns, they made way for them to take the lead; and, when the British halted for the night, the Prussians, as they passed their bivouacks, stopped for a moment and played "God save the king." About half-past nine, Blücher assembled the whole of his superior officers, and gave orders for them to send every man and horse in pursuit. The van of the Prussian army accelerated its march; and the French army, being pursued without intermission, became absolutely disorganized. The Prussians, taking advantage of this dreadful confusion, attacked with their cavalry and heightened the disorder. Nature seemed to conspire for the destruction of the enemy. The weather had cleared up, and the night was beautiful and serene. The moon shone bright through the clear midsummer sky, and directed the march of the Prussians towards their enemies. The situation of the French army was indeed become deplorable. No words can paint their distress. From this moment their situation disarms all repentment, and awakens only pity. Their menacing aspect was gone; and their glory was set in blood. On all sides the roads, the fields, the woods, the streams, were covered with dead and dying Frenchmen. The officers that

escaped stated, that the horrors they experienced in their flight from Moscow were unequal to those which surrounded and accompanied them from Waterloo to the Sambre. The Prussian army, being comparatively fresh, continued to pursue them with the most unwearied perseverance. In vain they attempted to snatch one moment's repose. They were driven from nine bivouacks at the point of the sword. They then attempted to defend themselves in the villages or insulated houses; but they were immediately driven from them, cut down, or made prisoners; and hundreds were consumed in the flames of the barns set on fire in these conflicts. Not only on the high road, but for a hundred feet in breadth on each side of it, paths were made where every thing was beat down and covered with dead and wounded. The road was in many places blocked up by artillery; and the military waggons, endeavouring to escape, were in many places driven sixteen abreast on the causeway.

During this disastrous retreat Napoleon ran great danger of being taken prisoner. When the last battalions of the guard were overthrown, he was hurried away with them, surrounded on all sides by the troops of the allies, into a cider-orchard, near the farm of Caillou. There he was met by two cavaliers of the guard, who conducted him cautiously through the Prussian parties that were scouring the country; but who, fortunately for him, were all employed in plundering.

When the wreck of the French army arrived at Genappe, a part of the troops seemed resolved to halt for the night, and the entrance into the town was barricaded with broken waggons and gun-carriages, and a few guns were planted in the principal streets. Impressed with some idea of security, after these preparations, the houses were filled in a moment with the hungry and fatigued, in search of food and repose. They had not halted above half-an-hour when the advance of the Prussian cavalry was heard. The French for a short time, opened a brisk fire of musketry and artillery; but, the Prussians having brought up some cannon, the place was stormed, and a dreadful slaughter ensued. The French soldiers ceased resistance; and suffered themselves to be cut down like cattle. General Duhesme was cut down at the gate of an inn by a Brunswick hussar, who accompanied the stroke with these words; "The duke fell yesterday; and now thou also shalt bite the dust." The fury of the Brunswickers knew no bounds. Upwards of 800 French were killed in Genappe. From this point the flight, if possible, became more disorderly than ever: arms, knapsacks, every thing, was thrown away. Here Napoleon escaped with great difficulty. The waggons and baggage were so closely wedged together, that it took an hour and a half for him, and about 150 of his staff, to get through them. A German officer afterwards asked Lacoste, the guide we have mentioned, why he did not take Bonaparte by the bridge of Ways, where nobody passed; he replied, "I was not aware of that bridge." Thus, with all the maps of the war dépôt, with all the engineer geographers, who, with their repeating circles, can set off the geographical position of places even to a second, Napoleon, and with a large staff, here depended on the ignorance of a peasant, who did not know that there was a bridge over the Dyle at Ways. People talk a great deal of military skill and military science; while often, in the decisive moment, the whole depends upon the knowledge of a very common man.

So close were his pursuers, that, in escaping from his carriage, Napoleon was obliged to defend himself with his pistols; and scarcely had he quitted his seat, when the vehicle, with six beautiful horses which drew it, fell into the hand of the victors. So great was his haste to escape, that in it he left his hat, his sword, his magnificent embroidered state-mantle, and the perspective glass with which he surveyed the battle; all of which fell into the hands of Blücher himself. His seal-ring, all his jewels and equipage, fell into the hands of the Prussian soldiers.

All

All the orders with which he had been invested, and those which he usually wore, were also taken; amongst which was the Prussian order of the black eagle, with the motto, "Every man his own." His baggage, many fine Arabian horses, his library, were also taken; and, along with these, whole bales of revolutionary proclamations, addressed to the Belgians, ready dated on the 19th, from the palace of Lacken, near Brussels. Mounted on horseback, he left Genappe, and with his followers proceeded in the utmost haste to the frontiers.

From Genappe the Prussians continued to pursue the wrecks of his wretched army. It was continued till the next day was far advanced, the whole march "being but one continued chase, either in the corn-fields or the houses." The whole period was employed by the Prussians only in firing and cutting them down, for no resistance could be attempted. At every footstep, cannon, equipages, arms, and accoutrements, fell into their hands. Before daylight sixty pieces of cannon had been taken by the Prussians. "The causeway," said Blucher, "presented the appearance of an immense shipwreck; it was covered with an innumerable quantity of cannon, caissons, carriages, baggage, arms, and wrecks of every kind." About 40,000 men, partly without arms, and carrying with them only twenty-seven pieces of their numerous artillery, the remains of the whole army, and that in complete disorder, passed through Charleroy on the forenoon of the 19th. About five in the morning Napoleon, with about fifty companions, passed the Sambre at this place. Here he took some refreshment, the first for twenty-four hours. The Prussians advanced with unremitting ardour. The French army fled before them with increasing confusion. When they came to Charleroy, the crowd upon the bridge became so great, that Napoleon placed a company with fixed bayonets upon it, in order to stop the fugitives. The attempt was vain: this guard was overpowered, and then it was impossible to stop the torrent. The Prussians found nine cannon and a hundred caissons, abandoned by the French, in this place. Twenty-seven pieces only passed the bridge, and of these six pieces more were left between Charleroy and Sobre-le-Chateau. At Charleroy, Napoleon left the direction of his remaining troops to Soult; and, getting into a carriage, set out for Paris, taking the road by Rheims and Soissons.

The fugitives, having once effected their passage across the Sambre, thought they might venture to halt, and had established bivouacs in the meadows and orchards on its right bank, when an alarm was given that the Prussians were approaching: without waiting for any orders, without destroying the bridge, or even reconnoitring, they renewed their disorderly flight; the whole started at once, and every one provided for himself, without knowing whither to direct his steps. At a short distance from Charleroy there are two roads, one leading to Avesnes, and the other to Philippeville. No directions having been given to them, the fugitives divided themselves into two parties, the most numerous of which took the road by which they had before advanced, while the other took a direction towards the left, and marched on Philippeville. Numbers of stragglers, without any other design than that of avoiding the pursuit of the Prussians, threw themselves into the surrounding woods. Thus the army, became more and more dispersed, till at length scarcely 20,000 men remained, and a great part of these were without arms.

Meanwhile marshal Grouchy, ignorant of the fate of the rest of the army, still continued in the neighbourhood of Wavre. Early in the morning of the 19th, he was attacked in the position in which we left him, by Thielman; but, after a severe contest, he succeeded in compelling that general to abandon Wavre and the mill of Bielge, and to fall back upon the rest of the Prussian army. At the same time, Grouchy continued to advance; and had arrived in front of Rozierne, ready to march upon Brussels, when a French officer brought him the account of

the loss of the battle of Waterloo. He then found himself in a truly perilous situation; but after much difficulty, and some loss, he succeeded in effecting his escape from Wavre to Namur. Here he was attacked by the Prussians, and, after a severe conflict, compelled to abandon the place, and make the best of his way to Dinant, where he arrived on the 20th, with about 25,000 men, having thus lost in the various actions 10,000 men.

To the mismanagement of this general, still more than to that of Ney, we afterwards find Napoleon imputing the disastrous issue of the campaign; and he alleges that this officer might have pressed the Prussians much more closely on the 17th, and have marched on the next day as soon as they did to the field of battle at Waterloo. Grouchy published an explanation of his conduct; and the facts of the case are briefly these. After the loss of the battle of Ligny, the Prussians passed the night at a short distance from the field; and, beginning their retreat at an early hour, they arrived before the evening at Wavres, a small town situated fully sixteen miles from Ligny. Though they were not pursued by the French, this retrograde march was attended with much confusion; partly from the heavy rains, and partly from the multitude of men, horses, and carriages, that encumbered the roads. The French, however, having gained at Ligny nothing but the field of battle, and Bonaparte being eager to march his main body to the left against the English, Grouchy did not set out in pursuit of the Prussians until noon; by which time they were at the distance of eight or ten miles. Their numbers were so great as to mislead the inhabitants of the country, from whom the French sought information; and Grouchy, possessing little discrimination as to reports, instead of marching straight to Wavres, turned to Gembloux on his right, and was not apprised till six in the evening that he had mistaken the direction of the Prussian main body. At that hour his troops were taking rest and refreshment, and he committed a second fault in postponing their march till the next morning. The following day proved rainy, the roads were wretched, and, by a delay wholly at variance with the habits of the French or the plans of Bonaparte, the troops under Grouchy were not in motion till after nine o'clock; whereas the Prussians, as early as four o'clock, had detached Bulow from Wavres, in the direction of Waterloo. They also experienced inclement weather and miserable roads, being obliged to occupy more than ten hours in conveying their artillery a distance of ten miles. Some time afterward, a farther and more numerous body, led by Blucher, followed on the same road; a measure which, says Bonaparte, would never have been adopted, if Grouchy's army had been in fight and threatened an attack. To complete the disappointment, one of the officers dispatched by Bonaparte on the morning of the 18th, with notice of the approaching battle, did not reach Grouchy; who, learning only at four o'clock the urgency of the emperor for his aid, conceived that his best plan was to follow up the attack already begun on the Prussian force at Wavres, considering it as their main body, and having no idea that the latter had marched to Waterloo. Still, supposing Grouchy to have marched early, and to have reached the vicinity of Waterloo as soon as Blucher, the result would have been only that he might have covered the retreat of the French, who had already lost 20,000 men in the battle; and who would, even after the junction, have been considerably inferior to the allies.

The charges against Grouchy, made by the emperor at the time, are repeated in the "Historical Memoirs," written by himself, and published so lately as the year 1820. And these Memoirs, though composed after so long a period of retirement, contain no acknowledgment of past errors, nor any tribute to the generalship of his adversaries; but repeated assertions that, had not accidental causes prevented, his boldest schemes would have been crowned with success. He censures not only Grouchy, Ney, and

and Vandamme, but Blucher and Wellington; the latter of whom, in his opinion, committed a great imprudence in standing a general engagement at Waterloo. Had the weather been fair during the night, the French, we are told, would have begun the battle, and have decided it before the arrival of the Prussians: but, in the case of dry weather and good roads, the Prussian corps under Bulow would have reached the field of battle by eleven o'clock instead of four, and Blucher a few hours afterwards. Next as to the chance of support from Grouchy, can it be deemed probable that a force of 36,000 men would have been allowed to march across the country, without a corresponding movement on the part of the far greater army opposed to it by the Prussians? A campaign, said Frederic II. is little else than a series of mistakes: but the ex-emperor puts in the scale only those that operated against him, instead of admitting that the efforts of his opponents were enfeebled by similar causes. In fact, the truth comes out, indirectly and reluctantly, in the last page of this very work; where, in contradicting the well-known pamphlet given some years ago to the public under the name of *Manuscrit de Ste. Helène*, Bonaparte adds, "in other times the French would have gained the victory; which, indeed, the obstinate and unyielding bravery of the English troops alone prevented them from obtaining."

The loss of the French army, in the battle of Waterloo, (without including that of Grouchy at Wavre,) in killed, wounded, and prisoners, amounted to, at least, 60,000 men. Such a victory, however, could not be gained without great loss on the part of the allies. The loss of the British, Hanoverians, Belgians, &c. and Prussians, was little short of 30,000 on this important day. The field-of-battle on the next morning presented a most melancholy scene. About 40,000 dead, all of whom had been stripped naked, and perhaps the same number of wounded, whom, as yet, it had been impossible to remove lay crowded into a narrow space. Near 25,000 horses, dead or wounded, lay mixed with their former riders, and increased the horrors of the scene. It was not so much the ghastly wounds which had deprived them of life, which disfigured their mangled remains. But these had been farther trampled by the cavalry, crushed by the artillery, and torn to pieces by the continued showers of bullets, which the latter vomited forth over these positions. The number of dead upon the field-of-battle, said an eye-witness, could not be numbered. According to the most accurate accounts which can be procured, the total number burnt or buried in these fatal fields amounted to 40,000. For many days several thousand carriages, and many peasants from the surrounding countries, even as far as Mons, were employed in burning or burying the dead. The task was not only loathsome but dangerous; and the Prussians were absolutely forced to compel them at the point of the bayonet. To avoid infection from their corrupting remains, the peasants first dug large pits, and then, by means of hooks, dragged the bodies into them. The country, for several miles, presented the appearance of one continued grouse of hillocks, so thickly was its surface covered with large graves, in which hundreds of the bodies of men and horses were thrown together. In one acre of ground a beholder counted forty graves thus filled with dead. The weather having become dry after their burial, the wet mould, which had not been thrown over them to a sufficient depth, cracked from the heat, and, opening, showed in some places their ghastly remains. Notwithstanding the burning and the burying the dead, for several weeks after the battle the smell from their putrid carcases was insufferable, and a pestilential gale continued to be wafted over the surrounding country from this theatre of death. For many days the number of carrion-flies which fed on the dead bodies was dreadful, and most annoying to those who visited the spot. It is said that some soldiers absolutely

lost their reason from the remembrance of this dreadful scene.

The diameter of the principal part of this field of blood was about two miles, wherein every thing was totally destroyed. The dead were absolutely lying in ranks, and horses grouped in heaps with their riders. All the wells, and all the water in the neighbourhood, for many days after the battle, were red with blood, and became putrid from the number of dead bodies found in them. The churches in the surrounding villages were filled with dead and dying. Every village, every hamlet, all the ravines, corn-fields, and forests, were filled with wounded soldiers, who had crawled to these places for shelter, and whom, even when they were seen, it was for several days after found impossible to remove. It was as late as the Thursday following before all the wounded then discovered could be removed. "On the 21st," says one who visited the field-of-battle, "I saw in one grouse of wounded, thirty-six out of seventy-three who had lost an arm or a leg, besides flesh-wounds;" while the roads, even on the 25th, were covered with waggon-loads of wounded, shrieking with pain. On the morning after the battle, numbers of the wounded were seen raising themselves up amongst the heaps of dead, and imploring from the visitors, some a mouthful of water; others, that the beholders might put an end to their miseries. Every road, in every part of the country for thirty miles round, was full of wounded soldiers, wandering about in the extremes of agony and want. After a damp day on the 18th, the night became clear and chill, which had a fatal effect on the wounded. Thousands perished for want of timely medical aid. Many were found in cottages and obscure retreats, their bodies become half putrid from the severity of their wounds, yet still in life. Thousands were cut off in the extremes of hunger and distress. At the end of ten, twelve, and fifteen, days, there were found in bye corners, wounded men who had preserved life by gnawing the flesh from the dead bodies of their comrades, or of horses that chanced to be near them. Others, slightly wounded, were found several days after the battle, on the field, using the French cuirasses as frying-pans to dress their scanty meals. Even in the rear of the allied position, such scenes of distress were numerous. From Waterloo to Brussels, the road, for nine miles, was so choked up with scattered baggage, that the wounded could with difficulty be brought along. The way was lined with unhappy wretches who had crept from the field; and many, unable to proceed, lay down and died. Holes dug by the side of the road formed their graves, while their tattered garments and accoutrements covered the surrounding lands. In Brussels alone, more than 23,000 wounded were assembled, where they were treated with the utmost kindness and attention. The people, in crowds, went out to meet them with refreshments, bandages, &c. The principal families, and women of rank, supported them with every necessary, and frequently administered to their wants with their own hands. The treatment, however, of the French prisoners by the peasantry was different. They were treated with harshness; and these poor creatures now felt the severest want and neglect. By the British only were they treated with humanity.

Besides the loss of men, and all the best horses which Bonaparte had for cavalry, the French army lost above 300 pieces of cannon, 500 caissons, all their baggage, and almost all their arms. Such were the consequences, in part, of Napoleon's escape from Elba; and such the third page of that terrible sheet, on which, according to the *Moniteur*, in March preceding, "the emperor had just written the finest page of history, and to which the annals of the world afford no comparison." The present page indeed, in blood and its results, stands unparalleled in the annals of the world. The sheet of Napoleon's political life to which it belonged was nearly full. The last page

page alone remained. The consequences of Waterloo filled it!

That the French army, and their chief, fought with the greatest bravery, is a fact undeniable and just. The enthusiasm of the former was never more conspicuous than at Waterloo. The plans of their leader, to accomplish the object which he had in view, were skilfully laid; but, considering the abilities of his opponents, and his own peculiar situation, they were hazardous and dangerous. They were, however, all in character of the man, and also of the nation. But his faults, as a general, do not take away from the personal bravery of himself and his troops. All exposed themselves in the most resolute manner; and the prisoners said they never saw the emperor expose himself so much; that he seemed to court death, in order not to outlive a defeat fraught with such fatal consequences. The idle stories about his cowardice on this day deserve no attention. They are the tricks of some vain Frenchmen, who want to make it appear that their countrymen were defeated solely because their leader was unworthy of his troops. It would be doing an act of great injustice to those who conquered him, to give any credence to such stories. At Waterloo he was worthy of his troops. His vanity at the commencement of the battle, and despair at the end, made him expose himself more than he had done in any other action. He afterwards, indeed, forsook the troops, but not till they could face their foes no longer. The duke of Wellington did justice to Napoleon's courage, as well as to his judgment: "He fought the battle," said the duke in a private letter to his mother, "with infinite skill, perseverance, and bravery. Never was I in a harder-fought battle; never was I obliged to exert myself so much, and never was I so near being beaten."

Napoleon proceeded rapidly on his way to Paris, where he arrived about nine o'clock in the evening of the 20th. During his absence, the different parties into which the ministry and chambers were divided had not been idle; but, as long as he was at the head of the armies, they found it impossible to accomplish any thing prejudicial to his interests.

Fouche appeared to be at the head of one of the parties. Another party wished the duke of Orleans to be at the head of the government. A considerable number were attached to the principles of La Fayette, and desired a republican form of government. There were very few royalists in either chamber. The majority of the chambers, however, were only waiting to know the event of the campaign, in order to declare themselves. Napoleon, before he joined the army, had diligently watched the formation and designs of these parties, and had had several conferences with his brother Lucien and some friends, respecting the measures it would be advisable to adopt in case he should meet with any disasters in the field; but nothing was finally determined upon, although Lucien was of opinion, that, if the emperor was unfortunate, he should make use of his constitutional privilege and dissolve the chambers, and thereby deprive his enemies of the power of injuring him.

The inhabitants of Paris had passed two days in painful surmise and trembling expectation; but, in the afternoon of the 20th, it began to be whispered that affairs were not going on well, and that the army had sustained some terrible reverse. Every one hastened towards the Tuileries, anxiously inquiring what was the news. The most alarming reports were circulated, and the whole city was in the utmost confusion. Late in the evening, three carriages, covered with dust, entered the courts of the palace of the Elysée, and the gates were immediately closed behind them. The crowd pressed forward to see who were in them. General Drouet descended from the first, and, advancing to a friend that stood by, took him by the hand and said, "We are all lost!" The third carriage now drew up, in which was Napoleon. He alighted, and, rushing up the stairs, entered the apartments of the palace, without speaking a word, or looking at a single person.

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As he approached the door of the saloon he suddenly stopped, and casting a look of anguish on Drouet, exclaimed, "Dishonoured! disgraced!" He then threw himself on a sofa, and rising again he entered his cabinet. Having taken some refreshment, which was a little soup, he ordered his secretary, M. St. Didier, to write to the duke of Bassano (Maret,) and to the count Regnault de St. Jean d'Angeley, requiring their immediate presence. He again threw himself in his clothes on the sofa; and, ordering one of his pages to wake him as soon as the ministers arrived, fell asleep.

In the interval, an interesting interview took place between M. St. Didier and general Drouet, during which Drouet gave St. Didier the following particulars of the battle of Waterloo: "After the first advantages, at Charleroy, and the brilliant affair of Fleurus, we lost every thing, from two evident causes; to which a third might be added, which was more strongly felt, but not so well proved. The first of these causes is the inflexibility of the emperor, who, at the end of two days of victory, was desirous of astonishing the world, of giving confidence to France, and spreading consternation over Europe, by a third decisive triumph. This was a sublime but frantic project, which must necessarily enthrone the conqueror in the opinion of the world, or, if vanquished, lead him to a scaffold: a project which was seen into by the prudent Wellington, and which he disconcerted by leading on its heroic and extravagant author to the very gulf in which his power, his influence, and almost his very glory, were to expire. In reality, the third battle, which we call the battle of *Mont St. Jean*, from the name of the village which was the principal scene of action, and which the English will call the battle of *Waterloo*, from another village occupied by them; and the Prussians that of *La Belle Alliance*, from the name of a castle which was occupied as the head-quarters of Blucher;—this third action, after balancing the victory by turns, which made it (if I may use the expression) fly backward and forward from the French colours to those of the allies, from noon till eight in the evening, has demonstrated how the negative quality, patience, could disconcert the combinations of a rash and impetuous general. Here then is the second cause of our defeat. The prudent conqueror of Salamanca, of Toulouse, of Vittoria, by a manœuvre worthy his immortal genius (though it was purchased with the loss of some of his choicest troops,) constrained the fiery victor of the Pyramids, of Marengo, of Austerlitz, of Friedland, of Jena, to lower his humble laurels before those whom he had so often vanquished. I shall attribute the third cause of our defeat to intrigue, to corruption, to treason. These, united together, produced mistrust, misunderstanding, fear, and disorder. History will search into these sources, which I can but point out; but to which the allies (whose bravery I am nevertheless very ready to admit), and above all the private enemies and the personal competitor of Bonaparte, undoubtedly owe their success. Let them make haste to secure their triumph, and to make the best use of their victory; for the lion is not dead, but only wounded."

When the ministers arrived, and Napoleon awaked, the night was far advanced. As the secretary placed himself at the table, to take notes of the proceedings, Napoleon remarked his paleness and agitation. "What!" said he, "Drouet has been informing you of the affair. An evil which may be repaired is not a great one; and, even if it were irreparable, we should submit with becoming resignation. Sit down and write."

The bulletin of the battle of *Mont St. Jean* was now drawn up. Napoleon dictated the greater part of it, and then gave it to Regnault to correct. The emperor then paced the room with rapid strides, biting his nails, and taking snuff every moment. The correction of the bulletin was finished. Maret had a cold and reserved air; Regnault was more affected. He stood at the table, unconsciously drawing lines with his pencil on the bulletin

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which

which lay before him. Now and then he raised his eyes, and regarded Napoleon with a look of anxiety, pity, and affection. The emperor continued to pace the room with more rapid steps; at length he suddenly stopped. "Well! this bulletin?" he exclaimed. "Here it is corrected," answered the count. "Let us see," said the emperor.

Regnault began to read it. The emperor frequently interrupted him. "It was gained! It was gained! The victory was mine." When the bulletin was concluded, he added, with a sigh, "It is lost! and with it my glory." He continued; "Let the ministers be convoked forthwith. I wish the chambers to be made acquainted with every thing this very night."

Regnault now took his leave, but Maret remained with the emperor, who, notwithstanding his fatigue, gave audience to Cambaceres, Decrès, Caulincourt, and the two Carnots, who hastened to him as soon as they heard of his arrival, and eagerly proffered their services. Some of the ministers were of opinion that something should immediately be done, and, urged Napoleon to dissolve the chambers, and proclaim himself *dictator*. His brother Lucien insisted upon the measure, as he knew the parties would set themselves to work, the moment they heard of the extent of the disaster, to overturn the throne; but Napoleon would not consent. The danger of the chambers proceeding to extremities against him, and even depriving him of the crown, was hinted. To this he would not listen for a moment. He affirmed that the thing was impossible; and that they could not so soon forget the oath which they had taken to him. At all events, the truth should be fairly told them; he would put their fidelity and patriotism to the test, and he did not doubt that he should afterwards be able to foil any attempt which they might make against him.

In the mean time the chambers met. Anxiety and fear sat on every countenance. The funds sunk five per cent. M. de la Fayette, being made acquainted with what was agitating at the palace, repaired immediately to the chamber of representatives; and, the president having taken the chair, he mounted the tribune. "Gentlemen," said he, "for the first time, during many years, you hear a voice which the old friends of liberty may yet recognize. The country is in danger, and you alone can save it. The sinister reports which have been circulated during the last two days are unhappily confirmed. This is the moment to rally round the national colours; the tri-coloured standard of 1789; the standard of liberty, equality, and public order. It is you alone who can now protect the country from foreign attacks and internal dissensions. It is you alone who can secure the independence and the honour of France. Allow a veteran in the sacred cause of freedom, and a stranger to the spirit of faction, to submit to you some resolutions, which the dangers of the present crisis demand. I am assured that you will feel the necessity of adopting them:

"Art. 1. The chamber declares that the independence of the nation is menaced. 2. The chamber declares its sittings permanent: all attempts to dissolve it shall be considered high-treason. 3. The army of the line and the national-guards who have fought, and still fight, for the liberty, the independence, and the territory of France, have merited well of the country. 4. The minister of the interior is invited to assemble the principal officers of the Parisian national-guard in order to consult on the means of providing it with arms, and of completing this corps of citizens, whose tried patriotism and zeal offer a sure guarantee for the liberty, prosperity, and tranquillity, of the capital, and for the inviolability of the national representatives."

These propositions were adopted without delay. The resolutions were then transmitted to the house of peers, and directed to be circulated through all the departments.

In the house of peers, Carnot, the minister of the interior, appeared with a message from the emperor, informing them, "That upon his arrival the emperor had convoked

a council of ministers; that, after having destroyed the *élite* of the Prussian army at Fleurus, the army had fought a great battle, two days after, within four leagues of Brussels; that the allied army had been beaten throughout the day, and six English standards taken; that the day was *decided*, when, upon the approach of night, some disaffected persons spread an alarm, which the presence of his majesty could not recover; the consequences of which had been disasters which could not be arrested. That the army was assembling under the walls of Avesnes and Philippeville; and, in short, that his majesty had returned to Paris, to confer with his ministers, in order to supply the army with *materiel*, and to consult the chambers about what measures were necessary in the present emergency. At this moment, the message from the house of representatives was received, which was immediately read. Resolutions, similar to those voted in the other house, were immediately agreed to.

Thus terminated the meetings on the first day after the accounts of the battle of Waterloo had reached them. These, however, were only the public acts. In secret there were springs in motion which were to produce still more extraordinary and important deliberations and events.

Meanwhile, the citizens of Paris anxiously awaited the result of the impending struggle; and vast numbers assembled on the walls, on the quays, and on the Boulevards. The whole population of the suburbs was in motion, and a violent commotion was expected. The chambers, however, had taken the necessary precaution of assembling the national-guards, under general Durosnel, who immediately adopted measures for preventing any tumult in the capital.

We shall now return to the proceedings at the palace. Soon after the departure of count Regnault St. Jean d'Angle, Fouché arrived, and professed his deep regret at the events that had occurred, and his unshaken fidelity and affection. He tried to calm the agitation of the emperor; and assured him the evil was not irremediable. He asserted that the parties were tranquil, and meditated no design against his person or authority, and that he might confidently rely on their zealous co-operation in re-organizing the army and defending the country. Napoleon very much doubted these assertions of Fouché. He, however, appointed a meeting of the council at eight o'clock, when the state of the public feeling might be discussed, and the necessary measures adopted. It appears that the object of Fouché, in this business, was to gain time; and, to accomplish this, it was necessary to delude and impose upon his master, by a false report of the state of parties. Napoleon, however, had received a correct report of the proceedings of the different parties during his absence, and of their present intentions and strength, from an agent of the private police which he had himself established.

At eight o'clock the ministers again assembled in council. Napoleon having joined them, the question of the dictatorship was refused. Lucien said, it was the only means of averting from his brother the disgrace which his enemies were preparing, and would also save the country. This, however, was opposed by Fouché and Carnot. Regnault supported it, and Decrès and Davoust were inclined to the same opinion; but the resolutions of the chambers having now reached them, with a summons from the representatives, requiring the attendance of the ministers, the council broke up without coming to any determination.

In the evening, an extraordinary meeting took place at the palace, composed of the ministers holding departments; the ministers of state; the president, and four members, of the chamber of peers; the president, and four vice-presidents, of the representatives; the heads of the civil and military authorities of Paris, and some state-councillors, peers, representatives, and citizens, who were invited by Napoleon.

On the arrival of the emperor, who was attended by his brothers, all the assembly rose. He saluted them respectfully, after which the members re-seated themselves, and a profound silence succeeded. At length Napoleon attempted to speak. He was pale and agitated, and evidently laboured under much distress. At first he spoke in a low and almost unintelligible tone, and his sentences were imperfect and disjointed; but by degrees he became calm, and master of himself. He acknowledged the full extent of the disasters which the army had experienced, and confessed that he had now no resource but in the affection, fidelity, and zeal, of his people. He therefore intreated the advice of the assembly as to the measures which it was necessary to adopt.

Count Regnault then addressed the assembly in a long speech. He proposed the immediate recruiting of the armies. "The only conquest for which we fight (said he) is peace; but, in order that we may not be compelled to beg it on our knees, it is necessary that the number of our soldiers should correspond with their courage. A nation defeated, but which never will be utterly vanquished, should not present the reed of peace, but when leaning upon the massive club of war. I conclude with moving, 'That the chambers make an appeal to French valour, whilst the emperor is treating of peace in the most steady and dignified manner.'"

La Fayette next rose, and spoke as follows: "The last speaker has proposed that pacific overtures should be made to the allies; that, while an appeal is made to French valour, the emperor should treat for peace in the most dignified manner. But with what prospect of success will he, or can he, treat? Have not our enemies pledged themselves to a line of conduct, which, adopted when the issue of the contest was uncertain, and while all France appeared to have rallied round the emperor of their choice, will not be readily abandoned now that victory has crowned their efforts? Mingled sentiments of affection and respect prevent me from being more explicit. There is *but one measure* which can save the country; and, if the ministers of the emperor will not advise him to adopt it, his great soul will reveal it to him."

This speech was received with much disapprobation by those attached to the emperor, but was applauded by many of the opposite party. Napoleon received it with a smile of disdain.

The discussion continued several hours, during which count Lanjuinais and M. Constant supported the sentiments of M. La Fayette. At the close, Carnot, at the suggestion of Napoleon, addressed the assembly: he very earnestly deprecated violent measures; and, to conciliate all parties, he concluded with moving, "that the chambers should be invited to treat with the allied sovereigns, through an embassy of their own choosing; and that the ministers should propose a law for the raising of men and money." The assembly afterwards broke up, although no one appeared satisfied.

It is now necessary to return to the proceedings of the two chambers. After a night spent in suspense and fear, the members assembled early next morning, the 22d. Their deliberations were stormy and important. We can only give here a very brief recapitulation of their most prominent features.

M. Crochon thought measures necessary to procure means for supporting the war; while negotiations for obtaining peace should also be set on foot. He then proposed that the assembly should issue a declaration, stating that the "French nation renounced for ever all desire of conquest, and all offensive and ambitious war. She would never again take up arms but for the defence of her territory, to avenge the outrages committed against her dignity, or for the defence of an ally unjustly attacked." Crochon also proposed to declare, that five commissioners, two from the house of peers, and three from their body, should be sent to the allies to negotiate a peace.

On this proposition the order of the day was called for; when M. Duchesne came forward and said, that he could not see that these propositions could be attended with the desired effect; that they could expect no favourable issue to negotiations, as the allies had expressly declared that they would listen to no overtures while Napoleon was at their head. The president then declared that the assembly would soon receive from the emperor a message which would meet all its wishes.

M. Durbach said, "There is no middle course: we must proceed. We have only one resolution left, which is to engage the emperor, in the name and safety of the state, in the sacred name of a suffering country, *to declare his abdication.*" The motion is seconded! exclaimed several voices, amidst expressions of impatience. "Yes," said general Solignac, "we ought to consider the safety of the empire. I move that a deputation of five members be appointed to proceed to the emperor, which deputation shall express to his majesty the urgency of his decision." It was again stated, that a satisfactory message would soon be received from the emperor.

The sitting, after some difficulty, was suspended for an hour. Almost immediately after this, Davoust entered; and, the president having resumed his seat, the former communicated to them some advices from the army: such as, that 20,000 men must have been assembled at Avesnes, and that 5,000 more had been armed from some waggons which had been found on the road; that, on the 20th, Soult had rallied at Rocroy 2000 troops of the old guard, and some other detachments. That Grouchy, on the 18th, had beat the Prussian army, and had nearly 40,000 men with him. This force, said he, leaves 60,000 men on the line of the north; and he could immediately send 10,000 more, with 200 pieces of cannon. He called upon the chambers to adopt vigorous measures.

While these important deliberations were going on in the chambers, equally important were taking place at the Elysée palace, where Bonaparte was. He had passed a sorrowful night. His friends were in terror and consternation. His ministers consulted only their own safety, their own ambition, and desire of power. After the breaking up of the council on the preceding evening, these ministers remained at the palace, and many of them urged his voluntary abdication. They endeavoured to convince him of the impossibility of resisting the progress of the allied armies; and also of the determination of the allied sovereigns never to treat with him, or to sheath the sword while he continued on the throne. After reminding him of their former fidelity, &c. they stated that they had a sacred duty to their country to discharge, and were compelled no longer to conceal that he formed the only obstacle to the salvation and happiness of France. They describe the glory which would attach to a sacrifice so great and so noble. Notwithstanding a great many arguments of this sort that were adduced, Napoleon would not listen to the proposition. At length, after the whole night had passed in discussion, he promised that, if the negotiations of the chamber failed, he would make the sacrifice required.

He then retired to his cabinet, where he awaited, in the most anxious suspense, the proceedings of the chambers. During the day, some of his ministers and counsellors of state entered the apartment. At length, general Solignac, a member of the chamber of deputies, was announced. "Solignac!" exclaimed the emperor; "he has not spoken to me these five years; what can he want?" The ministers withdrew, and Solignac was immediately admitted. The meeting was of course entirely private; but we are able to quote the words in which the general afterwards stated the substance of the conversation. "I came to anticipate the positive vote of the chamber of representatives; I informed him, that the chamber had determined to exclude him from the throne; but it was wished to show regard for the army in proceedings concerning the person of its chief, whose authority the troops

troops had so long been accustomed to respect. There was also reason to fear that the decree of his forfeiture might be made the pretext of an insurrection; the capital might become the scene of serious troubles, and the country be involved in a civil war. It appeared necessary, therefore, in order to avoid these evils, that the abdication of Napoleon should proceed from himself, and be considered as a voluntary act of devotedness for the country. To obtain this object, I employed the means of persuasion which appeared to me best calculated for success. After an hour and a half's conversation, Napoleon at last yielded to my urgent recommendations. He appeared touched with the frankness and energy with which I spoke, while, at the same time, I preserved the respect which was due to his rank, and still more to his misfortunes. In a word, I left the emperor with the assurance that he would transmit his act of abdication; and I arrived at the chamber of representatives before the forfeiture, which was then under consideration, became the subject of positive decree."

The sitting, that had been suspended for one hour, being again resumed, and the chamber cleared of all strangers, except the officers wearing the uniform of the national-guards, Lanjuinais informed them that he had received from the emperor, by the duke of Otranto, an important document, which he read as follows:

"Frenchmen! In commencing war for maintaining the national independence, I relied on the union of all efforts, of all wills, and the concurrence of all the national authorities. I had reason to hope for success; and I braved all the declarations of the powers against me.

"Circumstances appear to me changed. I offer myself as a sacrifice to the hatred of the enemies of France. May they prove sincere in their declarations, that they really directed them only against my power! My political life is terminated; and I proclaim my son, under the title of Napoleon II. Emperor of the French.

"The present ministers will provisionally form the council of the government. The interest which I take in my son induces me to invite the chambers to form without delay, the regency by a law. Let all unite for the public safety, in order to remain an independent nation.

NAPOLEON."

The chamber of representatives immediately resolved, "1. That the president, with his bureaux, shall repair to Napoleon for the purpose of expressing to him, in the name of the nation, their acknowledgments, and the respect with which it accepts the noble sacrifice which he has made to the independence and the happiness of the French nation. 2. That there shall be named, without delay a commission of five members, of which three shall be chosen from the chamber of representatives, and two from the chamber of peers, for the purpose of exercising provisionally the functions of government; and that the ministers shall continue their respective functions under the authority of this commission."

These resolutions were immediately acted upon. 1. Napoleon (no longer emperor) received the deputation as graciously and as firmly as could be expected, and made a suitable reply. 2. The president having returned to the chamber, the members for the provisional government were then chosen; and the choice fell on Carnot, Fouché, and Grenier. The sitting, which had been declared permanent, was next day resumed at eleven o'clock, and the debate turned wholly upon the acknowledgment of Napoleon II.

One member moved the suspension of that discussion until they could be informed of the result of the negotiations.

General Duvernet insisted that the chambers should proclaim Napoleon II. as the sole means of encouraging the military.

M. Manuel replied, "Gentlemen, opinions are divided on the question which occupies our attention. Some think that it is necessary immediately to proclaim Napoleon II. others believe that political circumstances

require delay, and that the chamber ought not to explain itself till negotiations shall have acquainted us with our true interests. The powers who have already once declared that they will not treat either with Napoleon or with his family, will they consent to see his son reign? Such is the objection made. But, in thus publishing our fears before all Europe, in a discussion which may be regarded itself as a real calamity, have we not shown that they may require such a sacrifice? Is there need of enlarging on this point? I love to believe that in this assembly there is but one object—that of saving the country. But gentlemen, since this discussion has been opened, it is necessary, it is urgent upon us, to recognize Napoleon II. emperor. At the same time, it is fit that France should know the motives which influenced us in the nomination of the executive commission; and that, in composing it of wise and upright men, we intended to form a council of regency. If the foreign powers refuse to acknowledge Napoleon II. there will still be time to come to a determination; and no one will balance between one man and twenty millions of men."

This speech made a lively impression on the chamber, which immediately decided that the discussion was closed; and, according to the proposal of M. Manuel, passed to the order of the day on all the motions presented to them; the order of the day being grounded on this, that by the conditions of the abdication of his father, and by virtue of their constitutions, Napoleon II. was proclaimed emperor. As soon as this resolution was pronounced by the president, all the members rose up, crying, "Long live the emperor!" A deputation was then directed to proceed to the ex-emperor to inform him of this resolution; at the same time it was decreed, that the members of the provisional government should take an oath of obedience to the constitutions of the empire, and of fidelity to Napoleon II. Emperor of the French. This done, the chamber adjourned.

In the chamber of peers similar messages were received and dispatched, and similar measures took place. The house then proceeded to choose the two members for the provisional government, and the choice fell upon Caulincourt and Quinette. These two, with Grenier, Carnot, and Fouché, now formed the government that was to rule over and to save France. Of this conclave, Fouché was president.

The provisional government, being appointed, immediately commenced its functions. A decree was passed authorizing the government to procure, by means of requisitions, supplies for the army, and transports for the troops. Another decree was passed, calling out the remainder of the conscription of 160,000 men for 1815, decreed in 1813.

The next step was to name commissioners to treat for peace with the allies: the persons appointed were—General Sebastiani, the count de la Foret, M. de la Fayette, Benj. Constant, and Mons. d'Argenson. These gentlemen repaired to the head-quarters of the Prussian army, which was in advance of that of the duke of Wellington, and presented a note to marshal Blücher; explaining the object of their mission. The Prussian general refused to grant a suspension of arms; but, after much altercation, he gave them passports, which, having received, the commissioners proceeded immediately to the head-quarters of the allied sovereigns. In addition to the deputies sent to the allied armies to solicit peace, a messenger was dispatched to England; but he was ordered to return; and Mons. Otto, who was sent on a similar journey, was forced to remain at Boulogne for want of passports to proceed across the channel. It was generally supposed that his mission related to negotiations concerning the personal safety of Bonaparte, and to receive passports for him to proceed to America.

In the mean time, Wellington and Blücher were advancing with rapid strides towards Paris; and both armies entered the French territory on the 21st; the Prussians by Beaumont,

Beaumont, and the combined forces under Wellington by Bayay. The former advanced upon the road to St. Quentin, and the latter to Cambrai and Perouse.

The French army, under Soult, retreated on Laon in great confusion. The troops commanded by Grouchy, which had reached Dinant, retired in better order; but they were cut off from the wreck of the main army, and also from the direct road to Paris. Grouchy, therefore, was compelled to take the road to Rethel, whence he proceeded to Rheims; and, by forced marches, he endeavoured to force a junction with Soult, and thus reach the capital before the allies. The duke of Wellington proceeded rapidly into the heart of France; but, as there was no enemy in the field to oppose his progress, the fortresses alone demanded his attention.

The following order of the day was issued to the British army before they entered France. "As the army is going to enter the French territory, the troops of different nations, now under the command of field-marshal the duke of Wellington, are desired to remember, that their respective sovereigns are the allies of his majesty the king of France, and that France must therefore be considered as a friendly country. It is ordered, that nothing be taken either by the officers or soldiers without payment."

The regulations contained in the above order were strictly adhered to, which reflects the highest credit on the British army and their commander. The English soldiers, wherever they were quartered, paid the greatest respect to the inhabitants; and, every thing which was furnished them being punctually paid for, the French looked upon them rather as friends than as enemies. The conduct of the Prussians, on the other hand, was directly the reverse: their footsteps were every where marked with blood and rapine, and the most brutal behaviour towards the unfortunate inhabitants, whom they plundered of every thing they could lay their hands on, and then wantonly set fire to their habitations. These barbarians excited such a dread among the peasantry, that they deserted their villages, and fled into the woods, till at length the country looked like a complete desert.

From Beaumont, the Prussians advanced to Avesnes, which surrendered to them on the 21st. The French at first seemed determined to defend the place to the last extremity, and made considerable resistance; but a magazine having blown up, by which 400 men were destroyed, the rest of the garrison, which consisted chiefly of national guards, and amounting to 439 men, surrendered at discretion. The greatest excesses were committed by the Prussian soldiery, when they entered the town, which instead of being restrained was encouraged by the officers. The following letter will give the reader some idea of the manner in which this war was conducted by the Prussians.—"Sir, The fortrefs of Avesnes fell into our power this morning; and the garrison are prisoners of war. The officers are to be conducted to Wesel, and strictly guarded in the citadel; the soldiers are destined for Cologne, that they may be employed in working on the fortifications. All are to be treated with the necessary severity. BLUCHER."

The duke of Wellington, on his arrival at Malplaquet, the scene of one of Marlborough's victories, issued a proclamation to the French people, in which he referred to the order of the day addressed to his army, as containing an explanation of the principles by which his conduct would be guided. It is as follows: "I announce to the French that I enter their territory at the head of an army, already victorious, not as an enemy, (*except of the usurper, the enemy of the human race, with whom there can be neither peace nor truce,*) but to aid them to shake off the iron yoke by which they are oppressed. I therefore give to my army the subjoined orders, and I desire that every one who violates them may be made known to me.

"The French know, however, that I have a right to require that they conduct themselves in such a manner that I may be able to protect them against those who

would seek to do them evil. They must, then, furnish the requisitions that will be made them by persons authorized to make them, taking receipts in due form and order; and they must remain quietly at their homes, and have no correspondence or communication with the usurper or with his adherents. All those who shall absent themselves from their homes after the entrance of the army into France, and all those who shall be absent in the service of the usurper, shall be considered as enemies and his adherents, and their property shall be appropriated to the subsistence of the army. WELLINGTON."

On the 24th, sir Charles Colville took the town of Cambrai by escalade, the governor retiring into the citadel, which he afterwards surrendered on the 25th, when it was given up to the order of Louis XVIII. St. Quentin was abandoned by the French, and was occupied by Blucher: and, on the evening of the 24th, the castle of Guise surrendered to the Prussian arms. On the 27th, Quesnoy surrendered to the prince Frederic of Orange: the garrison, which amounted to 2800 men, chiefly national guards, obtained liberty to retire to their homes. On the 26th, Peronne was stormed by the British troops; the garrison obtaining leave to retire to their homes. On the 28th, the Prussians, under Blucher, were at Cresly, Senlis, and La Fere Millon; and, on the 29th, their advanced-guards were at St. Denis and Gonaillé. The resistance experienced by the British army at Cambrai and Peronne, detained them one day behind the Prussian army; but forced marches enabled them to overtake it in the neighbourhood of Paris.

In the mean time, Soult was displaced from the chief command of the army, which was conferred on Grouchy. The reason of this remarkable step, according to Soult, was because the provisional government suspected his fidelity. This was very likely the true reason; or they could scarcely at this moment have dismissed a man confessedly superior to his successor, in point of abilities. The rapid advance of the allied armies caused Grouchy to redouble his speed to reach Paris before them. This he effected, after considerable loss, particularly on the 28th, at Villers Cotterets, where he fell in with the left wing of the Prussian army, and afterwards with the division under Bulow, which drove him across the Marne, with the loss of six pieces of cannon and 1500 prisoners. Grouchy fairly acknowledged, that his troops would not fight, and that numbers deserted. In fact, though the French army was daily receiving reinforcements from the towns and depôts in its route, and also from the interior, the desertion from it was so great, that its number was little if any thing at all augmented. With the remainder, however, Grouchy succeeded in throwing himself into Paris, where he joined the wreck of the main army, the whole consisting of about 40 or 50,000 troops of the line, the wretched remains of 150,000 men, which fought at Quatre Bras and Waterloo. To these, however, were to be added the national guards, a new levy called *les tirailleurs de la garde*, and the *fédérés*: according to Bonaparte's portfolio, found at Waterloo, these latter amounted to 14,000 men. All together, these forces were at least 40,000 more. Paris was, therefore, still formidable, and capable of much resistance.

Meanwhile, the duke of Wellington continued his operations with unabating activity. As the armies approached the capital, Fouché, president of the government, wrote the following letter to the British commander, supplicating him to arrest the progress of war. "My Lord, You have just illustrated your name by new victories over the French. It is you especially who can appreciate the French nation. In the council of sovereigns united to fix the destinies of Europe, your influence and your credit cannot be less than your glory. Your law of nations has always been justice, and your conscience has always been the guide of your policy. The French nation wishes to live under a monarch, but it wishes that that monarch should live under the empire of laws. The re-

public made us acquainted with the extreme of liberty; the empire, with the extreme of despotism. Our wish now (and it is immoveable) is to keep at an equal distance from both these extremes. All eyes are now fixed upon England: we do not claim to be more free than she; we do not wish to be less so. The representatives of the nation are incessantly employed on a social compact of which the component powers, separated, but not divided, all contribute, by their reciprocal action, to harmony and unity. From the moment this compact shall be signed by the prince called to reign over us, the sovereign shall receive the sceptre and the crown from the hands of the nation. In the existing state of Europe, one of the greatest calamities is hostility between France and England. No man, my lord, has it more in his power than yourself to replace Europe under a better influence, and in a finer position. Paris, June 27, 1815. FOUCHÉ."

This letter, as may well be supposed, met with no attention whatever; and the allied armies drew nearer and nearer to the city. Their approach had been concealed as long as possible. Reports had been industriously spread of plenipotentiaries, suspension of arms, the defection of Austria from the other coalesced powers, and of the arrival of a considerable part of the grand army in good order. But the reign of subterfuge and deception was at an end. The answer to all the eloquent declarations of the Bonapartists was the arrival of crowds of flying peasantry, seeking refuge within the walls of the capital. The fugitives, however, were fewer in number than on the same occasion last year. The country people had learnt that the invading army was that of the English, and they had heard that the English troops are an exception to the general practice of plunder and devastation; that they never ill-treated the inhabitants; that they paid liberally for what they wanted, and cared for the little children. The excellent reputation they had acquired last year in the south had flown over France to the north: and it was well known that, wherever the English passed, the unarmed inhabitant had nothing to fear.

What a singular picture did that part of the Boulevard present, where the fugitives arrived! The passage of the Porte St. Martin was almost entirely obstructed by the crowd of Parisians, mingled with the peasantry, and their cortège of wearied animals. On one side of the Boulevard the people were struggling for admission to the celebrated new piece of the *Pie Volante*, the Thieving Magpie. On the other, a little black horse dragged along the cart, or ambulant shop, which ever since the departure of Louis XVIII. had been established there for the sale of Carnot's famous pamphlet on Regicide; once sold at six francs, and now offered to the public at the moderate and reduced price of twelve sous. Farther on, a portion of the remains of the imperial guard were marching along, thundering out *Vive l'Empereur!* and one of them striking with his sabre a poor old man, who had the imprudence to articulate, in a feeble voice, *Mes amis, criez Vive le Roi!* Five or six persons on this day fell the victims of this forbidden exclamation, by the hands of those Pretorian bands. The small number of them that survived the battle of Waterloo had returned with rage at their defeat, and despair at the abdication of their chief.

Bonaparte, after several disagreeable altercations with some of his late ministers, now become his masters, withdrew from Paris to Malmaison. His continuance at Paris had begun to excite considerable alarm. These apprehensions had been increased by the daily entrance of corps of regular troops into the capital, with the accustomed cries of *Vive l'Empereur!* and of whose concurrence Bonaparte was assured, whenever he might think it expedient to exert his imperial energies. Rumours of menacing tendency were spread abroad; the means of evil were still in Napoleon's power, and he would not neglect the occasion. The provisional government, who were too highly interested in his movements not to watch them with an attentive eye, invited him, in terms

that could not be misunderstood, to withdraw from Paris.

Between the signature of the abdication and his departure for the coast, a week elapsed; during which, though retired from public functions, and living at Malmaison, he kept an anxious eye on the proceedings of the chambers, who had now commenced negotiations with Blücher and Wellington. Among other projects, Napoleon revolved that of proceeding to England, and declaring that he came to take up his residence among us as a private individual: he next decided on attempting to escape to the United States; for which purpose two frigates were placed at his disposal by the provisional government. The latter, however, dreading an attack on his part for the resumption of power, withdrew most of the officers who were with him, and appointed a general of their own, Becker, to attend his person. Still he lingered at Malmaison; and, on the approach of the Prussian vanguard, the sound of the cannon seemed to revive his military energy: he discovered that the advance of the enemy was unsupported, and pledged himself, if placed for only a few days at the head of the army, to chastise their rashness. But the provisional government was inflexible; and he departed at last for Rochefort, but not till the 29th of June.

He had previously dispatched a farewell letter to the French army under the walls of Paris, dated from Malmaison, the 25th of June, 1815. This letter was addressed to the heroes of the army; and no doubt the lowest drummer fancied he saw his own name on the direction.

Napoleon to the brave Soldiers of the Army before Paris.

Soldiers! While obeying the necessity which removes me from the brave French army, I carry with me the happy certainty that it will justify, by the eminent services which the country expects from it, the praises which our enemies themselves have not been able to refuse it.

Soldiers! I shall follow your steps, though absent. I know all the corps; and not one of them will obtain a single advantage over the enemy but I shall give it credit for the courage it shall have displayed. Both you and I have been calumniated. Men, very unfit to appreciate our labours, have seen, in the marks of attachment which you have given me, a zeal of which I was the sole object. Let your future successes tell them that it was the country, above all things, which you served by obeying me; and that, if I have any share in your affection, I owe it to my ardent love for France, our common mother.

Soldiers! Some efforts more, and the coalition is dissolved. Napoleon will recognize you by the blows which you are going to strike. Save the honour, the independence, of the French. Be to the last the same men that I have known you for these last twenty years, and you will be invincible.

NAPOLEON.

This letter of adieu was distributed to the army. It intimated absence; but the absent might return, of which himself was the proof. That he would return, they believed firmly; and, had his death been announced; they would probably have expected his resurrection. Even the belief of his absence was by no means general; it was imagined that he was lurking in some shape or other in their ranks, and that he would stand up in his own, whenever the great day of general contest should take place.

The first attack made by the allied armies was to the north of Paris; at three in the morning on the 30th of June the first cannon was fired from the heights of Belleville. The Butte of Chaumont on the right, and the heights of Montmartre on the left, presented their formidable artillery, which was at that moment pouring forth its horrible contents; while, at intervals of silence, the note of earliest birds floated along the air, and seemed to reproach mankind for this disturbance of nature. The attack was chiefly confined to mucketry, and slackened very sensibly at six in the morning. Notwithstanding the fortifications on the heights, the city might have been entered on this side, but the slaughter must have been excessive;

cessive; and the duke of Wellington, who knew well the ground around Paris, made himself master of the best positions; and, no longer attempting an entrance on the north, the allied army drew off by the river, towards Neuilly and St. Germain.

Miss Helen-Maria Williams, who was in Paris at this moment, gives a very curious account of the characteristic levity of the inhabitants under such circumstances of alarm.

"The musketry, which had continued in the plain of St. Denis, ceased altogether at about three in the afternoon. I then went on the Boulevards; all the gay shops that enliven that brilliant walk were closely shut up, and what sinister presages might be read in every visage of the crowd! On examining the hostile passions portrayed in every countenance, it seemed as if the assembled multitudes waited only the signal for civil war. We appeared to be treading on a mine ready to receive the spark of explosion. At length, however, the report was generally circulated, that the allies were about to turn the siege into a blockade; that we had nothing to fear from pillage, and that we should only be starved. The arrival, however, of the accustomed provisions the next day, through the midst of the enemy's camp, led the Parisians to apply to Wellington the well-known trait of Henry the Fourth, when he besieged Paris.

"On the 1st of July, the scene on the Boulevards was quite changed since that of yesterday. The Parisians expected that the enemy would have entered on the first attack; and they were tired of the delay. They heard the cannon at intervals during twenty-four hours; yesterday this was a novelty; but to-day they felt as if accustomed to be besieged, and returned to their usual avocations and pleasures. Yesterday the theatres were shut, which was indeed a striking signal of distress in Paris; to-day, though the great theatres were closed, the Thievish Magpie resumed his triumph at the theatre of the Porte St. Martin; and that of La Gaîté prepared for the public amusement the Bombardment of Algiers, a melodrame fitted to fill up the interval of the great melodrama of national events.

"In the evening the Italian Boulevard was crowded, as usual, with the gay tribes, who, seated on double rows of chairs, with an interval for the walkers, pass the latter part of their summer evenings inhaling the dust in good company. This evening the walk, as usual, had its itinerant band of music, its ices in the adjoining cafés, and all its accustomed attractions. These amusements were occasionally varied by the march of troops, the beating to arms, the swift pace of couriers, the sound of cannon at intervals; and sometimes all gayety was suspended (though but for a moment) by the sad spectacle of the wounded victims of those skirmishes, writhing in agony, and covered with blood."

The provisional government also continued labouring in its vocation: it was earnestly occupied in fabricating another new constitution, which was to be offered to the acceptance of whoever should take the sovereign authority; and this was the standing business, or order of the day. It may be amusing, however, to notice some of the proceedings of the chambers, certain members of which now began to lower their tone, and some of the most violent to recall their words. They were aware that the abdication of Napoleon was the return of the Bourbons; and, therefore, they prepared to make their peace with them. Of these, M. Durbach was the foremost. In the sitting of the 1st of July, he begged to correct a typographical error which had crept into his speech of the preceding day, but now printed, and distributed among them. "In that speech," said he, "I am made to have said—I need not retrace to you the picture of the crimes, faults, pretensions, perfidies of that ephemeral reign." (of Louis XVIII.) The word *crimes*, continued he, should be rectified; and has been done by writing in a certain number of copies distributed. "I observed," said he, "the proceedings of the royal govern-

ment: I have recognized its faults, its *errors*, and the abuses which it brought along with it; but I never made use of the expression which appeared in print." M. Dupin also endeavoured to correct an error which had taken place in printing his speech. In the copy of the law proposed to secure the public safety, the paragraph had been omitted "which ordains that the motives of arrest should be communicated to the accused." In truth M. Dupin did not think this a very material point, or necessary at the time; but, as he was not sure but his turn might come soon, he wanted to be prepared to get all justice. The march of Wellington and Blücher did wonders; they corrected many errors both in print and manuscript.

It is now necessary to turn our attention to the proceedings of Louis XVIII. Immediately after the battle of Waterloo, on the invitation of the duke of Wellington, he left Ghent, accompanied by other members of his family, and by Talleyrand, Marmont, Clarke, and other attendants, and advanced into France, in the rear of the British army. It is said, that some of his ministers advised him to remain at Ghent, till he was recalled by the nation; and not to sanction, by his presence, the calamities which the allied armies must necessarily inflict upon his people. "Let it appear," said they, "that the war is carried on between the coalesced sovereigns and the adherents of Bonaparte, and not between the king of France and his subjects. The allies are sufficiently strong to overcome all your enemies; and your presence, while it could add little to their numerical force, would impede their operations, throw suspicion on the sincerity of their professions, and raise against them an unnecessary and murderous opposition. Your unwillingness to appear while the blood of Frenchmen continues to flow, will be attributed to an amiable and honourable feeling, and will make a favourable impression on the minds of your subjects. But, were you to advance in conjunction with the allies, it would show that you are determined to be king again, whether they will have it so or not. You have friends enough among the allies, and secret friends enough at Paris, to take care of your interests there; while you will have the merit of being recalled by the affection and fidelity of your subjects, and not forced upon them by the bayonets of foreigners."

This advice, however, did not please the princes of his family. The conduct of these princes had done no good to the cause of Louis during his former reign, and it was not likely they would be of any great advantage to him at the present moment; but, as they were anxious to return to power, they opposed the advice of the ministers. After deliberating two days upon the policy of entering France with the allies, Louis at length acceded to the wishes of his family, on receiving the duke of Wellington's invitation. He quitted Ghent on the 22d of June, and on the next day arrived at Mons. On the 24th, he set out for Chateau-Cambresis, and from thence proceeded to Cambay, where he was received with every mark of respect. On the 28th, he addressed the following proclamation to the French nation, for the purpose of informing them of his future intentions:

THE KING TO THE FRENCH PEOPLE.

The gates of my kingdom at last open before me; I hasten to bring back my misled subjects, to mitigate the calamities which I had wished to prevent, to place myself a second time between the allied and the French armies, in the hope that the feelings of consideration of which I may be the object, may tend to their preservation. This is the only way in which I have wished to take part in the war. I have not permitted any prince of my family to appear in foreign ranks, and have chained in the courage of those of my servants who had been able to range themselves around me.

Returned to the soil of my country, I take pleasure in speaking confidence to my people. When I first re-appeared among you, I found men's minds agitated and heated by conflicting passions. My views encountered on

every

every side nothing but difficulties and obstacles. My government was liable to commit errors: perhaps it did commit them. There are times when the purest intentions are insufficient to direct, or sometimes they even mislead.

My subjects have learned, by cruel trials, that *the principle of the legitimacy of sovereigns is one of the fundamental bases of social order; the only one upon which, amidst a great nation, a wise and well ordered liberty can be established. This doctrine has just been proclaimed as that of all Europe.*

In these latter times, my subjects of all classes have given me equal proofs of love and fidelity. I wish them to know how sensibly I feel them, and that it is from among all Frenchmen I shall delight to choose those who are to approach my person and my family. I wish to exclude from my presence none but those whose celebrity is matter of grief to France, and of horror to Europe. In the plot which they hatched, I perceive many of my subjects misled, and some guilty.

I promise—I who never promised in vain (all Europe knows it)—to pardon to misled Frenchmen all that has passed since the day when I quitted Lille, amidst so many tears, up to the day when I re-entered Cambray, amidst so many acclamations. But the blood of my people has flowed, in consequence of a treason of which the annals of the world present no example. That treason has summoned foreigners into the heart of France. Every day reveals to me a new disaster. I owe it, then, to the dignity of my crown, to the interest of my people, to the repose of Europe, to except from pardon the instigators and authors of this horrible plot. They shall be designated to the vengeance of the laws by the two chambers, which I propose forthwith to assemble.

Given at Cambray, this 28th of June, in the year of our Lord 1815, and of our reign the twenty-first. LOUIS.

From Cambray the king proceeded towards the capital, and on the 7th of July he arrived at St. Denis, where for the present we shall leave him.

Meanwhile the allied armies continued to invest Paris, which had been strongly fortified on the north side. From the Seine, above the city, along the heights of Belleville, by Montmartre, and to St. Denis, the fortifications were one continued chain. To have forced them would have cost many valuable lives, and probably have occasioned the total ruin of the city. The provisional government neglected no possible means of averting the threatened danger; and repeated overtures were in vain made to Wellington and Blucher to procure an armistice. Davoust, prince of Eckmühl, the commander-in-chief of the army, determined to make another effort, and accordingly he sent a letter to the duke of Wellington; of which the following are the chief passages.

"My Lord, Your hostile movements continue, although, according to their declarations, the motives of the war which the allied sovereigns make upon us no longer exist, since the emperor Napoleon has abdicated. At the moment when blood is again on the point of flowing, I receive from Marshal Suchet, duke of Albufera [whose army was opposed to the Austrian general Frimont], a telegraphic dispatch, of which I transmit you a copy. My lord, I guarantee this armistice on my honour. All the reasons you might have had to continue hostilities are destroyed, because you can have no other instruction from your government than that which the Austrian generals had from theirs. June 30, 1815."

A similar letter was sent to Blucher, to which he replied, "That the French marshal was wrong in supposing all cause of war removed, as the abdication of Napoleon was only in favour of his son; and that he must know the declaration of the allies excluded from the throne not only Napoleon, but all the members of his family. General Frimont's conduct, he said, was no rule to guide theirs; that they would certainly follow up their victory, which God had given them the means and the will to

do." He desired Davoust to beware how he brought ruin upon a great city; and asked him if he wished to bring down on himself the curses of Paris, as he had those of Hamburg. They were resolved to enter Paris; and no armistice could be concluded except in that place. He concluded his answer by saying, "according to the usual forms of established civility, I have the honour to call myself, M. Marshal, your servant, BLUCHER."

The same day Davoust, Pajol, d'Erion, Freminet, Vandamme, and about twelve other generals, commanding the troops in the lines before Paris, addressed a letter to the house of representatives, which we shall subjoin. "Representatives of the People; We are in presence of our enemies; we swear before you and the world to defend, to our last breath, the cause of our independence and the national honour. It is wished to impose the Bourbons upon us, and these princes are rejected by the immense majority of Frenchmen. There are in war, especially when it has been long conducted, successes and reverses. In our successes we have been seen great and generous; in our reverses, if it is wished to humiliate us, we shall know how to die. The Bourbons present no guarantee to the nation. We received them with sentiments of the most generous confidence; we forgot all the calamities they had caused us, in wishing to deprive us of our most sacred rights. What reply did they make to this confidence? they treated us as rebels and vanquished. Representatives, these reflections are terrible, because they are true. Inexorable history will one day relate what the Bourbons did to replace themselves on the throne of France; it will also tell the conduct of the army, of that army essentially national, and posterity will judge which best deserved the esteem of the world." The liveliest applauses succeeded to the reading of the above letter, which was ordered to be printed and sent to the armies.

But Wellington and Blucher continued their operations; and on the very same day had recourse to a movement which proved decisive of the fate of Paris. Marshal Blucher, having taken the village of Aubervilliers, made a movement to the right, and, crossing the Seine at St. Germain, below the capital, threw his whole force upon the south side of the city, where no preparations had been made to receive an enemy. On the morning of the 2d of July he had his right at Pliesse Pique, and his left at Meudon, with his reserve at Versailles. Carnot blames Bonaparte for not fortifying Paris on that side, and says he forewarned him of the danger. The French were thus obliged to abandon the works they had constructed for the defence of the capital, and cross the Seine to meet Blucher. The contest was obstinate; but the Prussians finally surmounted all difficulties, and succeeded in establishing themselves firmly upon the heights of Meudon and in the village of Issy. The French loss, on this day, was estimated at 3000 men. Next morning, by three o'clock, the Prussians were attacked in their positions already mentioned, but the French were repulsed with much loss.

In the mean time the allied army, under Wellington, had advanced to Gonaiffe. The right immediately threw a bridge over the Seine at Argenteuil, crossed that river, and opened the communication with Blucher, while another part of the army advanced upon the city, from the east, by Neuilly. All further resistance, it was now obvious, would prove unavailing. Paris lay at the mercy of the allies. In this state of things, a special commission was directed to proceed to the English and Prussian generals, and treat for the surrender of the city. Commissioners having been appointed by Wellington and Blucher, both parties met at St. Cloud. The conference was carried on in the palace of Bonaparte, and in the chamber in which he held his councils of state. The result was the following Convention, for the surrender of Paris, and a suspension of arms.

"This day, the 3d of July, 1815, the commissioners named

named by the commanders-in-chief of the respective armies, that is to say, the Baron Bignon, holding the portefeuille of foreign affairs; the Count Guilleminot, chief of the general staff of the French army; the Count de Bondy, prefect of the department of the Seine; being furnished with the full powers of his excellency Marshal Davoust, Prince of Eckmühl, commander-in-chief of the French army, on one side; and Major-general Baron Muffling, furnished with the full powers of his highness the field-marshal Prince Blucher, commander-in-chief of the Prussian army; Colonel Harvey, furnished with the full powers of his excellency the Duke of Wellington, commander-in-chief of the English army, on the other side; have agreed to the following articles:

1. There shall be a suspension of arms between the allied armies commanded by the Prince Blucher, and his excellency the Duke of Wellington, and the French army under the walls of Paris.

2. The French army shall put itself in march to-morrow to take up its position behind the Loire. Paris shall be completely evacuated in three days, and the movement behind the Loire shall be effected within eight days.

3. The French army shall take with it all its materiel, field-artillery, military-chest, horses, and property of regiments, without exception.

6. The wives and children of all individuals belonging to the French army shall be at liberty to remain in Paris. The wives shall be allowed to quit Paris for the purpose of rejoining the army, and to carry with them their property, and that of their husbands.

8. To-morrow, the 4th of July, at mid-day, St. Denis, St. Ouen, Clichy, and Neuilly, shall be given up. The day after to-morrow, the 5th, at the same hour, Montmartre shall be given up. The third day, the 6th, all the barriers shall be given up.

9. The duty of the city of Paris shall continue to be done by the national guard, and by the corps of the municipal gens d'armes.

11. Public property, with the exception of that which relates to war, whether it belongs to the government, or depends upon the municipal authority, shall be respected; and the allied powers will not interfere in any manner with its administration and management.

12. Private persons and property shall be equally respected. The inhabitants, and in general all individuals who shall be in the capital, shall continue to enjoy their rights and liberties, *without being disturbed or called to account, either as to the situations which they hold, or may have held, or as to their conduct or political opinions.*

16. The present convention is declared common to all the allied armies, provided it be ratified by the powers on which these armies are dependant.

17. The ratifications shall be exchanged to-morrow, the 4th of July, at six o'clock in the morning, at the bridge of Neuilly.

18. Commissioners shall be named by the respective parties, in order to watch over the execution of the present convention.

Done and signed at St. Cloud, in triplicate, by the commissioners above-named, the day and year before-mentioned.

The Baron BIGNON.

Count GUILLEMINOT.

Count de BONDY.

The Baron de MUFFLING.

F. B. HERVEY, Colonel.

"Approved and ratified the present suspension of arms, at Paris, the third of July, 1815.

DAVOUST, Prince d'Eckmühl."

Notwithstanding the surrender of Paris, and the actual entrance of the Anglo-Prussian armies into the city, the two chambers continued their sittings. The approach of Louis the Eighteenth, whose return to the throne they were sagacious enough to see could not be prevented, appeared to them to require increased diligence, in order to complete in all haste, and before he arrived, the new con-

stitution, expressing the national will, and restraining the hands of absolute power. It was also deemed an act consonant with the majesty of the national representation to issue a solemn declaration, protesting, in anticipation, against any eventual infringement of the French liberties on the part of the allied sovereigns; and against receiving any sovereign, unless he subscribed to some guarantee against exercising arbitrary power. Even the arrival of the king at St. Denis did not disconcert these legislators; they repaired only the earlier in the morning to the hall of assembly; and had very nearly completed this new constitution, (the provisions of which we need not quote, since, like Bonaparte's acte additionel, it was not brought into effect,) when, on the 7th, the chamber received from the provisional government the following message: "M. President, Hitherto we had believed that the intentions of the allied sovereigns were not unanimous upon the choice of the prince who is in France. Our plenipotentiaries gave us the same assurances upon their return. However the ministers and generals of the allied powers declared yesterday, in the conferences they had with the president of the commission, that all the sovereigns had engaged to replace Louis XVIII. upon the throne, and that he is to make, this evening or to-morrow, his entrance into the capital. Foreign troops have just occupied the Tuileries, where the government is sitting. In this state of affairs, we can only breathe wishes for the country; and our deliberations being no longer free, *we think it our duty to separate.*" When the reading of the above message was finished, silence, for a while, ensued, and the members seemed to consult together. Manuel then came forward, and said, that, as they had foreseen that event, he called upon them to remain at their post: "Let us say," said he, "that we are representatives of the people; and that we will not quit the place but at the point of the bayonet." "Bravo! bravo! Yes! yes!" arose from all parts of the assembly. The members then began to disperse, after passing to the order of the day upon the message; the president of the government announcing, at the same time, that the sitting was adjourned till the 8th, at eight in the morning. At eight in the morning they accordingly came, intending to proceed as usual; but, to their utter astonishment, they found, that general Desolles, commander of the national guard, had got up before them, and had, by order of the king, locked the doors and put the keys in his pocket, while his troops kept them from approaching the place. Thus, and by an ordinance of the king previously issued, were the two chambers relieved of their labours. The members repaired to the house of their president M. Lanjuinais, and there drew up a *procès verbal*, or protest.

On the same day, the 8th, Louis entered the capital. Preparations had been made, from the preceding day, to receive his majesty; and great crowds went out to meet him. He was, said the accounts from Paris, welcomed with greater acclamations than on the preceding year. The white cockade was universally hoisted, the white standard displayed, and cries of *Vive le Roi* were now the occupation of the surrounding multitudes. It is needless to repeat more of this mode of reception. The world is sick of French cries of *Vive le Roi, Vive l'Empereur, la Nation, la Liberté*; all equally ready when an occasion presents itself.

The procession moved through the Boulevards to the Tuileries, where the king alighted, and took up his abode in that palace, the scene of so much grief and affliction to his family, and which many had expected he would never again see, and very few that it could take place so soon. In the evening the city was illuminated; and songs, dances, and rejoicings, continued to a late hour. But these things were nothing new in Paris. A change of government seemed indeed to have become necessary, in order to afford them fresh amusement.

As to the members of the *old* government, if a government is to be called old which had subsisted only a fortnight,

night, we have just seen them inform the chambers that they had "thought it their duty to separate" of their own accord. This is not quite correct. "If I may depend upon the assertion of one of the members of the intermediate government, (says Mr. Hobhouse,) what did actually happen was as follows: Lord Castlereagh, on his arrival at head-quarters, imparted to the commission his surprise, indeed his indignation, that Louis was not yet in Paris, and added that he must come in to-morrow, or the next day at furthest. The president of the government replied, that he understood from the allied sovereigns that there was no intention, on their part, to interfere with the inclinations of the French nation, in the election of its monarch; for answer to which remonstrance, his lordship only introduced Mr. Pozzo di Borgo, and the ministers of the other two principal powers, each of whom drew a note from his pocket, stating their respective sovereigns' agreement with the English minister, and their resolution to replace Louis on the throne of France. This was decisive; but the government was still sitting in the Tuileries, when a squadron of cavalry, and two battalions of Westphalian infantry, and several pieces of cannon, marched into the Place du Caroussel, and occupied the inner court of the palace; and an officer, entering the council chamber, told the commissioners that he was ordered to evacuate the apartments, and at the same time presented a paper, which contained a demand of a contribution of a hundred millions, signed by marshal Blücher. The government remonstrated; they contrasted this demand and conduct with the articles of the convention, which secured the public and private property; and which left the service of the interior of the capital to the national guard; (articles 9, 11, 12.) but in vain. The officer did not understand the nicety of the distinction; and the government had no other resource than to resolve upon communicating their forced dissolution to the chambers, and upon retiring each to his own home. As to the contribution, they deposited the paper upon the council-table, where, said the duke of Otranto (Fouche), we will leave it as a legacy for the king. They then dispersed. The government did *not* dissolve itself: it was dissolved by lord Castlereagh."

Of the five members of this provisional government, four retired with the army behind the Loire; but its president Fouche, of whose double dealings we have had ample evidence, and whose folly just mentioned would not have led his colleagues to expect such a thing, preferred staying behind, and assured the king that the government had dissolved itself; a message which was neither authorized by the others, nor true. The event proved the superior prudence of Fouche's conduct: the next day he was admitted to the duke of Wellington's table, and the day after he was made one of the ministry of Louis, the porte-feuille of the police being assigned to him.

Fouche was indeed a perfect diplomatist of the Machiavelian school, always carrying on a double intrigue, and always providing, like Talleyrand, a refuge with either party. Though professedly an enemy of the Bourbons, and a zealous police-minister to Bonaparte, he found means to be received into the cabinet of Louis XVIII. after his second restoration. That he was a man of talent is undoubted. "Few men," says M. Chaboulon, "possess the gift of pleasing and persuading in a higher degree than the duke of Otranto: equally profound and witty, equally endowed with foresight and ability, his mind embraces at once the past, present, and future: he alternately seduces and astonishes by the boldness of his thoughts, the acuteness of his perception, and the solidity of his judgment." Fouche died a few months ago, we believe in January last, (1821.)

Having thus brought our narrative of the momentous events of the last month down to the restoration of Louis we shall briefly advert to the operations of the Austrian, Bavarian, German, and Russian, forces on the Rhine. These had also been important and successful; and at any

other period than after the battle of Waterloo, with the events which we have just related, would have claimed the attention of Europe. Although the whole of the Russian army was not yet arrived and in line, yet the accounts of the battle of Waterloo determined the allies to enter France at this point, and animated them to the utmost exertions. In their advance they had nothing to dread from any force which the enemy could assemble on their right wing, as before the defeat of Bonaparte would have been the case; while, on the other hand, the advance of Blücher and Wellington into France, rendered it necessary that they should advance, in order to draw the attention of any troops which might otherwise assemble on the Moselle and towards Rheims, and prevent these from harassing or endangering the rear of the latter. To this they were solicited by both Blücher and Wellington; who had requested prince Schwartzberg to cause marshal Wrede to advance rapidly. Including all the Russian force, it appears that from the environs of Thionville to Manheim, and from thence to Basle, nearly 470,000 men lined that frontier, ready to pass the Rhine at a moment's notice.

The forces which the French had to oppose these, were, Lecourbe's corps and reserves at Besançon, Rapp's corps complete at Strasbourg, and a corps under Belliard on the Moselle, the strength of which is unknown. The whole was, therefore considerable, amounting to perhaps 80 or 90,000 men, besides strong garrisons in all the fortified towns, such as Huningue, New Brisach, Belfort, Schelestadt, Landau, Strasbourg, Pfalzbourg, Bitsche, Metz, and Thionville, besides numerous free corps and national guards; still, however, these forces were very much inferior to those brought against them.

The immense forces of the allies, collected from the extremities of Europe, passed the Rhine at all points; and, like a mighty wave, swept over the Vosges mountains, inundating the banks of the Marne and the Seine, and defying all resistance. Saarguimines was carried by storm, and with trifling loss. Saarbruck shared the same fate; it was defended by a general Menège, with some cavalry and 400 peasants. The prince-royal of Wirtemberg passed the Queisch, on the morning of the 25th of June, without resistance. The mayors of all the places had orders to cause a general rising of the people, but they refused to resort to a measure which might prove so fatal to them. The fortrefs of Bitsche was summoned, but the governor refused to surrender, being determined to defend the place. Continuing to advance with the utmost rapidity, on the 25th, marshal Wrede received a message from general Belliard, making fresh propositions for an armistice, to which no attention was paid. On the same day he arrived in the neighbourhood of Nancy, when a deputation from the town came to assure the general of their goodwill to the allied troops, and that they were ready to give him the most favourable reception. On the right of Wrede, general Tchernicheff, with 4000 men, communicated between general Lambert, the Bavarians, and marshal Blücher. On the left of the Moselle, between Metz and Lougron, he fell in with a force of 3000 French troops, with some artillery, which he attacked and drove back to Metz; and, pushing on to Chalons, he made himself master of that place after a brilliant affair. One division at first entered the town by consent of the inhabitants, but these were no sooner got in than the enemy closed the gates, and attacked them; whereupon the party dashed forward to the Paris-gate, and succeeded in extricating themselves from the unexpected danger. In the mean time Tchernicheff advanced with the main body of his force, brought forward some cannon, and, battering down the gate, entered at the head of his troops, and dispersed the force assembled in the place, which was treated with great severity. Blockading Toul, and throwing bridges over the Moselle, Wrede continued to advance towards Paris, in the neighbourhood of which he soon afterwards arrived without much further opposition.

The

The prince-royal of Wirtemberg, however, experienced more serious opposition. On the 26th, he forced the French to abandon a position they had taken up between Setz and Sarrbourg, and to retire through the forest of Haguenau. Continuing to press the corps under general Rapp, an obstinate engagement took place on the 29th, in which Rapp was defeated with considerable loss, and pursued under the guns of Strasburgh, into which place he entered, and the blockade of which was quickly begun. Here Rapp was shut up, with a force of at least 35,000 men; and, according to the accounts in the German journals, watched by a force of about 50,000. The French lost many prisoners, and five pieces of cannon. Here, as soon as his corps was relieved by the Austrians, the prince-royal commenced his march upon Luneville and Nancy; and, continuing his advance, came in contact with the army under prince Ferdinand of Austria; their united forces forming a mass of 200,000 men.

It is almost impossible to detail, or to bring into any connected form, the numerous skirmishes which took place between the advance of the allied armies and the retreating *enemy* (as the French defending their country were now called), and the different engagements which took place between them and the garrisons of the fortified towns, in which the allies were generally successful, and in which a very considerable loss of men was sustained on both sides. Crossing the Rhine in vast force, and blockading the fortresses of Pfalzbourg, the main body of the allied army pushed on through the defile of the Vosges mountains, on the great road from Strasburgh to Paris; but for some time advanced with great difficulty. To avoid the fortresses, a road was made in the course of a few hours, and the guns and carriages were dragged by parties of soldiers up rocky steepes that appeared almost inaccessible; after which the army continued its march to Paris, without meeting with any serious obstacle to oppose its movements.

On the morning of the 26th, the archduke Ferdinand, with the force under his command, amounting, according to accounts from Basle, to 160,000 men, passed the Rhine at Basle; pushing on through the defiles of Porentrui, he succeeded in separating the force under Lecourbe from that under Rapp; and, after numerous engagements, in which the French lost a great number of men, Lecourbe was finally obliged to shut himself up in Besfort. Betwixt Ferdinand's army and Lecourbe's the severest fighting took place. On the 28th of June, count Colloredo attacked the French rear-guard, and drove it before him with much loss, and took many prisoners. The Austrian loss was 300 killed and wounded. On the 2d of July, Colloredo took the town and citadel of Montbeillard by assault; seven guns and a great number of prisoners fell into his hands. A French force of 8000 infantry and 300 cavalry were driven through Chavennes at the point of the bayonet. Chevremont and Besencourt were carried by assault; and 4000 men, with a detachment from the garrison of Besfort under Lecourbe, were driven from the heights of Beaumont. All the fortified towns were immediately invested; and the archduke, with the disposable part of the troops remaining from those duties, continued his march upon Langres.

All the armies continued their march towards Paris, and on the 14th, prince Schwarzenberg had his headquarters at Fontainebleau; the allied sovereigns, viz. the emperor of Russia, the king of Prussia, and the emperor of Austria, having, some days previous to that period, left the army, as soon as they heard of the capture of Paris, and the entry of Louis XVIII. into his capital, and proceeded to that place, where they arrived on the 10th. Some idea may be formed of the vast force of the allies, which entered France in this direction, when it is known that the Austrian force disposable on the Upper Loire, exclusive of the armies from Italy, amounted to 100,000 men. The advance of the main armies gave the numerous free corps, assembled in Alsace and the Vosges moun-

tains, opportunities to attack the line of the allied communication, and carry off the baggage. But the continued advance of fresh troops, gave the allies an opportunity of organizing a sufficient force in moveable columns, which soon cleared the country of these corps.

The disposition of a great part of the people was, and had always been, most hostile and rancorous against the allies; and this hatred now showed itself in numerous instances, which brought down destruction on their heads. The villages of Hogentheim and Mulhausen gave the first example of the most shocking excesses. In the former, a German soldier, after having his eyes put out, was hung up alive: the most dreadful punishment followed upon the instant: the aged, the women, and the children, suffered with the wicked perpetrators. At Mulhausen two soldiers were shot by a clergyman: his house was surrounded, and he was destroyed with it. Wherever the allied troops met with resistance from the country people, every thing was destroyed. "For six days," said accounts from that quarter, "the sky has been red every day with the flames of burning villages. Where a single shot is fired from them upon the allies, all is levelled to the ground. A dreadful judgment hangs over France; the crimes of preceding times are visited upon their descendants, who rival them in the commission of enormities."

On the side of Italy, hostilities had commenced between marshal Suchet and the Austrians in that quarter. On the 14th of June, Suchet attacked and carried the town of Montmelian, situated upon the Isere. According to his account, the allies lost 300 killed and wounded, and 600 prisoners. The French immediately penetrated into Savoy, and overran nearly all that country, where as yet there was but an inadequate force to oppose them. Suchet advanced with part of his army to Geneva, upon the lake of that name, and gained possession of the whole valley of the Arve; but his career was soon stopped by the arrival of the Austrian general Frimont, with the Italian army above 60,000 strong. Passing Mount St. Bernard, he descended the Rhone to St. Maurice; and, pushing forward, soon cleared all the south bank of the Lake of Geneva. Bubna followed with a further force over Mount Cenis, and took the direction of Grenoble; while an army of Austrians, Piedmontese, and some English troops, were preparing to enter France by Nice, upon the shores of the Mediterranean. This completely tied up the hands of marshal Brune, stationed in that quarter, and prevented him from sending any assistance to Suchet. It was at this moment that Suchet communicated to the Austrian general the unexpected news of the abdication of Bonaparte, and solicited an armistice, which was granted for twenty-four hours, upon condition that he should evacuate the whole valley of the Arve. On the same day Geneva was occupied, and the French were driven from the heights of Savonien with considerable loss. At the same time, general Bubna advanced from Mount Cenis, and, on the 29th, attacked the tête-du-pont of Arly, near Conflans, which the French held with 3000 men: it was carried by assault, but the Austrians lost 1000 men. Continuing his advance, the positions of Conflans and l'Hopital were forced, and the French driven out of them. At the latter place, the defence was very obstinate; the allies three times took it by assault, and were three times driven back, but finally succeeded. The position of Aguibella was turned; and, without sustaining any loss, the allied army forced the French to abandon it. Suchet now renewed, with greater earnestness, his desire for an armistice, which general Frimont at last granted for three days, upon condition that the French should give up the position of the Boges, the passage of the Rhone at Seissel, and abandon every post on that side, and retire upon Lyons with his army. Severe and humiliating as these conditions were, Suchet was forced to accept them. The armistice was not renewed, and the Austrian forces immediately advanced upon Lyons, which was surrendered to them on the 17th of July. From Lyons they pushed their advanced divisions.

sions up the Saone, and towards the Upper Loire; and Suchet retired with his army towards Montrefson and Raonne, on the left bank of that river.

While these events were going on, the Swifs had joined the allies; and their army, amounting to 31,000 men, occupied a position from Morteau to Pontarlier, with light troops, advanced on their right and left, to St. Hypolite and Salins. Jourdan, who had been sent by the provisional government to assume the command at Besançon and the troops in that quarter, sent, on the 11th of July, an aid-de-camp to the Swifs general, Castella, to inform him of the submission of Besançon to the king's authority, and requesting, in consequence, a suspension of arms between his forces and the Swifs army. This was granted, upon condition that the French troops stationed at Salins should be withdrawn, in order to allow the Swifs troops to move forward. Accordingly, the Swifs army, amounting to 31,000 men, advanced into France; and, extending themselves, occupied the whole department of the Doubs. General Lecourbe concluded an armistice with the Austrian general Colloredo, by virtue of which he also retired to the left bank of the Loire, and Besort as well as Besançon were occupied by the Austrian troops. The grand army, under Schwartzberg, composed of Russian, Austrian, and Bavarian troops, covered all the country along the Marne, the Seine, and the Yonne; and extending themselves to the Loire, stretched from Orleans along that river, to the point where they came in communication with the Austrian army from Italy. Westward, the Prussian army, extended from Orleans to Tours and Nantz, and on both banks of the Lower Loire; while the British, Hanoverian, and other troops, under Wellington, extended themselves towards Brittany, and the coasts of the channel, and also along the Loire, to its junction with the ocean. Besides these forces, strong divisions of troops of all the allied nations were assembled in and around Paris; while numerous corps kept up the communications with Germany, the Netherlands, Italy, and Swisserland; and formidable divisions blockaded, besieged, or garrisoned, all the fortified places, either in the interior of those parts of France, or on the frontiers.

In the mean time several places acknowledged the authority of the king, though they would not admit the troops of the allies. In the south of France, which contained a great number of royalists, severe commotions, accompanied with bloodshed, took place between them and the soldiers. At Marseilles the people rose upon the garrison, and drove them out of the place, even before they had heard of the capture of Paris. Marshal Brune, however, returned with a stronger force, and again recovered possession of the place. He ordered the tri-coloured flag to be covered with crape, as a mark of the sorrow of the army for the events which had taken place. The arrival, however, of a British force under lord Exmouth and sir Hudson Lowe, consisting of 3000 men from the garrison of Genoa, on the 10th of July, freed Marseilles from all further uneasiness. Marshal Brune, with the force under his command retreated to Toulon. This important place he was also forced to give up, after various negotiations with the British officers and the *marquis de la Riviere*. The garrison of Toulon consisted of six regiments of the line, a regiment of marines, a detachment of three hundred cavalry, artillery, veterans, &c. and a battalion of half-pay officers and federalists, called *le bataillon sacré*, most of whom, with marshal Murat and some of his adherents, were suffered to quit Toulon.

Marshal Brune afterwards delivered himself up to the *marquis de la Riviere*, to be sent to Paris. In his way thither, however, on the morning of the 2d of August, as the marshal and his suite were passing through Avignon, the carriage was stopped and surrounded by a party of royalists. They exclaimed that he must suffer the fate of the dukes of Lamballe, whose head they charged him with having carried on the top of a pike. The civil au-

thorities were unable to protect him. He darted from his carriage, and sought refuge in the Palais Royal Hotel. The populace mounted the roof, and penetrated into the house. Having got a view of the marshal, they fired at him. On the second shot the bullet entered the back of his neck, and passed quite through: he fell dead. It was proposed to bury the body immediately; but the royalists interfered, treated it with the greatest indignity, and at length threw it into the Rhone. A fellow named Guindon, alias Roquefort, one of the most violent among the populace on that day, was tried and found guilty of the murder during the present year, (1821.) but whether he has been punished we have not been able to learn.

At Bourdeaux, general Clausel had a considerable force, with which he was enabled to keep the inhabitants in that part of the country in subjection. He determined to maintain himself as long as he could, in order that he might ensure favourable terms for himself and his troops. But, at length, having learned the events at Paris, and knowing the disposition of the inhabitants of the country around him, and those of Bourdeaux in particular, he entered into negotiations with the French and British officers, which ended in the white flag being hoisted on the castle of Bourdeaux, and over all the surrounding country. The troops under Clausel left the place, and many of them broke up and returned to their homes. The rest proceeded to the Loire.

Still the country remained in a state of alarm and agitation. The army refused to submit for a considerable time; and, even when they did so, they did it in a manner that left their intentions very doubtful, and confirmed the fact that they did it with the deepest regret. Most of the fortified places refused to acknowledge the king's authority; till pressed by the allied arms, and driven to the necessity of either surrendering or of being taken by assault, their commanders then, and only then, hoisted the white flag, pretending they acknowledged the king, and making a merit of saying, they did not give up the place to a foreign enemy. This however had, in most instances, no effect with the allies, but particularly with the Prussians: it was not the hoisting of a flag would satisfy them for their toil, their labour, blood, and danger; and accordingly, they continued the sieges of the various frontier-towns, till they forced them to surrender at discretion.

The French army which retired behind the Loire, was under the command of Davoust, and who also at this time held the supreme command of all the military in France which had not acknowledged the king. The strength of this army was stated at about 70,000 men; for, though desertion had made great ravages in it, it had nevertheless been augmented by corps from different quarters. The officers and men composing this force were decidedly averse to the re-establishment of the Bourbons. With arms in their hands, it could not be expected that such men would at once surrender them without a struggle; or till they had received some terms from the king, in order to ensure not only their personal safety, but also, if possible, their existence as a body. Accordingly, they continued, for some time, to disown the king's authority, and refuse to submit to his sway. The advance, however, of the allied armies against them, and the submission of many places and of a large portion of the inhabitants, left them in a dangerous situation; and, accordingly, after some negotiations, with the nature of which the public are yet unacquainted, they agreed to send in their submission to the king, which was accordingly transmitted by Davoust, but in a manner that it was difficult to say what their intentions were; and, at the same time, proved unequivocally with what reluctance they made any concession or advances towards submission. This submission was announced in the following order of the day, issued by Davoust on the 16th of July: "Soldiers, I communicate to you, by an order of the day, the submission which the generals and officers of the army, of which the command is confided to me, have made to the government

government of Louis XVIII. It is for you, soldiers, to complete this submission by your obedience; hoist the white cockade and colours. I demand from you, I know, a great sacrifice: we have all been connected with other colours for these twenty-five years; but the interest of our country commands this sacrifice. I am incapable, soldiers, of giving you an order not founded on these sentiments, or at variance with honour. Last year, under similar circumstances, the government of our country having changed, I defended Hamburg and Harburg to the last moment, in the name of Louis XVIII. listening then, as I do now, only to the interest of our country. All my countrymen have applauded my conduct; a fine army has been preserved to France; not a soldier has quitted his ranks, knowing that he serves his country, whatever be its government, and that an army cannot deliberate. Soldiers! continue the same conduct; defend our *unhappy country* in the name of Louis XVIII. this monarch, and all our countrymen, will thank us for it. We shall make common cause with those brave Vendéans who have justly given us a touching example, declaring that they would unite with us to combat the enemies of France; and you will have, besides, preserved to your country a numerous and brave army. I expect from you the same spirit of discipline of which you have given proofs since your departure from Paris. Prince d'ECKMÜHL."

The army under Suchet soon followed the example of the army of the Loire; and, lastly, that under Clausel. The white flag now appeared on all the sea-ports and principal towns; the people acquiescing in the change. From this time, therefore, we may consider Louis XVIII. as king of France, though tranquillity was not completely restored for some considerable time afterwards. We shall therefore conclude this part of our subject with a conjectural account, from a respectable periodical publication, of the losses that were sustained in those dreadful conflicts, chiefly of three days' duration, by means of which he was re-placed on the throne.

Prussians, total loss, viz. at Ligny, Waterloo, Wavre, and Namur, in killed, wounded, and prisoners	33,000
British and Hanoverians at Quatre Bras and Waterloo	13,700
Belgians and Dutch at Quatre Bras and Waterloo	4,100
	50,800
Computed loss of the French at Quatre Bras and Ligny	15,000
Ditto at Waterloo, on the part opposed to the British	25,000
Ditto on the part opposed to the Prussians and in the pursuit	20,000
Fugitives dispersed throughout the country, who never resumed service	15,000
Remainder who were rallied at Laon and elsewhere, but not in a state to face an enemy	20,000
	95,000
Total	145,800

Though the government of France were anxiously watching the motions of Napoleon, the fickle Parisians seemed to have forgotten him, or to remember him only to deride him. As soon as he was gone, there appeared as many pamphlets against him as had before been published against the king. The public partiality distinguished *L'Histoire des Quinze Semaines*: this little performance was read with such avidity as to run through seven editions in a month. A work equally remarkable was the *Dictionnaire des Girouettes*, or Dictionary of Weathercocks, an alphabetical list of persons in France who had been notorious for their contradictory opinions. What a list; and what versatility in France during the last twenty years! What a disgraceful monument for the French is this dictionary! It is a very remarkable work. You there

find three or four discordant opinions expressed by the same man, before all France, in the course of twenty years. Some of them have changed about in less than a month. It gives the orders of the day of several marshals, on the one hand in favour of Bonaparte in the month of March, on the other in favour of the king in the month of April; pieces in verse by a poet in praise of the Republic, the King of Rome, and the Dukes of Angoulême. Quotations are made from a journalist who loudly declared that he would acknowledge no other ruler than Napoleon the Great, who a fortnight afterwards proved that this Napoleon was a traitor; and a year later staunchly maintained him to be a great man again, and the only legitimate sovereign. Bonaparte himself is introduced into this Dictionary among the weathercocks, for abdicating in 1814, asserting, in March 1815, that he had never abdicated, and for abdicating a second time in June; but the author might have cited many other inconsistencies and contradictions of this too-celebrated man.

He had left Malmaison on the 29th of June, under the protection or surveillance of general Becker, with a numerous retinue, and much property; and, taking the road by Tours, he directed his route to Rochefort. It was evident he travelled quite at his ease; and not only so, but that every facility was afforded him. Every where he was welcomed with acclamations, and treated with the same respect as if he had been still emperor. He reached Rochefort on the 3d of July, in safety; and immediately began to make preparations for his departure, in two frigates, *la Suale* and *la Meduse*. Every thing was embarked, and ready for a start; but, unfortunately, every avenue for escape was closed against him. Already eleven British ships of war lined the coast, in such a manner that no vessel of any description could put to sea without being brought-to by them. This vigilant force was under the command of captain Maitland, of the *Bellerophon*, of 74 guns. Bonaparte remained at the house of the prefect, general Becker, till the 8th, when he went on-board the *Suale*, at ten o'clock in the evening. He, however, durst not venture to put to sea. Next day he landed, and inspected the fortifications of the *Isle d'Aix*, probably with the intention of defending himself there against any immediate attack. On the 10th the winds were favourable; but the short night, and it also being moonlight at the time, left the frigates no hope to escape. He had sent on-board the *Bellerophon* to solicit permission to pass, as he said he was only waiting for his passports from England. This was, however, refused; and he was informed, that the moment the frigates attempted to come out they would be attacked. Bonaparte next proposed to escape in a Danish ship, but this would have been equally impracticable; and an attempt in two *chasse-marees*, of about twenty tons each, which had come from Rochelle on the night of the 12th, and in which he was to embark, and to be carried to the Danish vessel, waiting for him at a distance, seemed to promise no better hopes of success. These plans also were abandoned. From the 11th to the 12th Bonaparte learned from his brother Joseph, the entrance of the king into Paris, and the dissolution of the chambers. To the last moment, it is said, he cherished the idea that they would recall him; but he was disappointed.

Two more days were passed in undetermined projects for escaping by sea. At length, on the 14th, generals Becker and Savary, count Las Cases, and general Lallemand, were sent on-board the *Bellerophon*, to inform Capt. Maitland of his desire of throwing himself on the protection of England. But Maitland, with cautious prudence, made those gentlemen clearly understand, that he could engage for nothing more than simply to convey Bonaparte to England, there to be received as it might seem best by his majesty's government. With this intimation, the ex-emperor was received on-board the *Bellerophon* on the following morning, the 15th of July. The persons who accompanied Bonaparte on-board the *Bellerophon*

rophon consisted of Bertrand, grand marshal of the palace, his lady and three children, Savary duke of Rovigo, general Lallemand, baron Gourgaud, aide-de-camp to Bonaparte, count Moutholon Semonville, his lady and child, Las Cafas, counsellor of state, and his son, several other officers, a surgeon, and a suite of about forty persons.

On mounting the deck of the Bellerophon, Bonaparte said to the captain, "Sir, I come to claim the protection of your prince and of your laws."

Previously to his going on-board, he had addressed the following letter to the prince-regent.

Altesse Royale, En butte aux factions qui divisent mon pays, et à l'animosité des plus grandes puissances de l'Europe, j'ai terminé ma carrière politique; et je viens, comme Themistocle, m'asseoir sur les foyers du peuple Britannique. Je me mets sous la protection de ses lois, que je réclame de V. A. R. comme le plus puissant, le plus constant, et le plus généreux, de mes ennemis.

NAPOLÉON.

"Royal Highness, Exposed to the factions which divide my country, and to the enmity of the greatest powers of Europe, I have terminated my political career; and I come, like Themistocles, to throw myself upon the hospitality of the British people. I put myself under the protection of their laws; which [protection] I demand of your Royal Highness, as the most powerful, the most constant, and the most generous, of my enemies.

Rocheport, July 13."

Bonaparte has always been remarkable for expressing himself in classical language; nor does the present letter yield to any of his former compositions in that characteristic attribute. When embarked on-board the Bellerophon, by his constant affability he made a very favourable impression on all who approached him; and this was, as it ought to be, more than repaid by the condescensions which he received in return. Marshal Bertrand waited upon the first lieutenant and captain of marines with Napoleon's compliments, requesting their company at dinner. At dinner he took his seat in the middle of the table, with the captain on the right hand. The whole dinner was dressed in the French style, and served in silver. Nothing was carved at table, the servants removing each dish for the purpose. Some English midshipmen, of the Bellerophon, were permitted, at Bonaparte's request, to perform a play before him.

True to his old system of enquiring into and understanding every thing, Bonaparte had scarcely been five minutes on-board, before he sent his compliments, and requested that the officers of the ship might be introduced to him. This was done by captain Maitland. He bowed severally to each, and, smiling, enquired how each of them ranked. When they were about to leave the cabin, he said to them in French, "Gentlemen, you have the honour of belonging to the bravest and most fortunate nation in the world." Having arranged his dress, he shortly afterwards came upon deck. He asked several questions of the officers, took particular notice of the sights on the guns; and begged the boatswain might be sent to him, of whom he made many enquiries respecting the ship, and his length of service.

At two in the afternoon, the Bellerophon (accompanied by the Myrmidon corvette, which had part of his suite on-board) weighed, and made sail for England. Calms and contrary winds made the voyage long and tedious. They reached Torbay only on the 24th. Captain Maitland immediately made a signal for general orders, the telegraphic answer to which was; "to prohibit all communication with the shore, and to stand out three leagues to sea, and await the orders of the admiral."

As soon as the arrival of the Bellerophon at Torbay was publicly announced, it became the centre of attraction; and every one manifested an anxiety to behold the first general of the age, and the most extraordinary man of modern times. In consequence numerous parties re-

paired in boats, but were not permitted to come alongside: notwithstanding this, their number so increased, that it was calculated not less than a thousand put off daily.

During the time necessarily occupied by official discussion, as to the disposal of Bonaparte, and due preparation, Bonaparte continued to reside on-board the Bellerophon, around which a proper guard was very prudently established. The number and eagerness of spectators remained unabated during the whole of this period; and, as every one saw with his own eyes, and formed his own conclusions, the accounts thus furnished are interesting, though sometimes various. From these we shall select the following:

"Persons from London, and from other parts, are flocking down to Plymouth, though they know that Bonaparte is not expected to land, and that they cannot go on-board the Bellerophon; but they can row in boats round the vessel, and can occasionally catch a glimpse of him. He is the greater part of the day in the stern-gallery, either walking backwards and forwards, with his hands behind him, as he is represented in some of the pictures in the print-shops, or surveying the shipping and the shore through a glass. In general he keeps alone, Bertrand and Lallemand remaining at some distance behind him. Occasionally he beckons to one of them to point out something to him, or to make some observation; he then walks on alone. Captain Maitland is more frequently with him than any of his suite; and he pays him great attention. He is in good health. He passes but a short time at his meals, and drinks but little wine. Coffee is frequently served up to him on the deck. When he first came near the land about Torbay, he is reported to have exclaimed, *Enfin, voilà ce beau pays!* "At length, here is this fine country!" adding, that he had never seen it, except from Calais and Boulogne.

"On Tuesday, August 1, he was seen the greatest part of the morning at the windows of the cabin, generally in conversation with Bertrand, and occasionally looking at the gazing groups crowded in the vessels below, of all ages and all occupations, and sometimes appeared reading a newspaper; but he had none of the usual French gesticulation, and his countenance seldom altered. He is now very corpulent; and, annexing that idea with the print of him, full length, as taken standing with his arms across on the parade, or the older print of him, as musing in the gardens of Malmaison, will give the best idea of his person. He was dressed in a very plain green coat, with a red collar, also perfectly plain, coming close round his neck, the coat buttoned close on the breast, and cut back in the usual French fashion, showing a white waistcoat and pantaloons; a silver star on the left breast, two large gold epaulets, a low cocked hat, perfectly plain, and high boots. His complexion is a clear uniform brown, no mustachios or whiskers, only his jet-black hair appearing before the ear and a little behind. His eye is black, rather small; a steady fixed look. The most remarkable feature is the chin, which is very prominent; lips small, forming altogether a handsome and pleasing countenance; he is rather bald on the top of the head. Soon after five o'clock he appeared walking steadily the length of the quarter-deck, on the starboard side, with Lallemand. Bonaparte kept next the side of the ship, with his hat on, rather attending to his companion's conversation than taking much part in it himself. He frequently used his handkerchief, and otherwise had generally his right hand in the pocket of his pantaloons, and his left just throwing back his coat; sometimes his hands crossed behind. He paused, more or less, at the end of each turn, occasionally noticing some others of his suite, who all seemed to keep at a certain distance, with their hats off. Captain Maitland was standing at the gangway with some of his officers, and a French officer dressed in blue, covered with silver lace and embroidery, said to be Savary. There were two or three ladies (Mad. Bertrand and others) much dressed,

in

in the French fashion. All seemed to treat Bonaparte as the emperor; who appeared as one in thought, walking a very steady pace, quite upright, now and then stooping a little to look through the port-holes at the vessels alongside. His person altogether gives one the idea of a strong man. At six o'clock the bell rang, dinner was announced, and he went below, followed by his attendants. Our jolly tars, with their usual good humour, put out a board, chalked 'He's gone to dine.' He remained, however, not much above half-an-hour, when another board announced his re-appearance on the deck; where he resumed his walk in the same spot, occasionally with a child, and conversing with Bertrand or the ladies; he continued walking till dusk, when the view of this extraordinary man was closed to our countrymen, for the ship sailed at five next morning for Plymouth."

The conduct to be observed with respect to a prisoner such as Bonaparte, was an important subject of consideration for the British cabinet. His rank and character were equivocal, for he had been left by the treaty of Paris an emperor in title, and the sovereign of Elba in fact; so that he might (as he did) lay a plausible claim to the rights of an independent prince, conquered in a lawful war. It was, however, determined in the councils of the confederate sovereigns, that the island of St. Helena should be his place of exile, where he was to reside under their joint inspection.

The following are the instructions given by the British government to the admiral with whom Bonaparte was to sail.

"When GENERAL BONAPARTE leaves the Bellerophon to go on-board the Northumberland, it will be the properest moment for Admiral Cockburn to have the effects examined which General Bonaparte may have brought with him.

"The admiral will allow all the baggage, wine, and provisions, which the general may have brought with him, to be taken on-board the Northumberland. Among the baggage, his table-service is to be understood as included, unless it be so considerable as to seem rather an article to be converted into ready money than for real use.

"His money, his diamonds, and his valuable effects (consequently bills of exchange also), of whatever kind they may be, must be delivered up. The admiral will declare to the general, that the British government by no means intends to confiscate his property, but merely to take upon itself the administration of his effects, to hinder him from using them as means to promote his flight. The interest on the principal (according as his property is more or less considerable) shall be applied to his support; and, in this respect, the principal arrangements be left to him. For this reason he can from time to time signify his wishes to the admiral till the arrival of the new Governor of St. Helena, and afterwards to the latter; and, if no objection is to be made to his proposal, the admiral or the governor can give the necessary orders, and the disbursement will be paid by bills on his majesty's treasury.

"In case of death, he can dispose of his property by a last will, and be assured that the contents of his testament shall be faithfully executed.

"As an attempt might be made to cause a part of his property to pass for the property of the persons of his suite, it must be signified that the property of his attendants is subject to the same regulations.

"The disposal of the troops intended to guard him must be left to the governor. The latter, however, has received a notice, in the case which will be hereafter mentioned, to act according to the desire of the admiral.

"The general must be constantly attended by an officer appointed either by the admiral or the governor. If the general is allowed to go out of the bounds where the sentinels are placed, one orderly man at least must accompany the officer.

"When ships arrive, and as long as they remain in

fight, the general must be confined to the limits where the sentinels are placed. During this time, all communication with the inhabitants is forbidden. His companions in St. Helena are subject during this time to the same rules, and must remain with him. At other times it is left to the judgment of the admiral or governor to make the necessary regulations concerning them.

"It must be signified to the general, that if he makes any attempt to fly he will be put under close confinement; and it must be notified to his attendants, that, if it should be found that they are plotting to prepare the general's flight, they shall be separated from him, and likewise put under close confinement.

"All letters addressed to the general or to persons in his suite must be delivered to the admiral or governor, who will read them before he suffers them to be delivered to those to whom they are addressed. Letters written by the general or his suite are subject to the same rule. No letter that does not come to St. Helena through the secretary-of-state must be communicated to the general or his attendants, if it is written by a person not living in the island. All their letters, addressed to persons not living in the island, must go under the cover of the secretary-of-state.

"It will be clearly expressed to the general, that the governor and admiral have precise orders to inform his majesty's government of all the wishes and representations which he may desire to address to it; in this respect they need not use any precaution. But the paper on which such request or representation is written, must be communicated to them open, that they may both read it, and, when they send it, accompany it with such observations as they may judge necessary.

"Till the arrival of the new governor, the admiral must be considered as entirely responsible for the person of General Bonaparte; and his majesty has no doubt of the inclination of the present governor to concur with the admiral for this purpose. The admiral has full power to retain the general on-board his ship, or to convey him on-board again, when, in his opinion, the secure detention of his person cannot be otherwise effected.

"When the admiral arrives at St. Helena, the governor will, upon his representation, adopt measures for sending immediately to England, the Cape of Good Hope, or the East-Indies, such officers or persons in the military corps of St. Helena, as the admiral, either because they are foreigners, or on account of their character or their dispositions, shall think it advisable to dismiss from the military service in St. Helena. If there are strangers in the island whose residence in the country shall seem to be with a view of becoming instrumental in the flight of General Bonaparte, he must take measures to remove them.

"The whole coast of the island, and all ships and boats that visit it, are placed under the *surveillance* of the admiral. He fixes the places which the boats may visit; and the governor will send a sufficient guard to the points where the admiral shall consider this precaution to be necessary. The admiral will adopt the most vigorous measures to watch over the arrival and departure of every ship, and to prevent all communication with the coast, except such as he shall allow. Orders will be issued to prevent, after a certain necessary interval, any foreign or mercantile vessel from going in future to St. Helena.

"If the general should be seized with a serious illness, the admiral and the governor will each name a physician who enjoys their confidence, in order to attend the general in common with his own physician; they will give them strict orders to give in every day a report on the state of his health. In case of his death, the admiral will give orders to convey his body to England. Given at the War-office, July 30, 1815."

In the ensuing session of the British parliament, it was thought proper to introduce two bills; one, "for the more effectually detaining in custody Napoleon Bonaparte;" the other, "for regulating the intercourse of

neutral ships with the island of St. Helena during the time Napoleon Bonaparte shall be detained there, &c." 56 Geo. III. c. 22, 23.

The papers of Sunday, July 30, announced the determination of sending Bonaparte to St. Helena; and, as he regularly inquired for them, that part did not long escape his notice. Indeed, it was now publicly spoken of by every person. In the evening, he had the marks of much agitation in his countenance; but some of his suite were more seriously affected. About nine o'clock, as marshal and madame Bertrand were walking on the deck in earnest conversation, suddenly madame rushed into the emperor's cabin, threw herself at his feet for about half a minute, then, flying below to her own cabin, threw herself nearly out of the stern window, when she was fortunately caught by general Montholon. She continued delirious the whole night.

On the following morning, lord Keith and general sir H. Bunbury waited upon Bonaparte, informing him it was the determination of the allied sovereigns to send him to the above place, and granting permission to take with him part of his suite. It was said that he assured the admiral and the general, it was his fixed resolution never to quit the shore alive.

Notwithstanding the news had greatly affected him, he continued to show himself for about twenty minutes every evening, to the really-astonishing number of people, which daily increased. It was with great difficulty the men-of-war's boats could prevent the crowd approaching too near the ship. The last evening that he made any conspicuous appearance on the gang-way was on Tuesday the 1st of August, when he showed himself only for a short time on each side. On Wednesday he did not show himself at all. On Thursday he came on deck again, and twice looked out at the starboard gangway, and that was only momentary. On Friday the Bellerophon got under weigh about one o'clock; and, not having had a satisfactory view of him, "I went in a boat with a few other gentlemen, and followed the ship till she was some distance outside of the breakwater. All this time he did not show himself; and, as the ship was working out, I take it for granted he was not on the quarter-deck. However, as there was but one guard-boat rowing a-stern, the others being employed in towing the ship, there being but a light air, we frequently ran up pretty near to her; and, in consequence of two ladies, who had embarked on-board a shore-boat under the idea that having no gentlemen with them they would be suffered to approach nearer the vessel, and who seemed most anxious to see the renowned prisoner she had on-board, they frequently standing on the thwarts of the boat, and waving their handkerchiefs, he at last made his appearance at the stern-window of his cabin, evidently for the purpose of satisfying their curiosity. He held his head out of the window, and inclined it downwards, as if he was resting on his elbows, without his hat being on, which gave us a complete view of his face and head, which is very bald on the top, but, the hair on the side being suffered to grow long, we could perceive it was combed across. He staid about a minute, and then retired. We followed him till we got within a short distance of Penlee Point; but he did not show himself again. Indeed I did not expect it; for, in a short time after he looked out at the window, he drew the curtains of the cabin-windows; when I remarked that it was decidedly done to let us know that the lion was no more to be seen."

It is asserted, and we believe with truth, that Bonaparte possesses the art of pleasing in a high degree, and is a perfect master in flattery, the kinds of which he adapts with the greatest skill to the persons whom he addresses; his manner is consequently fascinating; and he is said, by his attentions in a single week, to have gained the goodwill of the whole ship's company on-board which he had embarked. The government therefore determined that another vessel should convey him to the place of his desti-

nation; and accordingly the Northumberland received orders to prepare for that service. Every possible precaution was deemed necessary to prevent the recurrence of those contrivances which have so frequently been exhibited. The vessels employed were therefore intrusted to fail off the Start, and to transfer the person of Bonaparte from one ship to the other at a distance from the shore.

On the 6th, sir Henry Bunbury, accompanied by the Hon. Mr. Bathurst, charged with the communication of the result of the government to Bonaparte, were conveyed on-board the Bellerophon by lord Keith's yacht. Sir Henry was introduced to the ex-emperor; and, after mutual salutation, he read to him the resolution of the cabinet, by which he was informed of his intended transportation, *in a different ship*, to the island of St. Helena, with four of his friends, to be chosen by himself, and twelve domestics. He received this intimation without any mark of surprise, as he said he had been apprised of the determination, but he protested against it in the most emphatic manner; and in a speech of three quarters of an hour, delivered with great coolness, self-possession, and ability, reasoned against the proceeding. He recapitulated the circumstances under which he had been forced, he said, by the breach of the treaty made with him by the sovereigns of Europe, to quit the island of Elba; that he had exerted himself to prevent the renewal of hostilities; but that, when they became unavoidable, and that the fortune of war decided against him, he yielded to the voice of his enemies, as they had declared in the face of the world that it was against *him only* that they had taken up arms; he abdicated the imperial crown of France, in the full confidence that the allies would be faithful to their solemn declaration, and leave his country to the settlement of its own affairs; then, unarmed, and with a view of seeking an asylum as a private individual in England, he had first sought to be received under the king's allegiance, and under the protection of our laws, and had finally voluntarily put himself into the British power. In this predicament he felt himself entitled to protest against the measure now announced to him; and in a long argument, in which he showed himself to be well versed in our laws, he reasoned against the act. Sir Henry Bunbury and Mr. Bathurst say, that his manner was temperate, his language eloquent, and that he conducted himself throughout in the most prepossessing way. Sir Henry could only answer, that he had no commission but to make known to him the resolution of his majesty's ministers; but said that he should faithfully report the reasons that he had stated against the proceeding.

The Bellerophon and Tonnant put to sea from Plymouth Sound, on Friday, the 4th of August; and here we must explain the statement, that they failed to avoid the service of a writ of *habeas corpus*. The facts of the case are, that the concourse of boats in Plymouth Sound, and the loss of some lives which had already taken place, induced the government to remove the Bellerophon to a greater distance; and the writ which is spoken of was a subpoena from the court of king's-bench, obtained by Mr. Mackenrot, who had a cause pending in that court, in which he wanted the evidence of Napoleon and Jerome Bonaparte, and admiral Villamez. Now a writ of *habeas corpus*, it is well known, is, in England, a very imperative and important document; and though, no doubt, in the present circumstances, some means would have been found to render it ineffective, yet it was thought best to avoid it by a side-wind. The ships were ordered away; and the officer arrived with his subpoena at the house of Sir John Duckworth a few minutes after the Bellerophon had sailed.

The Northumberland failed from Portsmouth on the same day; and, on nearing Torbay on Sunday the 6th, perceived two line-of-battle ships approaching her, which proved to be the Bellerophon with Bonaparte on-board, and the Tonnant with lord Keith. In a few hours the Northumberland hailed them, and asked after Bonaparte, who,

who, she was informed, had not come out of his cabin for some days. The ships came to an anchor off Torbay.

General Bertrand went first on-board the *Tonnant*, where he dined with lord Keith and sir George Cockburn. He is a man of about fifty years of age, and extremely well behaved. At dinner, sir George gave him a general explanation of his instructions with respect to Bonaparte; one of which was, that his baggage must be inspected before it was received on-board the *Northumberland*. Bertrand expressed his opinion strongly against the measure of sending the emperor (as he and all his suite constantly styled him) to St. Helena, when his wish and expectation were to live quietly in England, under the protection of the English laws. Lord Keith and sir George Cockburn did not enter into any discussion upon the subject.

After dinner, lord Keith and sir George Cockburn, accompanied by Bertrand, went in the admiral's yacht toward the *Bellerophon*. Previously to their arrival, Bonaparte's arms and pistols had been taken away from him; not without considerable altercation and objections on the part of the French officers. Those who were not to accompany him, were ordered on-board the *Eurotas* frigate. They expressed great reluctance at the separation, particularly the Polish officers. Bonaparte took leave of them individually. A colonel Pistowski, a Pole, was peculiarly desirous of accompanying him. He had received seventeen wounds in the service of Bonaparte; and said he would serve in any capacity, however menial, if he could be allowed to go with him to St. Helena. The orders for sending off the Polish officers were peremptory, and he was removed to the *Eurotas*. He was, however, afterwards permitted to go to St. Helena.

When lord Keith and sir George Cockburn went on-board the *Bellerophon* on Sunday afternoon, Bonaparte was upon deck to receive them, dressed in a green coat with red facings, two epaulets, white waistcoat and breeches, silk stockings, the star of the legion of honour, and a chapeau bras with the three-coloured cockade. After the usual salutations, lord Keith, addressing himself to Bonaparte, acquainted him with his intended transfer from the *Bellerophon* to the *Northumberland*, and conveyance in that ship to St. Helena. He appeared very uneasy at the communication; and, after a long expostulation, sternly refused to go; but, on lord Keith's observing that such was the order of his government, and that he hoped he should not be under the necessity of resorting to coercive measures, Bonaparte replied, "Oh! no, no! You command! I must obey! You may take me: but recollect, I do not go with my own free will." He then formally protested in writing against the act before witnesses. He asked numerous questions of lord Keith, which his lordship very properly declined answering.

Sir George Cockburn said, "At what hour to-morrow morning shall I come, General, and receive you on-board the *Northumberland*?"

Bonaparte, with some surprise at being styled General, replied, "At ten o'clock."

Marshal Bertrand, madame Bertrand, Savary, Lallemand, count and countess Montholon, were standing near Bonaparte. Sir George Cockburn asked if they wanted any thing more before they put to sea. Bertrand replied, fifty packs of cards, a backgammon and a domino table; and madame Bertrand desired to have some necessary furniture, which it was said should be furnished forthwith. One of Bonaparte's officers, the nephew of his first wife, complained that faith had not been kept with the emperor, who expected to reside with his suite in Great Britain. Bonaparte asked lord Keith's advice. His lordship merely replied, that he had to obey the orders he had received from his government. Bonaparte then desired another interview with his lordship. Lord Keith declined it, alleging that it could only be unsatisfactory; he had no discretion—his fate could not be altered.

An officer who stood near him said, "You would have been taken if you had remained at Rochefort another hour,

and sent off to Paris." Bonaparte turned his eye upon the speaker, but did not say a word.

Bertrand asked, what we should have done, had we taken them at sea? "As we are doing now," was the reply.

Bonaparte then addressed himself to sir George Cockburn, and asked several questions about St. Helena: "Is there any hunting or shooting there? Where am I to reside?" He soon abruptly changed the subject, and burst into more invectives against the government, to which no answer was returned. He then expressed some indignation at being styled General; saying, "You have sent ambassadors to me as a sovereign potentate; you have acknowledged me as first consul." He took a great deal of snuff whilst speaking.—After reminding him that the *Northumberland's* barge would come for him at ten on Monday morning, lord Keith and sir George Cockburn retired.

Early on Monday morning, sir George Cockburn went on-board the *Bellerophon*, to superintend the inspection of Bonaparte's baggage. It consisted of two services of plate, several articles in gold, a superb toilet of plate, books, beds, &c. They found but 4000 gold Napoleons, and these were sealed up and detained. They were all sent on-board the *Northumberland* about eleven o'clock.

Bonaparte had brought with him from France about forty servants, amongst whom were a groom, postillion, and lamplighter. Two-thirds of these were sent on-board the *Eurotas*. As soon as his baggage had been removed from one ship to the other, the parting scene commenced, which was truly affecting. Previous to the moment of separation, Bonaparte gave some of his officers who were to be left behind a certificate to the following effect, which had been first drawn up, at the general request, by general Gourgaud, and then altered by Bonaparte himself. "Circumstances prevent my retaining you any longer near me. You have served me with zeal. I have always been satisfied with you. Your conduct on this last occasion deserves my praise, and confirms me in what I had reason to expect from you. On-board the *Northumberland*, 7th August, 1815. NAPOLEON."

At half past eleven, lord Keith, in the barge of the *Tonnant*, went on-board the *Bellerophon* to receive Bonaparte and those who were to accompany him. Bonaparte, before their arrival and afterwards, addressed himself to captain Maitland and the officers of the *Bellerophon*. After descending the ladder into the barge, he pulled off his hat to them again. Lord Keith received in the barge the following personages: BONAPARTE; General Bertrand and Madame Bertrand, with their children; Count and Countess Montholon and child; Count Las Cases; General Gourgaud; nine men and three women servants. Bonaparte's surgeon refused to accompany him; upon which the surgeon of the *Bellerophon*, Mr. O'Meara, offered to supply his place. Bonaparte was this day dressed in a cocked hat, much worn; with a tricoloured cockade: his coat was buttoned close round him; a plain green one, with a red collar; he had three orders, two crosses, and a large silver star, with the inscription *Honneur et Patrie*; white breeches, silk stockings, and gold buckles.

The barge slowly approached the vessel which was prepared to receive Napoleon on-board; and lord Keith, as it may be presumed, from a noble delicacy to his situation and feelings, declined receiving the usual compliments attendant on his rank, that they might, according to their settled form, devolve on the ex-emperor, whose founding titles had passed away with the power that bestowed them. A captain's guard of marines was arranged on the poop to wait his arrival, with orders to present arms, and the drum to beat the roll thrice; the usual salute to a general officer in the British service.

When the barge of the *Tonnant* reached the *Northumberland*, the quarter-deck was covered with officers; and there were also some individuals of rank, who had come

round, from motives of curiosity, to view the passing scene. The marines occupied the front of the poop, and the officers kept the quarter-deck. An universal silence prevailed when the barge reached the side; and there was a grave but anxious aspect in all the spectators, which was no small addition to the solemnity of the ceremonial. Count Bertrand ascended first; and, having bowed, retired a few steps to give place to him whom he still considered as his master, and in whose presence he appeared to feel that his most respectful homage was still due. The whole ship's company seemed at this moment to be in breathless expectation. Lord Keith was the last who quitted the barge; and we cannot give a more complete idea of the wrapt attention of all on-board to the figure of Napoleon, than that his lordship, high as he is in naval character, admiral also of the channel-fleet, and arrayed in the full uniform of his rank, and with the decorations of his order, did not seem to be noticed, nor scarcely even to be seen, among the groupe which was subject to him.

With a slow step Bonaparte mounted the gangway; and, on feeling himself firm on the quarter-deck, he raised his hat, when the guard presented arms, and the drum rolled. The officers of the Northumberland, who were uncovered, stood considerably in advance. Those he approached, and saluted with an air of the most affable politeness. He then addressed himself to sir George Cockburn, and said "*Je suis à vos ordres.*" After taking leave of the officers who had accompanied him from the Bellerophon, and embracing the nephew of Josephine, who was not going to St. Helena, he went into the after-cabin, where, besides his principal companions, were assembled lord Keith, sir George Cockburn, lord Lowther, Mr. Lyttleton, &c.

In the afternoon lord Keith took leave of Bonaparte, and returned on-board the Tonnant. Lord Lowther and Mr. Lyttleton then entered into very earnest conversation with him, which continued for two hours. As he was very communicative, and seemed desirous of a free conversation with these two young gentlemen, they availed themselves of the opportunity, and entered into a review of much of his conduct. To all their questions he gave full answers, not avoiding, but rather encouraging, discussion. A long account of this conversation was presently given in the London papers, the greater part of which was soon after contradicted in the Worcester Herald; so our safest way is to say nothing about it. In all probability, nothing very important was extracted from Bonaparte by these young men. They, however, returned ashore highly gratified at having had two hours' conversation with so great a personage.

The state-cabin for the fallen hero, on-board the Northumberland, was fitted up with great elegance; his bed was peculiarly handsome, and the linen upon it very fine; the toilet is of silver. Among other articles upon it is a magnificent snuff-box, upon which is embossed, in gold, an eagle, with a crown, flying from Elba to the coast of France; the eagle just seeing the coast of France, and the respective distances, are admirably executed. The valets-de-chambre were particularly fine men; they, and all about him, always addressed him by the title of Emperor; one of them was formerly a servant of the duke of York, and perhaps fixed there as a spy.

After waiting for the Weymouth store-ship, and some other vessels destined to compose the little squadron, the whole finally sailed on the 11th of August, bearing Cæsar and his fortunes to a different sphere from that to which he had hitherto been accustomed.

The conduct and conversations of this extraordinary personage and his suite, during the voyage and first months of his residence at that island, have been very fully related by Mr. Warden, surgeon of the Northumberland, in a series of Letters written by him to a friend in England, and published in the following year, 1816. These Letters were read with great avidity in London,

because, being the result of personal interviews with the ex-emperor, and familiar conversations with his suite, it was concluded that they must contain correct accounts of various important particulars which had been hitherto imperfectly understood, or misrepresented. But these conversations have now become less interesting, and the public admiration has passed away. The Quarterly Review for Oct. 1816. exposed some inconsistencies in the work, and should be read in conjunction with it. Mr. Warden confesses, that "a certain delicacy was maintained" in communicating to Napoleon the contents of our public journals; in short, that they told him lies. And the following passage is still more plain to the purpose: "That truth is not to be spoken, or in any way imparted, at all times, is a proverb which was now faithfully adhered to on-board the Northumberland." In the communications, therefore of these persons, and of Napoleon himself, to Mr. Warden, it is obvious to remark, that, instead of a *correct* account of certain particulars, these persons would only give to them that *colouring* which best suited their own purpose; for few will give credit to their constant and repeated declarations, "that Napoleon's political life was terminated." That had been the declaration after the first abdication. We do not believe that *even now* they think it terminated. With these cautions as to the perusal of Mr. Warden's Letters, we still think they contain much interesting matter; and shall therefore make a few extracts; but they will not relate, we believe, to any controverted points.

"Bonaparte, previous to his leaving the Bellerophon, was, it seems, recommended to select three of his suite to accompany him to St. Helena. Bertrand was, at that time, supposed to be particularly proscribed; but it is understood, that lord Keith took upon himself the responsibility of including such an attached friend in the number of the exiled general's attendants. The others were the count de las Cafes, who had been a captain in the French navy, and is a man of literary attainments; general count Montholon, and lieutenant-general Gourgaud, his two aides-de-camp, who were devoted to his fortunes. The latter officers served him in the Russian campaign, and describe the winter which they encountered there in all its horrors. The Russian cavalry they extol; but represent the Cossacks as easily dispersed. They do not appear to hold the Prussians in very high estimation; but consider them, at the same time, as superior to the Austrians. The English infantry, at the battle of Waterloo, filled them with absolute astonishment; but they represent our cavalry as much too impetuous; they probably found them so on that glorious day. In a conversation with Count Bertrand, which happened to glance on that subject, he could not hide his sensations. The little he said was in a plaintive tone, though expressed with candour, and accompanied with expressive shrugs of lamentation. We fought that day, he said, for the crown of France; but you gained the battle, and we are undone.

"From the information I received in my conversation with our French guests, it appears, that the emperor's abdication, in favour of his son, is a matter which, as far at least as my knowledge extends, has been altogether misconceived in England; I mean as to the immediate and proximate causes of it. If the communications made to me were correct, (and I am not willing to imagine that they were invented merely to impose upon me,) a grand political scheme was contrived by Fouché to out-wit his master, and it proved successful. The name of that crafty politician and ready revolutionist is never mentioned by the members of our little cabin Utica without the accompaniment of execrations, which it is not necessary for you to hear, as it would be ridiculous for me to repeat. (See p. 534, 550.) Not Talleyrand himself is so loaded with them as the arch-betrayer who has been just mentioned. It was, indeed, a decided opinion of the moment, among our exiles, that Fouché would contrive to hang Talleyrand, or that the latter would provide an equal fate for the former;

former; and that, if they both were suspended from the same gibbet, it ought to be preserved as an object of public respect for the service it had done to mankind. The *livrette* to which I have alluded, was thus related.

"On Napoleon's return to Paris, after his disastrous defeat at Waterloo, and when he may be supposed to have been agitated by doubt and perplexity as to the conduct he should pursue, a letter was offered to his attention by the duke of Otranto, as having been received by the latter from prince Metternich, the Austrian minister. It was dated in the *preceding April*; and the diplomatic writer stated the decided object of his imperial master to be the final expulsion of Napoleon the First from the throne of France; and that the French nation should be left to their uninterrupted decision, whether they would have a monarchy under Napoleon the Second, or adopt a republican form of government. Austria professed to have no right, and consequently felt no intention, to dictate to the French nation. The final and ratified expulsion of the traitor, (such was the expression,) is all the Austrian emperor demands of France. Napoleon seized the bait; and immediately abdicated in favour of his son: but he had no sooner taken this step, than he discovered the double game that Fouché was playing. The letter was a forgery; and it soon appeared, that the emperor of Austria had it not in his power, if he had ever indulged the contemplation, to clothe his grandson with a political character.

"The name of Talleyrand happening again to occur in the course of conversation with our French shipmates, the high opinion entertained of his talents by the Bonapartists was acknowledged without reserve. On my asking at what period he was separated from the councils and confidence of Napoleon, it was replied, at the invasion of Spain. I then observed, that the reports in England respecting that circumstance were correct as to time, and I presumed were equally so as to the cause; his unreserved disapprobation of that bold and adventurous enterprise. This met with an instant contradiction; which was followed by a most decisive assertion, that the prince of Benevento approved of the Spanish war, and founded his recommendation of that measure on his unalterable opinion, which he boldly communicated to the emperor, that his life was not secure while a Bourbon reigned in Europe.

"I entered further on this subject with madame Bertrand; and she actually and most unequivocally asserted, that Talleyrand was in secret communication with Napoleon when they were last at Paris, and that he would have joined them in a month. His proposed departure from Vienna to take the waters at Aix-la-Chapelle was under the cloak of indispotion, to conceal his duplicity. 'Can you persuade yourself, madame,' I said, 'that Talleyrand, if he had the inclination, possessed the power to influence the court of Vienna in favour of his son-in-law?'—'The court of Vienna!' she exclaimed, 'O yes, yes: he has the capacity to influence all the courts in Europe! If he had but joined the emperor, we should at this instant have been in Paris, and France would never more have changed its master.'—Of this man's virtues I heard no eulogium; but you will now be a competent judge how his political talents were appreciated in the French circle on-board the Northumberland. See *MALEVENTUM*, vol. xiv. p. 194.

"Every one remembers the threatened invasion of England in 1805, and the various conjectures which were formed on this momentous subject. It was not, according to my recollection, by any means generally considered as practicable; nor did any very great apprehensions prevail that it would be attempted. I will, however, give you my authority for the actual intention of carrying it into execution. Bonaparte positively avers it. He says, that he had two hundred thousand men on the coast of France opposite to England, and that it was his determination to head them in person. It was hinted to him, however, that his flotilla was altogether insufficient; and

that such a ship as the Northumberland would run down fifty of them. This he readily admitted: but he stated that his plan was to rid the channel of English men-of-war; and for that purpose he had directed admiral Villeneuve, with the combined fleets of France and Spain, to sail apparently for Martinique, for the express purpose of distracting our naval force, by drawing after him a large portion, if not all, of our best ships. Other squadrons of observation would follow; and England might, by these manœuvres, be left sufficiently defenceless for his purpose. Villeneuve was directed, on gaining a certain latitude, to take a baffling course back to Europe; and, having eluded the vigilance of Nelson, to enter the English channel. The flotilla would then have sallied forth from Ostend, Dunkirk, Boulogne, and the adjoining ports. The intention was to have dashed at the capital, by the way of Chatham. He well knew, he added, that he should have to encounter many difficulties; the object, however, was so great as to justify him in making the attempt. But Villeneuve was met on his return by sir Robert Calder; and, having suffered a defeat, took refuge in Ferrol. From that harbour he was peremptorily ordered to sea, according to his original instructions; but, contrary to their most imperative and explicit intent, he steered his course for Cadiz: 'He might as well,' exclaimed Napoleon, raising his voice, and increasing his impetuosity, 'he might as well have gone to the East Indies.' Two days after Villeneuve had quitted his anchorage before Cadiz, a naval officer arrived there to supersede him. The victory of Trafalgar soon followed; and the French admiral died a few days after his arrival in France: report says, by his own hand.

"On our approach to Madeira, the hazy state of the atmosphere precluded the possibility of seeing the island, until we got close between Puerto Santo and the Deserts. The latter rocky island is almost perpendicular; and has some slight resemblance to St. Helena. This circumstance I mentioned to Las Cafes, and he instantly communicated it to Napoleon, who had quitted the dinner-table sooner than usual, and joined a few of us on the poop: but the comparison of what he now saw with his gloomy notions of the place where he was shortly to abide, produced not a single word: he gave an energetic shrug, and a kind of contemptuous smile; and that was all. The sloping front and luxuriant aspect of the island of Madeira could not but excite an unpleasant sensation, when contrasted with the idea he had entertained of the huge black rock of St. Helena. I had presented Johnson's work on the influence of Tropical Climates on European Constitutions to his perusal. That writer has been very lavish of his encomiums on St. Helena; but he acknowledges that he only lay at anchor off it for three days; and its acute reader ridiculed the glowing descriptions which were founded on such a transient and imperfect view of the place.

"The name of the empress Josephine happening to occur, she became the spontaneous subject of very animated eulogiums; when she was represented as possessing a sweetness of disposition, an elegance of manners, and a certain melody of voice, that irresistibly charmed every one, without any exception as to situation or capacity, who were admitted to her presence. The sudden death of this excellent lady was generally lamented, and is attributed to a very extraordinary circumstance, and a very exalted personage. I will relate the events to you in the words, as far as memory serves, in which the count de las Cafes conveyed it as an undeniable fact to me. Josephine, it seems, had so far won the admiration and high esteem of the emperor Alexander, that his imperial majesty used to dedicate many of his leisure hours to the pleasure of her fascinating conversation: his visits were not only frequent, but continual, during his stay at Paris. Her state of health was but indifferent; and, on some particular occasion, her physician had prescribed medicines of a nature that required the utmost care and precaution,

and

and an absolute confinement to her chamber: but, at this time, the emperor paid one of his visits, when her respect for him rendered her incautious, and she received the imperial guest in the usual manner: they walked, during the time of his stay, in the gardens of Malmaison; and the consequence of this promenade was fatal: she was seized with a violent inflammation in the lungs, which defied all medical assistance, and in a few days she was no more.

"Count Bertrand, in the history which he gave of the German campaign in 1807, took occasion to observe that Bonaparte had very seldom employed spies. (See p. 534, 5.) He appeared, in the course of his warfare, to know but one instance of a person being engaged by his master in that capacity, which was in Italy; at the same time he acknowledged that the services performed by that person were of considerable importance. In speaking also of Napoleon's talents, for which he uniformly avows the most profound admiration, he expressed himself to the following effect: 'When I was first admitted to the emperor's confidence, he employed me on a particular service, and no zeal was wanting, on my part, to execute it; but I found it impracticable; and I did not hesitate to submit my opinion to him that it was absolutely so. It may be so to *you*, he replied; but in what manner did you proceed? I accordingly explained the means I had pursued. You have failed, he said, in following your own plans: now see what success you will have in pursuing mine. These he explained; I adhered to them of course, and succeeded. I then determined never again to suppose that any commands of his could fail of being fulfilled; and, in any future operations which he entrusted to me, the idea of impossibility never occurred to my thoughts.'

"Having crossed the line, the south-west winds occasioned our making a sweep off the gulf of Guinea, before we were enabled to shape a course for our destined port. The declining sun of the 14th of October, 1815, shot out a parting ray e'er it sunk beneath the horizon. Under this small illumined space was obscurely perceived the lofty peak of Saint Helena. The memorable morning soon dawned which was to usher in the commencement of Napoleon's exile.

"The sensation excited in the little colony of St. Helena, on the arrival of this extraordinary guest, may be more easily imagined than described. Curiosity, astonishment, and interest, combined to rouse the inhabitants from their habitual tranquillity, into a state of busy activity and inquisitive solicitude.

"The morning was pleasant, and the breeze steady. At dawn we were sufficiently near to behold the black peak of St. Helena: between eight and nine we were close under the Sugarloaf-hill. The whole of the French party had quitted their cabins, with the exception of Napoleon, and taken their respective stations. On the right stood madame Montholon, with her arm entwined in that of the general, her husband; on the poop sat madame Bertrand, and the marshal stood behind her. I was the only unoccupied person belonging to the ship; and could therefore, undisturbed, contemplate the scene around me. I was afraid to approach madame Bertrand, for I was near enough to perceive an action in the muscle of her throat which betokened a sob. Las Cafes, resting his arm on the shoulder of his son, was stretching his little figure on tip-toe, but in vain, to look over the gangway; for all his exertion would not enable him to see more than half-way down the mountain. General Gourgaud endeavoured, by a smile, to suppress what he felt; for he had no female to console him. The servants were gazing with open mouths, and all their eyes; while the children, unconscious of island or rock, prison or palace, were performing their little evolutions as usual; and the Newfoundland dog would occasionally break in upon their hollow squares. We did not see Napoleon till the ship had anchored in front of the town. About eleven he made his appearance; he ascended the poop-ladder, from which he could

examine every gun that bristles at the mouth of James's Valley, in the centre of which the town of that name, and the only one in the island, is situate. While he stood there, I watched his countenance with the most observant attention, and it betrayed no particular sensation: he looked as any other man would look at a place which he beheld for the first time. I shall also take this opportunity to mention that, during the whole voyage, from the moment the Northumberland set sail from England to its arrival at St. Helena, I never saw any change in the placid countenance and unassuming manners of our distinguished shipmate; nor did I hear of a discontented look, or a peevish expression, being remarked by any other person in the ship. The ladies, indeed, discovered some distress on the first view of their rocky cage; but their general conduct on the occasion, displayed a degree of self-possession which was not expected of them.

"The first object of the admiral was to make the necessary arrangements for the accommodation of Napoleon and his suite; and the lieutenant-governor's house was appropriated for that purpose, till a proper place could be prepared for his fixed residence. It was not, therefore, till the 17th, that they disembarked. After sun-set on that day, when the inhabitants of the town, wearied out in waiting for the spectacle of Bonaparte's landing, had retired to their homes, he, according to the wish he had expressed, went unobserved to the house where he was to pass the first night as an inhabitant of St. Helena. At an early hour of the following morning, the general was on horseback, accompanied by sir George Cockburn. They ascended the mountain to *Longwood*, which was to be the residence of a man, on an isolated rock in Africa, who had possessed gorgeous palaces in so many of the splendid cities of Europe.

"About a mile from the town, and midway up the mountain, stands the country-house of a most respectable man, and a merchant of the island, Mr. Balcombe; it is named the Briars, and is situated on a level spot, which might almost be imagined to have been formed by art in the steep ascent. It occupies about two acres, and is bountifully supplied with water, by whose irrigating influence a pleasing and contrasted scene of vegetation, enriched by fruit-trees, has been produced; and seems, as it were, suspended between the heights above and the depths below. Here Napoleon, on his descent from Longwood, was induced to call; and such was the hospitable importunity of the amiable master of the mansion, that he relinquished his intention of descending to the valley, and thereby avoided the public gaze that was waiting his appearance.

"On an elevated mound, about fifty yards from the house, is a gothic building, having one room below, and two small apartments above. This maisonette Napoleon chose for his residence, till Longwood could be completed. There was no choice in the arrangement of this confined abode: the ground-floor was, of course, occupied by him, while Las Cafes, with his son, who was a page, and the valet in waiting, were to possess the upper story.

"The *Briars* had derived, and will ever retain, a certain degree of celebrity, from its having been the unexpected residence of Napoleon; and this circumstance will, I doubt not, bring to your recollection, the various instances where remote and obscure situations, which never formed the smallest speck on a map, have, by accidental events, become important points in the geography of the historian. Napoleon frequently makes one of Mr. Balcombe's family-parties, where he is neither troublesome nor intrusive, but conducts himself with the manners of a gentleman, and a lively demeanour that promotes the general vivacity of the domestic circle.

"On his removal to Longwood, certain limits were assigned him for exercise, around which a cordon of sentinels were stationed. While he continues within the circle, he experiences no additional vigilance; but, when he ventures beyond, an officer is on duty to attend him. The

latter circumstance, which he considers as irksome, disposes him to confine himself in a great measure to the grounds of his mansion.

"I observed to him, that, considering the active life he had led, it did not appear that he took sufficient exercise to preserve himself in a right state of health. He replied, 'My rides, indeed, are too confined; but the being accompanied by an officer is so very disagreeable to me, that I must be content to suffer the consequences of abridging them. However, I feel no inconvenience from the want of exercise. Man can accustom himself to privations. At one period of my life I was many hours on horseback every day for six years; and I was once eighteen months without passing from the house.' He often returned to the grievance of being watched by an officer. 'You are acquainted,' he said, 'with the island of St. Helena; and must be sensible that a sentinel, placed on either of these hills, can command the sight of me from the moment I quit this house till I return to it. If an officer or soldier placed on that height will not satisfy your governor, why not place ten, twenty, or a troop of dragoons. Let them never lose sight of me; only keep an officer from my side.'

"The arrival of a fleet at the island from India, crowded the little town with passengers, who were all, as usual, eager to see Bonaparte. The countess of Loudon disembarked from this fleet; and, during her stay at St. Helena, was accommodated at Plantation-house, the residence of the governor. In compliment to this lady, a dinner of ceremony was given on the following day, by Sir Hudson Lowe; and an invitation was dispatched through general Bertrand to general Bonaparte, so arranged in point of politeness and etiquette, as to justify an expectation that it would be accepted. Count Bertrand delivered the governor's card, which was read and returned without a word of observation. 'Sire,' said Bertrand, 'what answer is it your majesty's pleasure that I should return?' — 'Say, the emperor gave no answer.' — Napoleon afterwards, in conversation with Mr. Warden, said, 'What! go to dinner, perhaps, with a file of soldiers to guard me! After all, they could not, I think, expect me to accept the invitation. The distance is considerable, and the hour unreasonable; and I have almost relinquished the idea of exceeding my chain, accompanied as I must be by an officer.'

Mr. Warden quitted St. Helena in June 1816. He says at parting, "I had been uniformly treated with such respectful kindness, and, in some degree, with such partial confidence, by Gen. Bertrand, Mons. de las Cases, and, indeed, by every one of the suite, that I could not take leave of them without a considerable degree of sensibility. A more amiable, united, and delightful, family, than that of Gen. Bertrand, I never yet saw: nor is his affection as a husband, and his fondness as a father, less striking than his fidelity to his master."

About the time that Mr. Warden arrived in England, (probably in the same ship or fleet,) there came also from St. Helena a Mons. Santini, who called himself Napoleon's usher of the cabinet. On his arrival, he immediately published a pamphlet, containing a narrative of the ill-treatment which, he said, his master had received since his arrival on that island. In this narrative, which he entitled, "An Appeal to the British Nation on the Treatment experienced by Napoleon Bonaparte in the Island of St. Helena," was an official Memorial or Remonstrance, (dictated by Napoleon,) from count Montholon to Sir Hudson Lowe, the governor of the island. As this Memorial was discussed in the British senate, its authenticity being acknowledged by the government, we shall lay some parts of it before our readers.

Letter, by order of the Emperor Napoleon, addressed, by General Count Montholon, to Sir Hudson Lowe, British Governor of the Island of St. Helena.

"General; I have received the Treaty of the 2d of Vol. XVIII. No. 1265.

August, 1815, concluded between his Britannic Majesty, the Emperor of Austria, the Emperor of Russia, and the King of Prussia, which accompanied your letter of the 23d of July.

"The Emperor Napoleon protests against the contents of that Treaty; he is not the prisoner of England. After having placed his abdication in the hands of the representatives of the nation, for the advantage of the constitution adopted by the French people, and in favour of his son, he repaired voluntarily and freely to England, with a view of living there, as a private individual, under the protection of the British laws. The violation of every law cannot constitute a right. The person of the Emperor Napoleon is actually in the power of England; but he neither has been, nor is, in the power of Austria, Russia, and Prussia, either in fact or of right, even according to the laws and customs of England, which never included, in the exchange of prisoners, Russians, Prussians, Austrians, Spaniards, or Portuguese, though united to these powers by treaties of alliance, and making war conjointly with them.

The Convention of the 2d of August, concluded fifteen days after the emperor was in England, cannot have, of right, any effect. It exhibits only a spectacle of the coalition of the four greatest powers of Europe, for the oppression of a single man! a coalition which the opinion of every nation, and all the principles of sound morality, equally disavow.

"The Emperors of Austria and Russia, and the King of Prussia, having, neither in fact, or in right, any claim over the person of the Emperor Napoleon, could decide nothing respecting him.

"Had the Emperor Napoleon been in the power of the Emperor of Austria, that prince would have recollected the relations which religion and nature have formed between a father and a son; relations which are never violated with impunity. He would have recollected that Napoleon had four times restored to him the throne; viz. at Leoben, in 1797; at Luneville in 1801, when his armies were under the walls of Vienna; at Presburg, in 1806; and at Vienna, in 1809, when his armies had possession of the capital and three-fourths of the monarchy! That prince would have recollected the protestations he made to Napoleon, at the bivouac in Moravia in 1806, and at the interview in Dresden in 1812.

"Had the person of the Emperor Napoleon been in the power of the Emperor Alexander, he would have recollected the ties of friendship contracted at Tilfit, Erfurth, and during twelve years of daily correspondence. He would have recollected the conduct of the Emperor Napoleon the day after the battle of Austerlitz, when, though he could have made him, with the wreck of his army, prisoner, he contented himself with taking his parole and allowed him to operate his retreat. Assuredly, that prince would never have violated the duties of friendship and gratitude towards a friend in misfortune.

"Had the person of the Emperor Napoleon been in the power of the King of Prussia, that sovereign could not have forgotten that it depended on Napoleon, after the battle of Friedland, to place another prince on the throne of Berlin. He would not have forgotten, in the presence of a disarmed enemy, the protestations of attachment, and sentiments of gratitude, which he testified to him in 1812, at the interviews in Dresden.

"It accordingly appears, from articles two and five of the treaty of the 2d of August, that these princes, being incapable of exercising any influence over the disposal of the emperor, who was not in their power, accede to what may be done thereon by his Britannic majesty, who takes upon himself the charge of fulfilling every obligation. These princes have reproached the Emperor Napoleon with having preferred the protection of the English laws to theirs. The false ideas which the Emperor Napoleon had formed of the liberality of the laws of England, and of the influence of the opinion of a great, generous,

nerous, and free, people, over their government, decided him to prefer the protection of these laws to that of a father-in-law, or an old friend.

"The Emperor Napoleon had it in his power to secure, by a diplomatic treaty, whatever was personal to himself, by putting himself either at the head of the army of the Loire, or at the head of the army at the Gironde commanded by General Claufel; but wishing, henceforth, for nothing but retirement, and the protection of the laws of a free state, either English or American, all stipulations appeared to him unnecessary. He conceived that the English people were more bound by a conduct which was, on his part, frank, noble, and full of confidence, than they would have been by the most solemn treaties. He has been deceived; but this error will for ever cause true Britons to blush, and will, in the present as well as future generations, be a proof of the bad faith of the English administration.

"The English ministers have caused the Emperor Napoleon to be transported to St. Helena, at the distance of 2000 leagues from Europe! This rock, situated within the tropics, and 500 leagues from any continent, is subject to the devouring heats of these latitudes. It is covered with clouds and fogs during three-fourths of the year, and is at once the most arid and most humid country in the world. Such a climate is most inimical to the health of the emperor; and hatred must have dictated the choice of this residence, as well as the instructions given by the English ministry to the officers commanding in the island.

"They have even been ordered to call the Emperor Napoleon *General*, as if it were wished to oblige him to consider himself as never having reigned in France.

"The treaty of the 2d of August, and the act of the British parliament, called the emperor *Napoleon Bonaparte*, and gave him only the title of *General*. The title of *General Bonaparte* is doubtless eminently glorious: the emperor bore it at Lodi, at Castiglione, at Rivoli, at Arcole, at Leoben, at the Pyramids, at Aboukir; but for seventeen years he has borne that of First Consul and Emperor, which proves that he has been both first magistrate of the republic, and sovereign of the fourth dynasty.

"It is in the same hateful spirit that orders have been given that the Emperor Napoleon shall not be allowed to write or receive any letters, unless they are opened and read by the English ministers and the officers at St. Helena. They have interdicted to him the possibility of receiving intelligence from his wife, his mother, his son, or his brothers; and when, in order to avoid the inconvenience of having his letters read by subaltern officers, he wished to send letters sealed to the prince-regent, he was told that the order could not be departed from, and that the letters must pass open, such being the instructions of the ministry. This conduct needs no observation; it gives rise, however, to strange ideas as to the spirit of the administration which could dictate what would be disavowed even at Algiers. Letters have arrived at St. Helena, for the officers in the suite of the emperor; they were broke open and transmitted to you, but you have not communicated them, because they did not come through the channel of the English ministry. Thus they had to go back four hundred leagues; and these officers had the grief of knowing that there was intelligence on the rock from their wives, their mothers, their children, and that they could not know the nature of it for six months.

"You have interdicted all correspondence between us and the inhabitants of the island; you have, in fact placed the house at Longwood *au secret*; you have even prevented any communication with the officers of the garrison; it seems, therefore, to be your study to deprive us of the little resource which this miserable territory affords, and we are here just as we should be on the insulated and uninhabited rock of Ascension. During the four months that you have been at St. Helena, you have, sir, rendered the situation of the emperor much worse. Count Bertrand has observed to you, that you violate even the laws of your legislature,

and that you trample under foot the rights of general officers, prisoners of war. You have replied, that you act according to the letter of your instructions, and that your conduct to us is not worse than is dictated by them. I have the honour to be, &c. MONTHOLON."

All these expressions look very well upon paper, and read very smooth. But, when we come to consider the facts of the case, we shall be convinced, that they have no foundation whatever; and that Bonaparte very well knew that no nation he could have submitted to, was likely to treat him with such humanity as the English. He therefore acted wisely in submitting to them. Let the reader look back to pages 535, 42, 4, 5, 53. and to various other passages in the course of this article; and, when he notices there, the extreme bitterness of the Prussians, and particularly of Blucher, against the French, let him judge what would have been the treatment of their chief, had he fallen into their hands. Had he given himself up to the magnanimous Alexander, he would most likely have been banished to Siberia, a climate not quite so congenial to the constitution of an Italian as that of St. Helena. By his father-in-law his treatment might perhaps have been more tolerable; but in no respects equal to that which he now continually laments and complains of. And indeed, when the matter was brought before the upper house of parliament, by lord Holland, on the 18th of March, 1817, lord Bathurst, after replying to various particulars, very justly observed, "that sir Hudson Lowe had only acted up to his instructions, and imposed such restrictions as were necessary to the secure keeping of the prisoner; that Bonaparte had expressed the belief that a change of government, in this country or in France, would be the means of his release; and that all his complaints had arisen from not being allowed to ride out without an attendant officer."

The narrative of M. Santini contained a variety of interesting particulars; and he endeavoured to prove that the ex-emperor had not only been ill-treated in regard to his rank, &c. but that he was absolutely exposed to a state of starvation. "It is to be recollected," says he, "that the governor took upon himself the entire charge of the maintenance of Napoleon and his suite; but the provisions he furnished were always in too small a quantity, and also very often of bad quality. In the latter case, when the emperor's house-steward (Cipriani) has found himself under the necessity of sending back the provisions, the articles were never replaced by others more fit for use, and it has been necessary to wait until the following day for a fresh supply. It has often happened that, on finding himself without any butcher's meat for the emperor's table, the steward has sent me to purchase a sheep, for which I paid four guineas; and often could only procure pork for making soup. Captain Poppleton of the 53d regiment, appointed to guard the emperor, if he is the man of honour I believe him to be, will not fail to bear witness that he has often lent candles to light this abode of desolation, as well as bread, butter, poultry, and even salt. I was even, from necessity, in the habit of repairing secretly to the English camp to purchase butter, eggs, and bread, of the soldiers' wives; otherwise the emperor would often have been without breakfast, and even without dinner. There is no water fit for cooking at Longwood: very good water may, however, be procured at a distance of 1200 yards, which might be conveyed to the emperor's barracks at an expense of 12 or 1500 francs. The house is supplied by the water which is brought from this fountain; but it is open only once during the day; at all other times it is locked. It is guarded by an English officer, who is scarcely ever present when water is wanted. There is a conduit for conveying water to the English camp; but it was thought unnecessary to do as much for the unfortunate Napoleon."

We have not room to notice any further particulars in the statement of M. Santini; but have now to observe, that it must be extremely vexatious to the bulk of the English

English nation, to hear, on the one hand, that the most miserable economy was practised towards Bonaparte and his suite; and, on the other, that the expenses of keeping them were beyond measure extravagant. Mr. Hume, on the 29th of March last (1821), moved in the house of commons, for accounts of the total expenditure incurred by this country, for the detention of Napoleon Bonaparte, since his surrender to the British. He believed that no account of that expenditure had been published since Bonaparte was first sent to St. Helena. Whatever opinions might prevail on the subject of his being detained in custody it might, in the present financial difficulties of this country, become a subject of very serious consideration, how far England should have to pay the whole of an expenditure, arising solely out of that detention. On the calculation of the expense, he thought he might say, that, should it be deemed necessary to keep Bonaparte a prisoner at St. Helena, it might be effectually done for one-tenth of the expenditure at present incurred for that purpose. It was, however, a very serious question, why England should incur the whole of an expense, for an object in which other countries had an equal, or indeed a greater, interest. At all events, if the expenditure were to be continued, it ought to be laid before parliament in the annual accounts. He had seen what he believed to be correct estimates of the expenses in 1819; and he had not heard that since that any great reduction had taken place in the amount of the accounts. The house would judge of the importance of the subject, when he stated the following items as forming a part of the expense of Bonaparte's detention: For the staff alone, there was an expenditure of nearly 24,000*l.* for military establishment, 193,674*l.* other incidental and contingent expenses at the Longwood establishment, 57,000*l.* vessels for provisioning the island, exclusive of the navy, he had heard estimated at 3000*l.* 4000*l.* or 5000*l.* naval expenses of one 74-gun ship, and nine smaller vessels, 160,000*l.* making a total considerably exceeding 400,000*l.* per annum, for the sole purpose of keeping Bonaparte a prisoner. If it should be deemed advisable to detain Bonaparte, the country was entitled not only to inquire into the expenditure which would be necessary for such a purpose, but more particularly into the circumstance of who should pay it. He concluded by moving for the following series of papers: Copies of all correspondence or contracts between government and the East India Company, relating to the detention of Bonaparte at the island of St. Helena; also accounts of the pay, allowance, contingencies, extraordinary, &c. of the military establishment kept up on that island, distinguishing the number and pay of the troops, accounts of the number and expenditure of all ships of war, and other vessels on that station, and of all expenses paid in England, and to whom paid, relating to Bonaparte's detention, distinguishing the respective amounts, and for what and to whom paid, as well as out of what source, and whether any and what part was defrayed by other powers. These accounts to comprise the annual and total amount since Bonaparte's detention. Mr. Hume, after moving for these accounts, said that government had hitherto laid no accounts of this expenditure on the table of parliament; and he thought it quite time, now in the sixth year of peace, that not only these accounts should be forthcoming, but also that it should be known whether there was any secret understanding with other powers, and to what extent, for meeting the expense.—The papers were ordered.

From the first arrival of Bonaparte at St. Helena, it was acknowledged that the house at Longwood was not a residence fitted to a personage of his high rank; and another was ordered to be erected for him, the framework and materials of which were sent from England. After being five years in hand, it has at length been completed; and the latest news from the island, which are dated the 2d of March, state, that Bonaparte was in good health, had taken possession of it, and was very much pleased with it. The circuit to which the ex-emperor was formerly limited,

has recently been extended; and he is permitted to ride and walk in a space of not less than fourteen miles.

The general tone of English sentiment, since the surrender of this extraordinary man, affords a very striking instance of the involuntary homage paid by mankind to exalted talent. He is considered as merely the vanquished sovereign of a martial people, obliged by force of arms to yield to a competitor, which competitor can only remain secure by his captivity. This view of the case leaves the point of policy entirely open as it regards his safe disposal; but it clearly absolves him from the odium attached to him as a tyrannic ruler of France: he is a dethroned potentate and prisoner of war, and nothing more. As to the commanding qualities which render him an object of dread, let us dread them if we please, but let us not degrade ourselves by abusing the man because he possesses them. They have been mischievous, no doubt, as great energies uniformly are when they assume a military aspect; but we are quite at a loss to know in what respect they have been more so than those of other conquerors; or why he is peculiarly entitled to the hatred from which the spoliators of Poland, of Turkey, of Hindoostan, and so recently of Naples and Piedmont, have been permitted to escape.

Of the propriety of banishing this important captive to St. Helena, we profess to give no opinion: the cold will call it prudent, and the warm ungenerous: it may be disagreeable, but it is any thing but dishonourable to the individual himself. Our lighter task shall be to convey a few of the impressions they have made upon us, with respect to the character of the man, and of the nature of the qualities which give their possessor so much influence over mankind. There never was a man who obtained equal elevation that was less a king Arthur, less the king of a coronation, than Bonaparte, when at the pinnacle; and certainly there never was a man who endured overwhelming adversity with more dignity and composure. Wherever he sets his foot, his ascendancy is manifest; and yet it seems acquired without any extraordinary effort on his own part, by a deportment which, while it evinces his quick observation, his intuitive sagacity, and his mental decision, is both natural and unconstrained. Doubtless many who have seen him, and who even expected to see a great man, made up their minds to behold a very different personage. Some were probably prepared to witness a ferocious-looking man, with tremendous whiskers; others, a stalking elevated species of hussar, like the hero of a German tragedy. In Napoleon they see neither one nor the other, and yet they feel him superior: how is this? are there nobles of Nature's creation? We suppose there are; and that this man, although he has lost his throne, preserves his birth-right. In the mean time, his banishment to St. Helena seems, for the present, to divorce his fortune from that of the world, although many expect that the separation will not be eternal. With respect to *himself* we think it is; but, as it may regard his *descendants*, we are inclined to think otherwise.

The greatest of conquerors, in an age when great conquests appeared no longer possible; the most splendid of usurpers, when usurpation had not been heard of for centuries; who entered in triumph almost all the capitals of continental Europe, and led at last to his bed the daughter of her proudest sovereign; who set up kings and put them down at his pleasure; and, for sixteen years, defied alike the swords of foreign enemies, and the daggers of domestic factions;—this is the man on whom posterity must yet sit in judgment, but the evidence by which they are to judge must be transmitted to them by his contemporaries.

REIGN OF LOUIS THE EIGHTEENTH.

While we have been detailing (under FRANCE, as well as in the present article) the “acts and gestes of that horrid monster,” Napoleon Bonaparte, the reader will start at being reminded that all these things were done in the reign of Louis the Eighteenth, and that we are now arrived

rived at the twenty-first year of that mild and paternal reign. It will be fit, therefore, that we now bring our readers to a better acquaintance with him, by the insertion of a few biographical anecdotes.

Louis Stanislaus Xavier was born on the 17th of November, 1755, being the second son of the then Dauphin of France. From a long line of ancestors he inherited the name of *Louis*; that of *Stanislaus* was derived from his great grandfather, Stanislaus duke of Lorraine and king of Poland, whose only daughter, Maria Leczinski, was queen to Louis XV. whilst that of *Xavier* was taken from the electoral family of Saxony, his own mother, Maria Josepha, being daughter to the duke of that ancient division of the German empire. Whilst yet a child, he was designated by the title of Count de Provence, which he changed for Monsieur, when the death of his grandfather, Louis XV. left the throne for his elder brother, the late unfortunate monarch.

Monsieur appears not to have taken any active part in the politics of his native land until the year 1787, when, in the Assembly of the Notables, then first called together by Calonne, he declared himself hostile to all interference with noble and ecclesiastical privileges; but, at the same time, he was not forgetful of the welfare of the people, steadily maintaining that there was no necessity for any additional taxes to be laid on their industry, and always expressing his conviction that a few years of peace, of economy, and of regularity, would remove every financial difficulty; and it is generally believed, that the minister was induced, by the force of his reasoning, to lay aside much of the speculative and visionary part of his plans. Calonne, however, went out; and the succeeding ministers did not choose to pay attention to the modest advice of the unostentatious prince, who mixed but little either with the gay or the political world.

Hitherto Monsieur had resided some distance from Paris; but no sooner did the horrors of the revolution commence, in 1789, by the personal insults to the king obliging him to remove from Versailles to the capital, than he gave up his retirement, and became a resident in the Luxembourg palace, where he was, perhaps, the only real friend left to the unhappy Louis, as the Count d'Artois, now Monsieur, was then in Germany, whither he had emigrated with several others of the blood-royal.

The conspirators little knew the real spirit and resolution of the late unfortunate monarch; and, supposing that the advice of Monsieur alone had prompted him to the conduct of the moment, they used every means in their power to separate them, or at least to destroy the mutual confidence which subsisted between the two brothers. For that purpose, it is said, La Fayette and his party trumped up a plot about a marquis de Favres, in which they boldly asserted that Monsieur was implicated. Favres was tried; and, as Monsieur knew his innocence, he actually attended upon his trial to give evidence in his favour: but the municipal judges paid no attention to his protestations, and the unfortunate Favres fell a victim to the ambitious plans of La Fayette and Mirabeau, who, by this first revolutionary measure, this first revolutionary trial and condemnation, succeeded in imposing such a belief on the people as they wished, and raised such an odium against the unfortunate prince, that a regard to his own personal safety, when his exertions could no longer be of use to his brother, forced him to emigrate, which he was only able to do through the assistance of a friendly Swede, the count de Fersen, passing by the way of Valenciennes into Brabant; but not until he had actually heard the act of accusation against himself and all the Bourbons publicly cried about, having been printed at a jacobin press, evidently for the purpose of infusing his and their condemnation. Nor did he even then desert his brother; for the escape of the royal family was at the same time concerted, though it did not finally succeed.

No sooner did Monsieur arrive at Coblenz, where he found his now-surviving brother, and the other Bourbon

branches, than he immediately applied himself to the military arrangements necessary for raising and organizing an emigrant force under the auspices of the German emperor and other friendly monarchs; a force which he took under his own immediate command.

No sooner was it known that Monsieur had emigrated, than the new legislative government decreed that he had forfeited his eventual right to the regency, if he did not return within two months: but he knew too well the character of those he had to deal with, to trust to their mercy.

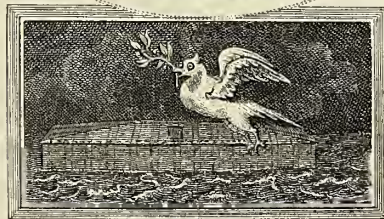
It is unnecessary to recapitulate the events of the period between that and the year 1795, (being already recorded in this work,) when the death of the Dauphin, or rather of Louis XVII. presented the distant view of a throne to the subject of our biography; a throne to which he was proclaimed the rightful heir, not only amongst the loyal emigrants in Germany, but even in La Vendée, in the west of France itself.

Little prospect, however, appeared of his being able to recover the throne of his ancestors; and accordingly he made no serious attempts for it, but resided quietly at the court of Turin, having been for some years married to the daughter of the Sardinian monarch. But even from this retreat he was driven by the advance of the republican armies; when he retired, in 1796, to Verona, a city in the Venetian territories, where he lived *incognito*, as Count de Lille: here, indeed, his residence was of very short duration, as Bonaparte quickly demanded his dismissal from the Venetian protection. To this demand the senate of that ancient and once-powerful state was obliged to agree; but not until the unhappy yet spirited prince had demanded admission to the Golden Book of the senate, which contained the names of all the Venetian nobles. In that book his great ancestor the gallant Henry IV. had once inscribed his name, and the name of Bourbon; and these the insulted monarch disdainfully erased from their records.

Even in his retreat from Verona he seems to have been followed by republican vengeance; for we have seen it recorded, that in the summer of 1797, whilst on his route through Germany, a foreign assassin, or a female regicide, watched for him there; and, whilst standing at the window of an inn in an obscure village, a shot was fired, which wounded him slightly in the head. His conduct on this occasion was most magnanimous, forbidding all search to be made after the villain, and saying, that "it must either be a mistake or a premeditated crime: in the former case, it would be cruel to pursue; and in the latter, as I have done no harm to any human being, the person who would murder me has punishment enough in his own bosom, and wants my forgiveness more than I do his death."

In the contest which Russia had with France, in 1798, the late emperor Paul found it expedient to acknowledge Louis XVIII. as the just claimant to the throne of that country; and it was his intention to assist him in recovering the throne of his ancestors; he offered him an asylum at Mittau, in Livonia, a proposal which the unhappy prince gladly accepted, his health being considerably impaired by the privations, distresses, fatigues, and even the penury and want, which he experienced in his noble adherence to the unfortunate loyalists of the Condéan army, at whose particular request it was that he was persuaded to indulge in a temporary repose.

The conduct of Paul was, at first, magnanimous and generous in the extreme, as his royal guest was received and treated with all the honours which a sovereign in his situation could possibly wish for, having not only a guard of native Russians appointed to attend upon him, but also one formed from the French noblesse; besides being permitted to draw around him as many of his loyal countrymen as he pleased, with whom the generous prince shared, in the most bounteous manner, the liberal allowance which Paul had appropriated to his use. Indeed, so



LOUIS XVIII.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1820.

anxious, was the emperor to make every arrangement for his comfort and influence, at the place of his residence, that the governor of Mittau was actually placed under his orders; and he was even encouraged to assume so much of the personal functions of royalty, as to have regular levees, at which the noblesse of the neighbouring provinces were proud to attend. But such events could not long remain unknown to the French republicans, who were successful, at length, in acquiring an undue influence over the councils of Paul, whom they persuaded, first, to distress the unhappy monarch by withholding the payment of his pension, and afterwards to send him orders to depart from the Russian dominions; a journey for which they allowed him only a week's preparation. All this was done at the instigation of that man whose recent downfall has restored Louis to the throne of his ancestors.

The duchess of Angoulême, his niece, resided with him at Mittau, accompanied by her husband. To her he explained his sad situation; and assured her, that, as he had not the means of travelling as he had formerly done, and as the little that he possessed would be necessary for the daily maintenance of those attached to him, so he would himself set them an example how to bear misfortune, and would the next day leave Mittau with them *on foot*.

However the duchess might venerate the magnanimity of her uncle, yet she dutifully determined to save him, if possible, from personal inconvenience; and sold to a Jew a valuable bow of diamonds, presented to her as a nuptial gift by her imperial relations at Vienna; by which means she raised a sum that enabled her uncle to travel comfortably.

In Prussia, Louis was treated rather as an enemy than as a friend: in fact, the Prussian cabinet were afraid to show him protection; and it was only, at length, by the forbearance of Napoleon Bonaparte, that the king of France was permitted to reside for some time at Warsaw, in the habitation of a monarch who had also been driven from his throne.

While residing at Warsaw, in 1804, Napoleon had the audacity to send several messengers to him with proposals for a formal abdication of his claims to the French crown; but the prudent and virtuous indignation of Louis guarded him from so mean a compliance: and when Meyer, the Prussian resident, repeated the same proposal on the part of the Corsican, it has been well observed, that the dignified answer of Louis was sufficient to convince the world, that, though fortune may desert virtue, and render it distressed or miserable, yet still she is unable to degrade or dishonour it.

After the accession of the present Russian monarch to the throne of his ancestors, an agreeable change took place in the situation of the French king, as ample and liberal allowances were made for the support of his household, but of which Louis availed himself very sparingly with respect to his own accommodation.

But even at Warsaw he was not permitted to remain undisturbed; for, in the month of July, 1805, a plot was formed by the now-degraded Napoleon, to get rid of those fears which hung about his usurped throne. A man of the name of Coulon, the keeper of a billiard-table at that place, was offered a large sum if he would take an opportunity, in consequence of his intimacy with the cook of the royal kitchen, to throw some poison into one of the culinary vessels. To detail all the particulars of this plot would far exceed our limits; but those who are curious about it will find a long and interesting detail in the third volume of the Revolutionary Plutarch, where a system of premeditated murder against every legitimate prince in Europe is disclosed upon authority which can scarcely be doubted. Nay, such was Napoleon's determination to get rid of all the members of the house of Bourbon, that Coulon was offered additional rewards in case the duchess of Angoulême and her husband should also fall victims to the same treachery.

Subsequent political events rendered it unsafe for
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Louis to reside upon the continent; and his only resource was the *land of real liberty*, where he arrived in October 1807, (see LONDON, p. 158.) and where he continued to reside till the counter-revolution in 1814, (p. 389.) gaining the esteem of all ranks and parties in the state: for, though political reasons, and the uncertainty of the issue of the war, rendered it prudent that our government should not ostensibly sanction the Bourbon claims, nor that the princes of that house should be received at court on public days, yet a great degree of private friendship subsisted between the princes of these two once-rival houses.

We have already noticed that Louis XVIII. whilst Monsieur, was married to a daughter of the king of Sardinia: a match, however, which was not blessed with any issue. Since his majesty's taking up his residence in this country, he had the misfortune to lose this very estimable woman, who bore the misfortunes both of her paternal and maternal family with a degree of fortitude honourable to her rank, and to the sex of which she was an ornament.

Louis XVIII. being at length seated, for the second time, on the throne, and the warlike operations of prominent importance being brought to a conclusion, we shall offer but one remark on the manner in which that restoration was effected. Our readers will recollect, that Great Britain did not sign the Treaty of the 25th of March, 1815, without annexing to it a declaration that, as it was directly repugnant to the principles of the British constitution to force a sovereign upon any nation, Britain joined the alliance, not for the purpose of forcing Louis on the people of France. (See p. 514.) The allies also acceded to this. What was the fact? The French were defeated at the battle of Waterloo: the conquerors marched to Paris, with Louis in their train. Paris submitted under a Convention; the chambers called upon the allied sovereigns to remember their Declaration, when they insisted Louis should be restored. It cannot be denied that Louis was replaced on the throne without ascertaining the wishes of the nation, and merely in consequence of the victories of the allies. If the allies concurred that it was necessary for the repose of Europe, not only that Bonaparte should be again driven from France, but also that Louis should be again placed on the throne of that kingdom, they should have clearly said so: at least they should not have disclaimed all intention of interfering with the internal government of France, and with the right of the French to choose their own sovereign, and then have acted directly contrary to their declaration.

A strong curiosity and interest were naturally excited to learn on whom Louis would fix for his ministers. In his former reign he was thought to have acted imprudently, by selecting, as his advisers, some of Bonaparte's oldest and staunchest adherents but it was believed that, taught by experience, he would, on this occasion, make a different selection. This idea, however, proved to be ill-founded, by an official declaration of the 9th of July 1815, from which it appeared that his majesty decided on having an administration composed of the following persons: Prince Talleyrand, peer of France, president of the council, and secretary-of-state for the department of foreign affairs; Baron Louis, secretary-of-state for the finances; Fouché duke of Otranto, for the department of general police; Baron Pasquier, for the department of justice, and keeper of the seals; Marshal Gouvion St. Cyr, peer of France, for the department of war; the Count de Jaucourt, peer of France, for the marine department; and the duke de Richelieu, peer of France, for the department of the household. Of those appointed to inferior posts were also several who had been in office under Bonaparte; a proof that it was thought necessary to conciliate a party which still remained numerous and powerful.

On the 13th, the king published another ordinance announcing the dissolution of the chamber of deputies, and regulating the mode of election for a new one. By these

these rules the candidates were declared eligible at the age of twenty-five (instead of forty); the deputies were to be persons paying at least 1000 francs (90l.) in taxes; and the whole number was augmented from 258, as fixed by the Constitutional Charter, to 420.

Bonaparte was much blamed for proscribing, or excepting from the general amnesty, eleven persons, not one of whom, however, he ever punished, or intended to punish. (See p. 516.) Louis acted in a different manner: we shall soon see his list of proscriptions followed by the trial and execution of the parties.

On the 24th of July, the king published two ordinances, or decrees. By the first, the following were declared no longer to form part of the chamber of peers: Dukes of Dantzic, Prassin, Plaifance, Elchingen, Albufera, Corneghiano, Trevifo, and Cadore; Counts Clermont de Ris, Cornudet, d'Aboville, de la Croix, d'Agier, Déjean, de l'Ande, Gaffendi, Lapede, Latour Maubourg, Canclaux, Cafabianca, Montequieu, Pontecoulant, Rampon, Segur, Valence, Belliard, and Bural, archbishop of Tours. We are not aware if these persons were deprived of their titles and all the privileges of nobility, so as to be reduced to the rank of private citizens, or whether they were only, as we should say, "expelled the house" of lords. But, at any rate, there was a saving-clause, of which some of them, we believe, have availed themselves, by which "those of the above named may be excepted from this arrangement, who shall prove that they have neither sat nor wished to sit in the self-styled chamber of peers to which they were summoned, they being bound to prove this within a month after the publication of the present ordinance."

The second decree consisted of two principal articles. By the first, the following nineteen generals and other officers were ordered to be arrested and brought before courts-martial, in their respective divisions:

Marshal Ney	Grouchy
Labeodyere	Clausel
Two brothers Lallemand	Laborde
Drouet d'Erlon	Debelle
Lefebvre Desnouettes	Bertrand
Ameilh	Drouet
Brayer	Cambrone
Gilly	Lavalette
Mouton Duvernet	Rovigo

By the second article, the following thirty-eight individuals were ordered to quit Paris within three days, and to retire into the interior of France, to the places which the minister of general police shall indicate to them, there to remain under his superintention, until the chambers decide as to which of them ought either to depart the kingdom, or be delivered up to prosecution before the tribunals.

Marshal Soult	Bassano
Alix	Felix Lepelletier
Excelmans	Mehée
Boulay de la Meurthe	Thibaudeau
Fressinet	Vandamme
Carnot	Lamarque (General)
Lobau	Le Lorgne-Dideville
Harel	Pire
Barrere	Arnault
Pommereuil	St. Jean d'Angely
Arrighi (of Padua)	Dejean, jun.
Garran	Real
Bouvier Dumolard	Durbach
Merlin of Douay	Dirat
Defermont	Felix Desportes
Bory St. Vincent	Meillinet
Garnier de Saintes	Cluys
Hullin	Forbin-Janson, the elder
Courtin	Marbot

While France was bleeding at every pore from the effects of foreign invasion and internal commotion, the spirit of revolt had spread to her colonies in the Caribbean ocean. The promptitude and decision, however, of the

British officers commanding in that station, with the loyalty and firmness of count Vaugirard, governor of Martinique, saved that fine colony from any convulsion. The inhabitants of Martinique, from being so long in the possession of the British, were, in general, well-affected to Louis XVIII. but the garrison, who were newly arrived from France, were not. To a man, they were for their former master; on which account they were, no doubt, selected for that employment. No sooner was the arrival of Bonaparte in France known, than the governor, arming the militia, on whom he knew he could depend, placed them in the forts; and, assembling the troops, he informed them of what had taken place in the mother-country, and declared his intention to remain faithful to Louis XVIII. He called upon the garrison to do so also, which they refused; and, to a man, shouted out for their beloved Napoleon. Count Vaugirard then informed them, that, so situated, they had but one course left to choose, which was to return to France in vessels which he had provided for that purpose; as he was determined, with the aid of the inhabitants, to preserve the colony to the king, till the assistance which he was certain he should receive from the British put it in his power to do so with safety. This expected assistance soon appeared, under sir James Leith and admiral Durham. The British general landed on the island, with a body of troops, on the 5th of June, 1815; and, occupying all the strong positions, kept the refractory soldiery in awe. The whole of the French troops, with the exception of part of a regiment, were afterwards permitted to depart from the island unarmed, in order to return to France. The terms on which this succour was afforded by the British commander was perfectly liberal. The sovereignty of the island was to remain entire with the king of France; the British troops, which were to act as auxiliaries to the governor, were to be maintained at the expense of the British government, and to preserve strict discipline; and the persons and properties of the inhabitants were to be fully respected by them.

In the island of Guadaloupe the revolutionary cause obtained a temporary triumph. A vessel having arrived from France, after a short passage, an insurrection broke out on the 18th of June, in which both the military and citizens declared for Bonaparte. The governor, admiral count de Linois, was placed under arrest; but the next day he was set at liberty, and immediately issued a proclamation, acquainting the inhabitants and soldiers that Napoleon had been received in France without resistance; that the tri-coloured flag was every-where waving, and that the colonists were expected to concur in this change of government. He concluded with *Vive l'Empereur!* On the same day, Napoleon was proclaimed in grand ceremony at Point-à-Petre, under the direction of the commandant, Fromentin, acting for general Bowyer, and with every display of enthusiastic joy. It was not, however, by a sudden effervescence of this kind that a durable revolution was to be effected; and, as soon as the affairs of Martinique were settled, preparations were making by the British commanders to wrest Guadaloupe from the imperial usurper. Sir James Leith, having collected troops from the Windward Islands and the continent of America, and made arrangements with sir Charles Durham, sailed, on the 31st of July, from Carlisle-bay in Barbadoes, whilst the land-force from St. Lucie, Martinique, and Dominica, was ordered to rendezvous at the Saintes. On the 7th of August, the whole force being assembled there, it was resolved to lose no time in making the attack, expedition being rendered necessary, as well by the approach of the hurricane-season, as by the internal state of Guadaloupe, in which the sanguinary scenes of the French revolution were about to be renewed. The 15th of the month, being Napoleon's birth-day, was, according to report, to have been solemnized by the execution of a number of royalists already condemned to death; and their rescue was an object of interest to the British commander.

Sir James Leith having made the necessary arrangements with

with the naval commander-in-chief, the whole fleet got under weigh at break of day on the 8th, and stood towards the Ance St. Sauveur, where the landing most to windward was to be effected. The British general received information that the troops of the line, and militia under arms, in the island, all together amounted to 6000. He determined, therefore, to throw his principal force between that of the French in Grande-terre and Basse-terre, where it was their intention to have assembled nearly the whole of their force, immediately after the demonstration of the British to windward had of necessity terminated. It was the plan of sir J. Leith to attack in three columns; the scarcity of boats and the surf required that the whole should assist in each disembarkation, which was therefore effected successively. The first was made at the Ance St. Sauveur, where a detachment of the French about 500 strong, moving from Grand-terre to join admiral Linois and general Bowyer, showed a disposition to oppose the landing. The brigs of war and gunboats, however, soon scoured that point, and 850 of the Royal York rangers, under lieutenant-colonel Stark, disembarked (notwithstanding a heavy surf) without the loss of a man. Meanwhile the fleet dropped down to Grande Ance, to effect the principal landing, where the enemy was in force, and possessed a strong position, with batteries commanding the landing-place, which was susceptible of obstinate defence. The brigs of war and a gunboat, placed to enfilade, soon obliged the French to abandon their guns, one of which only, a long twelve-pounder, was found mounted. The 15th and 25th regiments, with the remainder of the first and second brigades, were safely disembarked.

At the time of landing, the British general and admiral circulated a long proclamation, of which the following are the material parts.

"Inhabitants of Guadaloupe; The misrepresentations and artifices which have been employed to deceive you with regard to the true situation of Europe, and the principles resulting from despotism and anarchy by which your revolutionary chiefs have conducted you to the brink of a precipice on which you stand, can no longer prevail.

"It is necessary to make known to you the situation of Europe and France, which has, no doubt, been concealed from you by your revolutionary chiefs. Bonaparte has been defeated by the duke of Wellington and prince Blucher in a great and decisive battle, fought on the 18th of June; his army annihilated, and all his artillery and baggage taken. The usurper fled with some of his persecuted generals, and reached Paris, where, knowing how desperate was his situation, he abdicated the pretended imperial crown. The allies were at La Fere and Laon on the 24th of June, in full march on Paris, where they would arrive on the 26th; there was nothing to oppose them. The Austrians and Russians were penetrating into France, in mass, by Italy, Switzerland, and Alsace. At the same time, his most Christian majesty had re-entered France, and by the latest accounts was advancing from Cambray.

"The terms upon which we propose to receive the colony, and the consequences which will result from a refusal, are briefly these: As there is reason to believe that many officers and soldiers of the line have only yielded to circumstances, and serve under the tri-coloured flag merely with the hope of seizing the first favourable opportunity to evince their loyalty; those who shall immediately so declare themselves, shall be admitted to the protection of the British flag, and shall be recommended in the strongest manner to count Vaugiraud, governor-general of the French islands, and representative of his most Christian majesty. All officers and soldiers of the line actually serving under the tri-coloured flag, who shall so declare and separate themselves from the partisans of Napoleon Bonaparte, and who shall surrender, with their arms to the British forces, shall be sent to France as

prisoners of war, to be disposed of according to the orders of the duke of Wellington: the officers and soldiers who shall thus surrender themselves shall preserve their baggage. The militia and other inhabitants in arms under the tri-coloured flag, who shall immediately separate themselves from the troops of the line serving under the revolutionary banner, and lay down their arms, shall be permitted to return immediately to their respective homes, where they shall be protected as well as their property.

"Every officer or soldier of the line who, after the publication of this notice, shall continue to oppose the arms of his Britannic majesty, shall be sent a prisoner of war to England. Every officer or soldier of militia, and every other inhabitant, who, after this proclamation, shall be found in arms, shall be treated as a prisoner of war, and sent immediately out of the colony to be placed in confinement.

"Provided Guadaloupe shall immediately submit to his Britannic majesty's forces, and its inhabitants shall take an oath of fidelity for the time the colony may remain under British dominion, the inhabitants and their private property shall be protected, and the commerce of the colony shall be placed upon a more advantageous footing than during the last war. Every person who shall not immediately avail himself of this proclamation shall be treated, as well as his property, according to the laws of war, and the right of conquest.

JAMES LEITH.

P. C. DURHAM."

At break of day on the 9th, the troops were put in motion in two columns; the first brigade moved upon, and occupied, Dolé; the second marched upon the left of the Morne Palmiste, by Pautrizel. It appeared, that Linois and Bowyer had evacuated Dolé in the night. The French, however, showed themselves in considerable force on the left of the Morne Palmiste, and on the face of that mountain, commanding the main road to Basse-terre: Captain Leith Hay, sir J. Leith's aide-de-camp, was ordered to gain the top of Morne Boucanier, by a difficult detour, with a rifle-company of the royal West-India rangers and a light company of the 6th West-India regiment, to alarm the enemy's right flank and rear, which, being accomplished, obliged him to withdraw; his posts were every where driven, and he retreated to the Morne Palmiste.

A heavy cannonade now announced the disembarkation of the third brigade, under major-general Douglas, in the vicinity of Bailiff and to leeward of Basse-terre. He had been instructed to seize the Batterie des Trois, to occupy the capital, to mask, or, if practicable, to take, Fort St. Charles by a coup-de-main, to open his communication with the columns moving to the attack of Morne Palmiste, and to menace his retreat from thence to Morne Houel.

The French, who had been driven by the vessels covering the landing, collected on the heights, and attacked the light company of the 63d regiment, who were advanced. They gallantly maintained their ground against upwards of 300 of the French, who came down to attack them, till major-general Douglas, in person, supported them with part of the York chasseurs.

While this operation was going on, the columns of the first and second brigades gained the heights of Morne Palmiste, from whence the French were driven at all points, and were now retiring to Morne Houel, which they had fortified with eight pieces of artillery. This was the position where Linois and Bowyer had professed their determination of ultimately disputing the superiority in the field.

Sir James Leith received information, that the commandant of Grande-terre, with the whole armed force, was, as he expected, moving in his rear to form a junction with the main body at Morne Houel. He accordingly reinforced the rear-guard to protect his communications, and occupied in force all the passes of the Gallion, a river running through a formidable ravine at the foot of Morne

Morne Palmiste. Thus the troops from Grande-terre were completely cut off from forming their junction, which they attempted without success by paths through the wood, late in the afternoon, but with light sufficient to point out to comte Linois and general Bowyer that all their plans of concentration were defeated.

After these laborious movements, which the British troops executed in the most creditable manner, there was only time before night to place the columns in readiness to attack the formidable position of Morne Houel at day-break in the morning. The troops accordingly took up their bivouacs. It rained heavily. At eleven o'clock in the night of the 9th, the commanding French engineer came to the British general on the top of Morne Palmiste verbally to propose a capitulation in the name of comte Linois; to which he replied, that the only terms he ever would accede to were already published in the proclamation issued on landing, and that he would not delay the attack on Morne Houel to wait for any farther communications. Accordingly the troops were put in motion at day-break. An officer soon after met the British general with written proposals, which he positively refused. A white flag was displayed on Morne Houel; but sir James Leith sent major-general Murray (who had joined the army from Demerary the preceding night), and his aide-de-camp, captain Leith Hay, with the British flag, to say, that the only signal which should stop the troops would be to see it displayed on the parapet. He had the satisfaction immediately after to see the British standard flying on Morne Houel, and thereby to ascertain that all the troops were prisoners of war, and all the forts and the colony in his possession. (London Gazette, Sept. 16, 1815.)

This conquest was obtained with a small loss, and by it an end was put to revolutionary attempts in the West Indies. Guadeloupe, however, though completely in the martial possession of Great Britain, was not reduced to a state of tranquillity. A number of French soldiers, who had deserted previously to the surrender of the island, took refuge in the woods, where they carried on a desultory and precarious war against the posts of the English, several of whom were killed in their desperate sallies. Many of the inhabitants of Point-à-Petre, who formerly pursued the trade of privateering, were suspected of holding correspondence with them, and supplying them with provisions and ammunition. Measures were, however, taken to prevent this intercourse, and a force was sent against the insurgents. About 300 of Bonaparte's adherents in the island were afterwards apprehended, who were sent to Europe. An exact police was maintained in the capital, by which order was perfectly preserved, though it was evident that the French inhabitants looked upon their conquerors with great aversion. These islands were retained by the English till all the conditions of the peace were fulfilled, which was a considerable time afterwards: they were then formally delivered over to the new French governor appointed by Louis.

The situation of Louis, although surrounded with the legal authority of the nation, was at this time peculiarly hard and difficult. His obligations, on one hand, to the allied powers, who had placed him and still maintained him on the throne; and, on the other, to his own people, now galled and bound down under the yoke of those allies; produced a conflict of feelings and duties which must have proved extremely harassing. A transaction, which exposed him to particular mortification, was passing directly in his view: the Museum of the Louvre, rendered by a long series of French conquests the richest receptacle of the arts in Europe, was completely stripped of its fruits of conquest by the allies. For the circumstances attending this interesting event, we are indebted to the narratives of Mr. Scott (late killed in a duel), and of Miss Helen Maria Williams, who were both on the spot at the time.

It appears that the allied powers, amidst those rapid and brilliant successes, which, in the year 1814, had ren-

dered them masters of the capital, had not overlooked the *chefs-d'œuvre* of art which had been wrested from their respective countries by the right of conquest. The allied sovereigns, when they visited the gallery of the Louvre, beheld pictures and statues once their own, and saw them noted, in the Preface of the Catalogues sold at the door, as the fruit of French victories. The Prussians had not failed to observe, that pictures, which had decorated the bed-chamber of their beautiful and lamented queen, were then placed in the royal apartments of the palace of St. Cloud. There was also a statue in the Museum which was known by the name of the Ganymede of Sans Souci. This statue was of bronze, and of the most beautiful workmanship; it was no less perfect than the Belvidere Apollo, and held that reputation in the north. It was erroneously called a Ganymede; the pose of the arms leading to this mistake; but it is a Gladiator, giving thanks to the gods for a victory just obtained. The Prussians demanded, in 1814, the restoration of this statue, of two pieces by Correggio, and the pictures of St. Cloud, which had been taken from the apartment of their queen. The restitution of these objects became a subject of a most fastidious negotiation between M. Blacas and the ministers of Austria and Prussia. It had been agreed at the peace of Paris, that nothing should be touched that was then exhibited in the Museum, and M. Blacas contrived to extend this article to all the paintings in the royal palaces. Paris, therefore, preserved its statues and pictures; and the Prussians their regrets, at not having regained the trophies stripped from their queen's apartments.

The allied armies, in 1815, again crowned the hills around Paris, and a capitulation was asked and granted. The provisional government demanded that the Museum should remain untouched. The allied generals wrote with a pencil, on the margin of this article, *Non accordé*, "Not granted." This refusal, it appears, did not arise so much from any decision taken with respect to the Museum by the duke of Wellington, who would not prejudice the question, but because Blucher, supported by the public opinion of his country, had, in his own mind, determined upon taking all. The article on the respect to be paid to public and private property was loosely worded. The allies assert, that their respect for the monuments of the arts could never be justly applied to the retaking of objects which had at first been seized by violence.

General Blucher, immediately upon his entrance into Paris, sent a letter to M. Denon, the director of the Museum, demanding not only the objects of the last year's negotiation with M. Blacas, but what was also in the Museum. M. Denon answered, that it was an affair which must be negotiated with his government, and that he would not give them up. M. Denon was arrested during the night by twenty men, and was threatened to be sent to the fortrefs of Graudentz in West Prussia.

From this argument there was no appeal. The objects demanded were delivered. This surrender was made in due order; and the Gladiator, the two pictures of Correggio, and some valuable pieces of the old German school, were carefully packed up by the persons employed at the Museum. This would have been but a trifling loss, had not the king of Prussia taken not only what belonged to Potsdam and Berlin, but also to Cologne and Aix-la-Chapelle, countries on this side of the Rhine, and therefore not in his possession at that period, on the pretext that these objects belonged to the cathedral, and the municipality of those towns.

The following is an accurate translation of a letter of Blucher to general Muffling (the Prussian governor of Paris), in justification of his conduct.

"Paris, Oct. 19, 1815.

Sir; As my conduct has been publicly animadverted upon, for not having allowed the property plundered from Prussia by a banditti, to remain in the Museum of the Louvre, I have only to remark, that, ably supported by

by the illustrious Wellington, I pursued the THIEVES who had despoiled many of the nations of Europe of their inestimable monuments of the fine arts; I attacked and dispersed them, and restored to my country the plunder they had unjustly taken, spurning the idea of negotiating with the French commissioners on that subject. They may now thank Providence for our not following their base example.

BLUCHER."

Still, however, though the brutal activity of Blucher was sufficiently evident by the melancholy blanks on the walls of the Museum; the whole amount of his spoliation would have been as nothing to the remainder of the collection, if the other members of the alliance could have been induced to forbear; and it was thought, by those who were interested in the retention, that the best way would be to keep quiet as to the proceedings of Prussia, to affect to take no notice of them whatever, hoping that silence might cause the affair to die away after the first removals were over; and that either the indifference or the singular good-nature of the states of Europe, might yet leave to Paris the darling boast of being the capital of the world as to fine art. For some time there was reason to hope that this manœuvre would be successful. Indeed no Frenchman permitted himself to entertain the slightest doubt of the consciousness of the allies, when first masters of the French capital, that they were far too weak to repossess themselves of what was held in it as trophies of their defeat. "You knew well, that we should have arisen as one man to destroy you, if you had dared to lay hands on what every inhabitant of France feels to be his honour, his pride, his delight, his existence."

It certainly seemed, however, as if the allies at least hesitated very much to mortify this offensive vanity. Every day new arrivals of strangers poured into Paris, all anxious to gain a view of the Louvre before its collection was broken up. It was the first point to which all the British directed their steps every morning, in eager curiosity to know whether the business of removal had commenced. The towns and principalities that had been plundered were making sedulous exertions to influence the councils of the allies to determine on a general restoration; and several of the great powers leaned decidedly towards such a decision. Much discussion took place; many notes were exchanged; and the French conceived some hopes of forbearance from the liberal ideas of the emperor of Russia. In a note, which was given in by M. Nefflerode on the part of the emperor, the justice or injustice of the measure was less insisted on than its expediency. It represented the painful situation in which it placed Louis with regard to the public; and that, if the allies forebore retaking, last year, what they deemed their property in the museum, from their respect for the king, this motive ought to operate with double force at the present period. It was for a short time believed that the Russian note had produced some effect; but, whether Alexander relaxed in the energy of his representations, or because the Russian troops had withdrawn from the capital, this hope proved delusive. The war of diplomacy ceased; and sentence was passed upon the gallery.

Before actual force, however, was employed, representations were repeated to the French government: but the ministers of the king of France would neither promise due satisfaction nor uphold a strenuous opposition: they showed a sulky disregard of every application. A deputation from the Netherlands formally claimed the Dutch and Flemish pictures taken during the revolutionary wars from these countries; and this demand was conveyed through the duke of Wellington, as commander-in-chief of the Dutch and Belgian armies. About the same time, also, Austria determined that *her Italian* and German towns, which had been despoiled, should have their property replaced; and Canova, the anxious representative of Rome, after many fruitless appeals to Talleyrand, re-

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ceived assurances that he, too, should be furnished with an armed force sufficient to protect him in taking back to that venerable city what lost its highest value in its removal from thence.

Conflicting reports continued to prevail among the crowds of strangers and natives as to the intentions of the allies; but on Saturday, the 23d of September, all doubt was removed. On going up to the door of the Louvre, (says Mr. Scott,) I found a guard of 150 British riflemen drawn up outside. I asked one of the soldiers what they were there for? "Why, they tell me, sir, that they mean to take away the pictures," was his reply. I walked in amongst the statues below. In one of the halls, I found two brown-complexioned, stout, good-natured looking, women, the wives of English soldiers, examining, very curiously, the large reclining figure of the Tiber; one of them exclaimed with a laugh, "See how the young devils run over his body!"—On going to the great staircase, I saw the English guard hastily tramping up its magnificent ascent: a crowd of astounded French followed in their rear; and, from above, many of the visitors to the Gallery of Pictures were attempting to force their way past the ascending soldiers, catching an alarm from their sudden entrance. The alarm, however, was unfounded; but the spectacle that presented itself was very impressive. A British officer dropped his men in files along this magnificent gallery, until they extended, two and two, at small distances, from its entrance to its extremity. All the spectators were breathless, in eagerness to know what was to be done; but the soldiers stopped as machines, having no care beyond obedience to their orders.

The work of removal now commenced in good earnest: porters with barrows, and ladders, and tackles of ropes, made their appearance. The collection of the Louvre might from that moment be considered as broken up for ever. The sublimity of its orderly aspect vanished: it took now the melancholy, confused, air of a large auction-room after a day's sale. Before this, the visitors had walked down its profound length with a sense of respect on their minds, influencing them to preserve silence and decorum, as they contemplated the majestic pictures; but decency and quiet were dispelled when the signal was given for the break-up of the establishment. It seemed as if a nation had become ruined through improvidence, and was selling off.

The guarding of the Louvre was committed by turns to the British and Austrians, while this process lasted. The Prussians said that they had done their own business for themselves, and would not now incur odium for others. The workmen being incommoded by the crowds that now rushed to the Louvre, as the news spread of the destruction of its great collection, a military order came that no visitors should be admitted without permission from the foreign commandant of Paris. This direction was pretty strictly adhered to by the sentinels as far as the exclusion of the French; but the words *Je suis Anglais*, were always sufficient to gain leave to pass from the Austrians: our own countrymen were rather more strict; but, in general, foreigners could, with but little difficulty, procure admission. The Parisians stood in crowds round the door, looking wistfully within it, as it occasionally opened to admit Germans, English, Russians, &c. into a palace of their capital from which they were excluded. I was frequently asked by French gentlemen, standing with ladies on their arms, and kept back from the door by the guards, to take them into their own Louvre, under my protection as an unknown foreigner! It was impossible not to feel for them in these remarkable circumstances of mortification and humiliation; and the agitation of the French public was now evidently excessive. Every Frenchman looked a walking volcano, ready to spit forth fire. Groups of the common people collected in the space before the Louvre; and a spokesman was generally seen exercising the most violent gesticulations, sufficiently indicative

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dicative of rage, and listened to by the others with lively signs of sympathy with his passion. As the packages came out, they crowded round them, giving vent to torrents of *pestes, diables, sares*, and other worse interjections.

No description can convey an exaggerated idea of the distress of the Parisians at the removal of their favourite monuments. The duke of Wellington, hitherto the theme of their incessant praise, was now destined to become the object of all their sarcasms, and the burden of every idle tale current in that credulous metropolis. England, they said, was to have the choicest statues, the Venus and the Apollo! The French would not hear a doubt whispered on this head: for what other reason should she, who had lost nothing, interfere to break up the collection? The females, accustomed to hold a prominent place in all matters of business in France, made themselves conspicuous also on this occasion; and the British general, when looking around him in a drawing-room, was said to have been told by a young lady, *Ne regardez pas, milord, il n'y a rien à prendre ici*; "You need not look round, my lord; there is nothing here to be taken away."

Wherever an Englishman went in Paris, at this time, whether into a shop or a company, he was assailed with the exclamation *Ah! vos compatriotes!* "Your vile countrymen!" and the ladies had always some wonderful story to tell him, of an embarrassment or mortification that had happened to his duke; of the evil designs of the prince regent, or the dreadful revenge that was preparing against the injuries of France. The great gallery of the Louvre presented every day a more and more forlorn aspect; but it combined a number of interesting points of view, and for reflection. It seemed to be the abode of all the foreigners in the French capital: and it was easy to distinguish the last comers from the rest. They entered the Louvre with steps of eager haste, and looks of anxious enquiry: they seemed to have scarcely stopped by the way, and to have made directly for the pictures on the instant of their reaching Paris. The first view of the stripped walls made their countenances sink under the disappointment, as to the great object of their journey. Crowds collected round the *Transfiguration*, that picture which, according to the French account, *destiny* had always intended for the French nation: it was every one's wish to see it taken down; for the fame which this great work of Raphael had acquired, and its notoriety in the general knowledge, caused its departure to be regarded as the consummation of the destruction of the picture-gallery of the Louvre. It was taken away among the last.

Students of all nations fixed themselves round the principal pictures, anxious to complete their copies before the workmen came to remove the originals. Many young French girls were seen among these, perched up on small scaffolds, and calmly pursuing their labours in the midst of the throng and bustle. A melancholy air of utter ruin mantled over the walls of this superb gallery; the floor was covered with empty frames. A Frenchman, in the midst of his sorrow, had his joke, in saying, "Well, we should not have left to them even these!" In walking down this exhausted place, I observed a person, wearing the insignia of the legion of honour, suddenly stop short, and heard him exclaim, "Ah! my God, and the Paul Potter too!" This referred to the famous painting of a bull by that master, which is the largest of his pictures, and is very highly valued. It belonged to the Netherlands, and has returned to them. It was said that the Emperor Alexander offered fifteen thousand pounds for it.

The Spaniards claimed their share in this general distribution, and succeeded. In the latter times of Bonaparte, in the year 1814, an exhibition had been made of the subjects of the Spanish school; of the Italian, before the time of Raphael; and of the German school. Some French marshals, to please their master, had sent their Morellos to swell this exhibition; which pieces had, by chance, been left during the reign of the Bourbons, the short invasion of Bonaparte, and to the present period. The Spanish am-

bassador would not have demanded the Morellos, had they remained in the houses of those who had taken them; but, as he found them collected in an exhibition, he took advantage of the negligence of their fresh owners, and sent them back into Spain.

And, lastly, presented themselves the commissaries of the king of Sardinia. They came at an unlucky moment. The Austrian guard at the museum had been called away to assist in the removal of the horses at the Tuileries. The guardians of the museum, roused into indignation at the attack of these new commissaries, collected their forces, consisting of numerous workmen, and with brush and broom swept the Sardinians out of the gallery.

An attack meanwhile was directed against the National Library. Among the manuscripts of the Vatican, which was ceded by the peace of Tolentino, were those which had been pillaged from the library of Heidelberg, in the Palatinate, during the thirty-years war, by the soldiers of General Tilly. These spoils were at that period given to the pope. The commissaries of the Margrave of Baden laid violent hands on those manuscripts, as the original property of their master, now sovereign of Heidelberg. These manuscripts, both Greek and Latin, amounted to 4000; and had been taken from Rome, Venice, and the Ambrosian library at Milan. It would have been happy if all had gone that road, since the Vatican is the grave of manuscripts. Whatever appertains to the sciences and literature is there lost to the world.

The duke of Wellington may perhaps be taxed with remissness, for having overlooked, in this hour of retribution, certain property that belonged to England. When Bonaparte, some years since, was on the point of executing his threatened invasion of England, it was deemed expedient to excite the Parisians to sympathy with such an heroic enterprise. Volumes of the history of fifteen or twenty invasions were circulated; but nobody read or believed them. On the maxim of Horace, that what is seen with the eyes produces much greater effect than what passes through the ear; the walls of the museum were covered with pictures, proving that the measure was not only possible, but had really been executed. The history of this marvellous transaction was impressed on Parisian incredulity by the display of Matilda's tapestry, worked by the queen and her ladies of honour, representing, in worsted epic, the heroic feats of her husband, William the Conqueror. Hume, in his History, refers to this tapestry, to authenticate some incident of that period. The duke of Wellington, it appears, had made no inquiry after this historical furniture; which was evidently the property of the prince-regent, (now George IV.) as heir-at-law to William the Conqueror, to whom it originally belonged, as the husband of Matilda. The duke might, however, from a sentiment of generosity, have left it to adorn the now-naked walls of the Museum, and to console the French that their ancestors had once conquered England, and taken London, though it were nearly a thousand years since.

The removal of the statues was longer in commencing, and took up more time; they were still packing these up when Mr. Scott quitted Paris. I saw (says he) the Venus, the Apollo, and the Laocoon, removed: these may be deemed the presiding deities of the collection. The solemn antique look of these halls fled for ever, when the workmen came in with their straw, and plaster of Paris, to pack up. The French could not, for some time, allow themselves to believe that their enemies would dare to deprive them of these sacred works: it appeared to them impossible that they should be separated from France; from *la France*, the country of the Louvre and the Institute; it seemed a contingency beyond the limits of human reverses. But it happened nevertheless: they were all removed. "One afternoon, before quitting the palace, I accidentally stopped longer than usual to gaze on the Venus; on the following morning I returned, and the pedestal on which the Venus had stood for so many years, the

the pride of Paris, and the delight of every observer, was vacant! It seemed as if a soul had taken its flight from a body."

On the subject of the statues, we must now listen to Miss Williams: "A chill sensation came across my heart when I descended to the halls of the sculpture, and saw the vacant pedestal on which had stood the statue that enchants the world. I gazed on the pedestal. One of the old liveried attendants of the hall, interpreting my looks, said to me, in a sorrowful tone, 'Ah! madam, she is gone; I shall never see her again!'—'Gone!' said I.—'Yes, madam, she set out this very morning, at three o'clock; *et sous bonne escorte*.' The old man seemed to mourn over the Venus as if he had been his daughter."

"The adjoining hall presented, a few days after, a most melancholy spectacle. There lay the Apollo on the floor, in his coffin. The workmen were busied in preparing him for his journey, by wedging him in his shell; and an artist was tracing his celestial features, when the trowel, with its white paste, passed across his divine visage. His arm was still majestically stretched out. The French artists, who were present, wept over it; they pressed his hand to their lips, and bade him a last adieu! The scene was now closed on that perfect image, worthy of almost divine honours. He was going to add a new glory to Rome, and draw new pilgrims to his shrine; but to Paris he was lost for ever, and the might well deplore her calamity. She had indeed seized him as her captive, but she had gazed on him with unwearied admiration; she had hailed him as the most splendid trophy of victory; and she would have purchased his stay with her treasures, even with her blood, had not resistance been unavailing."

"In the package of these divinities much apprehension was felt of their sustaining some injury. The necessary aid and tools were wanting. No rewards, no menaces, however, could prevail on the French *crocheteurs*, porters and labourers, plying in the streets for employment, to lend their aid. The French, of the lowest class, were too indignant to be the abettors of such spoliation. The ladders of the master of an exhibition of *singes savans*, "learned monkeys," in the neighbourhood of the Louvre, were at length put in requisition to unhang the pictures. The Pythian divinity of Olympus lay in the streets all night, and might have suffered from any accidental tumult; and the Venus de Medicis was fated, like an abandoned female, to take up her abode for some hours in a common guard-house."

But the bitterest mortification of the people of Paris yet remains to be described. The well-known horses, taken from the church of St. Mark in Venice, had been peculiarly the objects of popular pride and admiration. Being exposed to public view on the Triumphal Arch in the Place du Caroufel, which is one of the most public situations of Paris, this was esteemed the noblest trophy belonging to the capital; and there was not a Parisian vender of a pailful of water, who did not look like a hero when the Venetian horses were spoken of. "Have you heard what has been determined about the horses?" was every foreigner's question: "Oh! they cannot mean to take the horses away," was every Frenchman's remark. On the morning of Thursday the 26th of September, however, it was whispered that they had been at work all night in loosening them from their fastenings. It was soon confirmed that this was true; and the French then had nothing left for it, but to vow, that, if the allies were to attempt to touch them in the *day-light*, Paris would rise at once, exterminate its enemies, and rescue its honour. On Friday morning, (says Mr. Scott,) I walked through the square: it was clear that some considerable change had taken place; the effect of the forms of the horses was finer than I had ever before seen it. While looking to discover what had been done, a private of the British staff corps came up: "You see, sir, we took away the harness last night," said he. "You have made a great improvement by so doing," I replied: "but are the Bri-

tish employed on this work?" The man said that the Austrians had requested the assistance of our staff-corps, for it included better workmen than any they had in their service. I heard that an angry French mob had given some trouble to the people employed on the Thursday night, but that a body of Parisian gendarmerie had dispersed the multitude. The Frenchmen continued their sneers against the allies for working in the dark: fear and shame were the causes assigned. "If you take them at all, why not take them in the face of day? But you are too wise to drag upon yourselves the irresistible popular fury, which such a fight would excite against you!" On the night of Friday, the order of proceeding was entirely changed. It had been found proper to call out a strong guard of Austrians, horse and foot. The mob had been charged by the cavalry; and it was said, that several had their limbs broken. I expected to find the place on Saturday morning quiet and open as usual; but, when I reached its entrance, what an impressive scene presented itself! The delicate plan, for such in truth it was, of working by night, was now over. The Austrians had wished to spare the king of France the pain of seeing his capital dismantled before his palace-windows, where he passed in his carriage when he went out for his daily exercise. But the feelings of the people rendered severer measures necessary. My companion and myself were stopped from entering the place by Austrian dragoons: a large mob of Frenchmen were collected here, standing on tip-toe to catch the Arch in the distance, on the top of which the ominous sight of numbers of workmen, busy about the horses, was plainly to be distinguished. We advanced again to the soldiers: some of the French, by whom we were surrounded, said, "Whoever you are, you will not be allowed to pass." I confessed I was for retiring; for the whole assemblage, citizens and soldiers, seemed to wear an angry alarming aspect. But my companion was eager for admittance. He was put back again by an Austrian hussar: "*What, not the English!*" he exclaimed in his own language. The mob laughed loudly when they heard the foreign soldier so addressed; but the triumph was ours; way was instantly made for us; and an officer, on duty close by, touched his helmet as we passed.

The king and the princes had left the Tuileries, to be out of the view of so mortifying a business. The court of the palace, which used to be gay with young *gardes du corps* and equipages, was now silent, deserted, and shut up. Not a soul moved in it. The top of the Arch was filled with people; and the horses, though as yet all there, might be seen to begin to move. The carriages, that were to take them away, were in waiting below; and a tackle of ropes was already affixed to one. The small door, leading to the top, was protected by a strong guard: every one was striving to obtain permission to gratify his curiosity, by visiting the horses for the last time that they could be visited in this situation. Permission, however, could necessarily be granted but to few. I was of the fortunate number. In a minute I had climbed the narrow dark stair, ascended a small ladder, and was out on the top, with the most picturesque view before me that can be imagined. An English lady asked me to assist her into Bonaparte's car of victory: his own statue was to have been placed in it, *when he came back a conqueror from his Russian expedition!* I followed the lady and her husband into the car, and we found a Prussian officer there before us. He looked at us, and with a good-humoured smile, said, "The emperor kept the English out of France, but the English have now got where he could not!" This passage reminds us, that, at p. 452, we have erroneously described the triumphal car as having contained the statue of Napoleon: the statue was, certainly intended to be so placed, but it never reached its destination. To the account there given, we will just add, that the Arch is of hard Italian freestone, very fine in the grain; the columns of red marble, the frieze of Italian griote; the inscriptions in letters of gold. The two figures of Victory

tory and Peace, and the Car, are of lead, gilt with dead gold.

The cry of the French now was, that it was abominable, execrable, to insult the king in his palace, to insult him in the face of his own subjects, by removing the horses in the face of day! I adjourned with a friend to dine at a *restaurant*'s, near the garden of the Tuileries, after witnessing what I have described. Between seven and eight in the evening, we heard the rolling of wheels, the clatter of cavalry, and the tramp of infantry. A number of British were in the room: they all rose and rushed to the door, without hats, and carrying in their haste their white table-napkins in their hands. The horses were going past, in military procession, lying on their sides in separate cars. First came cavalry, then infantry, then a car; then more cavalry, more infantry, then another car, and so on till all the four past. The drums were beating, and the standards went waving by. This was the only appearance of parade that attended any of the removals. Three Frenchmen, seeing the groupe of English, came up to us, and began a conversation. They appealed to us if this was not shameful. A gentleman observed, that the horses were only going back to the place from whence the French had taken them: if there was a right in power for France, there must also be one for other states: but the better way to consider these events, was, as terminating the times of robbery and discord. Two of them seemed much inclined to come instantly round to our opinion: but one was much more consistent. He appeared an officer, and was advanced beyond the middle age of life. He kept silence for a moment, and then, with strong emphasis, said, "You have left me nothing for my children but hatred against England; this shall be my legacy to them."—"Sir," it was replied, "it will do your children no good, and England no injury."

The attention of Europe had, for some time, been directed to the meeting of the French new legislature, in order to see what measures they would follow to heal the wounds of a distracted country. Their meeting also was generally understood to be the period intended for disclosing the terms of peace. Every argument had been exhausted, and delay created, in adjusting this important matter. The allied ministers would not listen to any terms till the French army was completely disbanded. When that was accomplished, the negotiations for peace commenced. But we must first explain the position in which France stood by the Treaty of Paris of the 30th of May, 1814, (imperfectly alluded to under the article LONDON, vol. xiii. p. 395.) and by the Act of Congress at Vienna, dated June 1, 1815, before the commencement of the late hostilities.

No person will be of opinion that this Act of the Congress possessed only temporary interest, and therefore might be dismissed with a brief and cursory notice, who reflects that by it the whole aspect of continental Europe is changed; nearly the whole of the smaller states, and some of the larger, being, as it were, cast in a new mould. By the wonderful successes of the French, the old system of continental Europe had been overthrown, and those changes introduced which the successive rulers of France, and especially Bonaparte, thought would most directly and effectually tend to consolidate their power, and to acquire and preserve for France an ascendancy over the continent. As soon as the reign of Bonaparte was at an end, the allied powers resolved to new-model the continent. Their professed object was twofold: in the first place, to do away all vestiges of French revolutionary principles, and their effects; and, in the second place, to arrange the different states of the continent as to make a proper and just balance of political weight.

The official papers, in which the result of the labours of the allied powers is laid before the world, consist of the General Treaty of Congress signed at Vienna, and of seventeen acts of a particular nature. As this Treaty is of the highest importance, we regret that our limits will

not allow us to insert it entire in this place; but the mode we have pursued has been this, to copy certain parts of it under the geographical articles to which they apply, a particular instance of which will be found under the article NETHERLANDS, vol. xvi. p. 742, 3, 4. We shall, however give an outline, though a very imperfect one, of the chief provisions of these two treaties, as they applied to other countries besides France.

1. France was confined within the limits which bounded her territories on the 1st of January, 1792, with the addition of part of Savoy, which however was relinquished in 1815 to the king of Sardinia.

2. Austria recovered Lombardy, and added to it Venice with its adjacent territory; possessing thus a population (29 millions) equal, or very nearly so, to that of France under Napoleon, and considerably greater than she has now, or had in 1792.

3. To supersede the confederation of the Rhine, which was dissolved by the downfall of Napoleon, a Germanic Confederation was projected. A general assembly, or federative diet, is to meet occasionally at Frankfurt, to pass, in the first instance, fundamental laws, and afterwards particular regulations as occasion may require. At these meetings the plenipotentiary of Austria is president. The leading feature of the Confederation, like that of the Holy Alliance, is "to defend each other from all attack." For this purpose, the military contingent, during peace, is to be 120,000 men; viz. 96,000 infantry, 18,000 cavalry, 6000 artillery, &c. In case of war, the cavalry will be doubled, and the artillery tripled. The Generalissimo to have the title of Field-Marshal of the Germanic Confederation.

4. Russia had suffered no reduction of her territory, but had proceeded in a regular course of acquisition. Her power, though less colossal than is vulgarly supposed, had received a substantial addition by the acquisition of Finland and of the chief part of Poland. Two thirds of what once was Prussian Poland, and a part of Galicia, were formed in 1815 into a kingdom, the crown of which is worn by the czar.

5. Prussia, on the other hand, has exhibited a striking example of the mutability of political greatness. Raised by the talents of Frederic II. to a rank above her real strength, but making, after his death, successive additions to her territory by the dread of her arms and by diplomatic combinations, she saw the whole overturned by Bonaparte in one fatal campaign. From 1807 to 1813, her dominions continued circumscribed, and her population hardly exceeded six millions. But the arrangements of 1814 restored to her a third of Russian Poland, and a valuable tract of country on the Lower Rhine; and her population is now, as in 1806, above ten millions.

6. Of colonial conquests from France, England retained Tobago, St. Lucie, and the Isle of France. The peace confirmed also our possession of Malta and the Cape. Of the other Dutch settlements, Surinam and Java were restored; but Demerara, Berbice, and Essequibo, containing a number of British settlers, were retained; the merchants of Holland, however, enjoying certain privileges of trade with these colonies. On the continent of Europe, we effected an important and long-desired measure, the union of the seven Dutch and ten Belgic provinces into one kingdom. The latter, in their detached state, presented too tempting an object for France; and would have proved the cause of repeated wars, in which England, from her interest in the independence of Holland, and her dread of invasion, could hardly fail to participate. See NETHERLANDS.

7. The losses of Denmark rank among the most painful consequences of the wars of the French revolution. To strip that pacific and inoffensive kingdom, first of its navy, and next of a kindred country, governed by the same sovereign during 400 years, were acts that called for the regret and condemnation of every unprejudiced observer. The transfer of Norway was opposed by the inhabitants; and

and we add with regret, that our navy was ordered to take part against them by blockading their ports. At last all was terminated by a Convention (October 20, 1814), pronouncing the union of Sweden and Norway under the same sovereign, the latter retaining her separate constitution. Pomerania was transferred from Sweden to Prussia; and Denmark received a small territory to the south of Holstein.

8. Sweden had enjoyed during many years the advantage of neutrality, and, like Denmark, increased gradually her shipping and trade. Deviating from this in 1805, and becoming a party to the coalition against France, she was saved from hostilities by the rapid overthrow of Austria; and Pomerania was not attacked until 1807, when Gustavus IV. chose to refuse peace at the time when he had not the support of a single continental ally. This and other acts of madness led to his deposition in 1809; and the year after, Europe saw with surprise the nomination of Bernadotte as the efficient head of the Swedish government; and there he remains.

10. Spain and Portugal preserved their territory unaltered. Both had received rude shocks from the invader; but in both the reign of superstition and indolence seemed so firmly fixed as to bid defiance to political change, whether introduced by mild or harsh means. Recent events, however, have shown, that both these nations are capable of better things. A liberal constitution is already (we hope permanently) established in SPAIN; and we trust that those attempts which have proved abortive in Naples and Piedmont, will yet be successful in PORTUGAL. See those articles.

11. Switzerland, without being made a province of France, had been obliged to furnish a military contingent in the wars of Bonaparte. The arrangements of 1814 maintained her as a federal state, but with 19 cantons instead of 13; an increase derived, not from extended territory, but from the independent form acquired by certain districts (such as the Pays de Vaud) incorporated formerly with the original cantons.

12. The King of Sardinia was restored to Piedmont; and his other continental possessions, with the addition of the territory of Genoa.

13. Italy was the country of all Europe the most likely to profit by the occupancy of the French. The substitution of an efficient government for the feeble administration of Naples and Rome; the diminution of superstition, the increase of industry, the extirpation of robbery on the highways, and the new modelling of the military establishment; were all objects of the highest importance. To these was added a hope of blending all the states of the peninsula into a common union; a union most ardently desired by the Italian nation, and calculated, above all things, to preserve their country from war and the intrusion of foreigners. The selfish policy of Bonaparte, whose object was merely to extract from every country the utmost possible supply of revenue and recruits, prevented the adoption of this grand measure, until the re-assumed sway of foreigners, in particular of the Austrians, removed it to an indefinite distance, and reinstated the territorial divisions of Italy on the footing of 1792, with the exception of the republics of Venice and Genoa.

14. Turkey was no party to the treaty of 1814, but remained on the footing on which the treaty of 1812 with Russia had placed her. Stationary in an age of change, and inflexible in her adherence to traditional usages, she saw the French revolution pass without hurt; or rather was indebted to it for a relaxation in the shocks to which the European part of her empire is exposed from Austria and Russia. The peace of 1790 had been preserved uninterrupted by Austria; that of 1791 was infringed by Russia by only one war, viz. from 1807 to 1812. The temporary occupancy of Egypt by the French, and the more permanent establishment of England in the Ionian

Islands, have had no effect on the interior of the Turkish empire.

Such was the situation of Europe, and of France in particular, at the commencement of the hundred days. The events of that short but important period occasioned the allies to insist upon terms of peace which France thought very hard and degrading. The first proposals were delivered in by the allied ministers on the 20th of September; and the French government, notwithstanding that they "stood prostrate," were very unwilling to "turn their backs upon themselves." They resisted with all their might; and delivered, next day, a *contre-projet*. But the allies were firm, and they had the power in their own hands. They declared, that "that which was sufficient to satisfy them in 1814, cannot content them in 1815; and that the line of demarcation, which appeared to guarantee the security of the states bordering on France at the epoch of the treaty of the 30th of May, can no longer satisfy the just pretensions which they now prefer."

The ministers of Louis, finding the allied powers resolute in enforcing their demands, determined to retire rather than sign a degrading peace. This event was hastened, in a great measure, through the intrigues of the king's brother, the duke and dukes of Angoulême, and the duke of Berri. The conduct of these branches of the Bourbon family had done no good to the cause of Louis during his former reign; and they seemed not disposed to change that conduct. As these princes naturally regarded the ministry of Louis with abhorrence, they had used their utmost endeavours to bring about a change; and this they soon effected. Fouché and Talleyrand were dismissed: the former was sent to Dresden, as ambassador; and the latter had some trifling situation given him, which permitted him to be near the king's person. The new ministry consisted of the following persons: The Duke of Richelieu, minister for foreign affairs, and, of course, prime-minister; the Duke of Feltre, minister of war; the Viscount Dubouché, minister of the interior; Monf. (now Duke) de Cazes, for general police; and M. Barbé Marbois, keeper of the seals. The following character of some of them appears to be just, and may therefore be acceptable.

The Duke de Richelieu, grandson of the celebrated marshal of that name, emigrated at the beginning of the revolution, and entered into the Russian service, in which he acquired general esteem. For some years he held the government of Odesa, much to the satisfaction both of the sovereign and the people.—Clarke duke of Feltre was an aide-de-camp of the late duke of Orleans, at his entrance into public life; he served the republic most zealously under Carnot, with whom he was intimately connected. He evinced equal devotion to the imperial government; and, embarking in the royal cause, after the landing of Bonaparte, he sustained it with that ardour which forms the leading feature of his character. In all stages of his political career, he proved himself both able and incorruptible.—M. de Vaublanc was a distinguished member, and one of the most conspicuous orators of the first legislative assembly. Among other speeches of his, there exists a very eloquent one in favour of general La Fayette, who was accused by the jacobin-party, shortly before the catastrophe of the 10th of August. M. de V. was violently persecuted during the reign of terror, and, by flight, he escaped the fate of his colleagues, on the 18th Fructidor. Since that period his opinions have become highly royalist. His probity has never been questioned by any party. He was a member of the legislative body under Bonaparte, and also prefect of Metz. There are several speeches of his, at that period, which attested his devotion to the imperial throne.—M. Barbé Marbois was secretary of legation, and afterwards chargé d'affaires, to the United States. Soon after the treaty which France made with that republic, he was intendant of St. Domingo. On the 18th Fructidor he was banished to Cayenne, from

whence, in consequence of that stoicism which marks his character, he refused to escape with Barthélemy and Pichegru. He was minister of finance under Bonaparte, and also president of the chamber of accounts; but, having made a speech very offensive to the latter during his residence at Elba, Bonaparte dismissed him, on his return from that island. M. Barbé Marbois is a man of talents, and of the most austere virtue.—M. de Cazes (since created a duke) was attached to the family of Bonaparte, and counsellor of the imperial court, where he merited consideration. He strongly espoused the part of the king, and was, in consequence, dismissed by Bonaparte on his return. He is much esteemed both for virtue and talent.—M. Corvetto was counsellor of state under Bonaparte, and was considered as one of the most upright and enlightened of that body.

In consequence of the protracted delay of the negotiations, the allied troops, which were evacuating France, were commanded to halt; but, on the entrance of the new ministers into office, matters were soon brought to a conclusion, and the treaties were at length concluded and signed on the 20th of November. They consisted of a Definitive Treaty between France and the Allied Powers, signed at Paris on the 20th of November, 1815; an Additional Article to the preceding treaty, relative to the abolition of the slave-trade; a Convention relative to the payment of the pecuniary indemnity to be furnished by France to the allied powers; a Convention relative to the occupation of a military line in France by the allied army; a Note from the Ministers of the Allied Powers to the Duke of Richelieu, on the nature and extent of the powers attached to the command of the Duke of Wellington; a Convention between Great Britain and France, relative to the Claims of the British Subjects on the French Government; and a Note from the Ministers of the Allied Cabinets to the Duke of Richelieu, communicating a Copy of a Treaty of Alliance between Great Britain, Russia, Austria, and Prussia; besides other documents of less importance.

Of these papers, which are all of high and permanent interest, we can find room for only the

DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE between FRANCE and the ALLIED POWERS.

In the name of the Most Holy and Undivided Trinity.—The Allied Powers having, by their united efforts, and by the success of their arms, preserved France and Europe from the convulsions with which they were menaced by the late enterprise of Napoleon Bonaparte, and by the revolutionary system reproduced in France to promote its success; participating at present with his most Christian Majesty in the desire to consolidate by maintaining inviolate the royal authority; and by restoring the operation of the constitutional charter, the order of things which had been happily re-established in France; as also in the object of restoring between France and her neighbours those relations of reciprocal confidence and good-will which the fatal effects of the revolution and of the system of conquest had for so long a time disturbed; persuaded, at the same time, that this last object can only be obtained by an arrangement framed to secure to the allies proper indemnities for the past, and solid guarantees for the future;—they have, in concert with his majesty the King of France, taken into consideration the means of giving effect to this arrangement; and, being satisfied that the indemnity due to the allied powers cannot be either entirely territorial or entirely pecuniary without prejudice to France in the one or other of her essential interests, and that it would be more fit to combine both the modes, in order to avoid the inconvenience which would result were either resorted to separately, their imperial and royal majesties have adopted this basis for their present transactions; and, agreeing alike as to the necessity of retaining, for a fixed time, in the frontier provinces of France, a certain number of allied troops, they have determined to

combine their different arrangements, founded upon these bases, in a definitive treaty. For this purpose, and to this effect, his majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, for himself and his allies on the one part, and his majesty the King of France and Navarre on the other part, have named their plenipotentiaries to discuss, settle, and sign, the said definitive treaty; namely, his majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the Right Honourable Robert Stewart, Viscount Castlereagh, &c. &c. and the most illustrious and most noble Lord Arthur, Duke, Marquis, and Earl, of Wellington, &c. &c. and his majesty the King of France and Navarre, the Sieur Armand Emanuel du Plessis Richelieu, Duke of Richelieu, &c. &c. who, having exchanged their full powers, found to be in good and due form, have signed the following articles.

Art. I. The frontiers of France shall be the same as they were in 1790, save and except the modifications on one side and on the other, which are detailed in the present article.

First, on the northern frontiers, the line of demarcation shall remain as it was fixed by the Treaty of Paris, as far as opposite to Quiverain; from thence it shall follow the ancient limits of the Belgian provinces, of the late bishopric of Liege, and of the duchy of Bouillon, as they existed in the year 1790, leaving the territories included (*enclavés*) within that line of Philippeville and Mariembourg, with the fortresses so called, together with the whole of the duchy of Bouillon, without the frontiers of France. From Villiers, near Orval, upon the confines of the department of the Ardennes, and of the grand duchy of Luxembourg as far as Perle, upon the great road leading from Thionville to Treves, the line shall remain as it was laid down by the Treaty of Paris. From Perle it shall pass by Lauenfдорff, Walwich, Schardorff, Neidervelling, Pelweiler, (all these places, with their *banlieues*, or dependencies, remaining to France,) to Houvre; and shall follow from thence the old limits of the district (*Pays*) of Sarrebruck, leaving Sarrelouis, and the course of the Sarre, together with the places situated to the right of the line above described, and their *banlieues*, or dependencies, without the limits of France. From the limits of the district of Sarrebruck, the line of demarcation shall be the same which at present separates from Germany the departments of the Moselle and of the Lower Rhine, as far as to the Lauter, which river shall, from thence, serve as the frontier until it falls into the Rhine. All the territory on the left bank of the Lauter, including the fortress of Landau, shall form part of Germany. The town of Weissenbourg, however, through which that river runs, shall remain entirely to France, with a rayon on the left bank, not exceeding 1000 toises, and which shall be more particularly determined by the commissioners, who shall be charged with the approaching designation of the boundaries.

Secondly, leaving the mouth of the Lauter, and continuing along the departments of the Lower Rhine, the Upper Rhine, the Doubs, and the Jura, to the Canton de Vaud, the frontiers shall remain as fixed by the Treaty of Paris. The Thalweg of the Rhine shall form the boundary between France and the states of Germany; but the property of the islands shall remain in perpetuity as it shall be fixed by a new survey of the course of that river, and continue unchanged, whatever variation that course may undergo in the lapse of time. Commissioners shall be named on both sides, by the high contracting parties, within the space of three months, to proceed upon the said survey. One half of the bridge between Strasbourg and Kehl shall belong to France, and the other half to the grand duchy of Baden.

Thirdly, in order to establish a direct communication between the canton of Geneva and Switzerland, that part of the Pays de Gex bounded on the east by the lake Leman, on the south by the territory of the canton of Geneva, on the north by that of the canton de Vaud, on the west by

by the course of the Verfoix, and by a line which comprehends the communes of Collex, Boffy, and Meyrin, leaving the commune of Ferney to France, shall be ceded to the Helvetic Confederacy, in order to be united to the canton of Geneva. The line of the French custom-houses shall be placed to the West of the Jura, so that the whole of the Pays de Gex shall be without that line.

Fourthly, from the frontiers of the canton of Geneva as far as the Mediterranean, the line of demarcation shall be that which, in the year 1799, separated France from Savoy, and from the county of Nice. The relations which the Treaty of Paris, of 1814, had re-established between France and the principality of Monaco, shall cease for ever, and the same relations shall exist between that principality and his majesty the King of Sardinia.

Fifthly, all the territories and districts included within the boundary of the French territory, as determined by the present article, shall remain united to France.

Sixthly, the high contracting parties shall name, within three months after the signature of the present treaty, commissioners to regulate every thing relating to the designation of the boundaries of the respective countries; and, as soon as the labours of the commissioners shall have terminated, maps shall be drawn, and land-marks shall be erected, which shall point out the respective limits.

II. The fortresses, places, and districts, which, according to the preceding article, are no longer to form part of the French territory, shall be placed at the disposal of the allied powers at the periods fixed by the ninth article of the Military Convention annexed to the present Treaty; and his majesty the King of France renounces for himself, his heirs and successors for ever, the rights of sovereignty and property which he has hitherto exercised over the said fortresses, places, and districts.

III. The fortifications of Huningue, having been constantly an object of uneasiness to the town of Basle, the high contracting parties, in order to give to the Helvetic Confederacy a new proof of their good-will, and of their solicitude for its welfare, have agreed among themselves to demolish the fortifications of Huningue; and the French government engages, from the same motive, not to re-establish them at any time, and not to replace them by other fortifications at a distance of less than that of three leagues from the town of Basle. The neutrality of Switzerland shall be extended to the territory situated to the north of a line to be drawn from Ugene, that town being included to the south of the lake of Annecy, by Faverge, as far as Lecheraine, and from thence, by the lake of Bourget, as far as the Rhone, in like manner as it was extended to the provinces of Chablais and of Faucigny by the ninety-second article of the final Act of the Congress of Vienna.

IV. The pecuniary part of the indemnity to be furnished by France to the allied powers, is fixed at the sum of 700 millions of francs. The mode, the periods, and the guarantees, for the payment of this sum, shall be regulated by a Special Convention, which shall have the same force and effect as if it were inserted, word for word, in the present treaty.

V. The state of uneasiness and fermentation which, after so many violent convulsions, and particularly after the last catastrophe, France must still experience, notwithstanding the paternal intentions of her king, and the advantages secured to every class of his subjects, by the constitutional charter, requiring, for the security of the neighbouring states, certain measures of precaution, and of temporary guarantee; it has been judged indispensable to occupy, during a fixed time, by corps of allied troops, certain military positions along the frontiers of France, under the express reserve, that such occupation shall in no way prejudice the sovereignty of his most Christian majesty, nor the state of possession, such as it is recognized and confirmed by the present treaty. The number of these troops shall not exceed 150,000 men. The commander-in-chief of this army shall be [the Duke of Welling-

ton] nominated by the allied powers. This army shall occupy the fortresses of Condé, Valenciennes, Bouchain, Cambrai, Quesnoy, Maubeuge, Landrecies, Avesnes, Rocroy, Givet, with Charlemont, Mezieres, Sedan, Montmedy, Thionville, Longwy, Bitsche, and the tête-du-pont of Fort Louis. As the maintenance of the army destined for this service is to be provided by France, a Special Convention shall regulate every thing which may relate to that object. This Convention, which shall have the same force and effect as if it were inserted word for word in the present treaty, shall also regulate the relations of the army of occupation with the civil and military authorities of the country. The utmost extent of the duration of this military occupation is fixed at five years. It may terminate before that period, if at the end of three years the allied sovereigns, after having, in concert with his majesty the King of France, maturely examined their reciprocal situation and interests, and the progress which shall have been made in France in the re-establishment of order and tranquillity, shall agree to acknowledge that the motives which led them to that measure have ceased to exist. [In point of fact, the army of occupation was reduced in 1817 to 120,000 men, and was totally withdrawn at the end of 1818.]

VI. The foreign troops, not forming part of the army of occupation, shall evacuate the French territory within the term fixed by the 9th article of the military convention annexed to the present treaty.

VII. In all countries which shall change sovereigns, as well in virtue of the present treaty as of the arrangements which are to be made in consequence thereof, a period of six years, from the date of the exchange of the ratifications, shall be allowed to the inhabitants, natives or foreigners, of whatever condition and nation they may be, to dispose of their property, if they should think fit to do so, and to retire to whatever country they may choose.

VIII. All the dispositions of the Treaty of Paris, of the 30th of May 1814, relative to the countries ceded by that treaty, shall equally apply to the several territories and districts ceded by the present treaty.

IX. The high-contracting parties have caused representation to be made of the different claims arising out of non-execution of the 19th and following articles of the Treaty of the 30th of May, 1814, as well as of the Additional Articles of that Treaty, signed between Great Britain and France, desiring to render more efficacious the stipulations made thereby, and having determined, by two separate conventions, the line to be pursued on each side for that purpose, the said two Conventions, as annexed to the present treaty, shall, in order to secure the complete execution of the above-mentioned articles, have the same force and effect as if the same were inserted, word for word, herein.

X. All prisoners taken during the hostilities, as well as all hostages which may have been carried off or given, shall be restored in the shortest time possible. The same shall be the case with respect to the prisoners taken previously to the Treaty of the 30th of May, 1814, and who shall not already have been restored.

XI. The treaty of Paris, of the 30th of May, 1814, and the Final Act of the Congress of Vienna, of the 9th of June, 1815, are confirmed, and shall be maintained in all such of their enactments as shall not have been modified by the articles of the present treaty.

XII. The present Treaty, with the Conventions annexed thereto, shall be ratified in one act, and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged in the space of two months, or sooner if possible. In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereunto the seals of their arms. Done at Paris, the 20th day of November, in the year of our Lord 1815.

CASTLEREAGH.

RICHELIEU.

WELLINGTON.

Similar Treaties were signed, on the same day, by the Plenipotentiaries

Plenipotentiaries of France, with those of Austria, Russia, and Prussia.

The French legislature met on the 25th of November, when the king, with a heavy heart, communicated to them that this important document was ratified, and wanted only some diplomatic formalities to enable him to lay before them the extent of the sacrifices demanded of them. His majesty having taken his seat on the throne, with the princes on his right, and the members of the two chambers, uncovered, placed in a circular manner; his majesty then took off his hat, put it on again, and delivered the following speech:

"Gentlemen; When last year I assembled the two chambers, for the first time, I congratulated myself upon having, by an honourable treaty, restored peace to France. She began to taste the fruits of it; all the sources of public prosperity were re-opening, when a criminal enterprise, seconded by the most inconceivable defection, arrested their course. The evils which this ephemeral usurpation caused our country deeply afflicted me. Yet, I ought to declare here, that, had it been possible to affect none but myself, I should have blessed Providence. The marks of affection which my people have given me, in the most critical moments, have consoled me in my personal sufferings; but those of my subjects, of my children, weigh upon my heart; and, in order to put a period to this state of affairs, more burthenome even than the war itself, I have concluded with the powers which, after having destroyed the usurper, still occupy a great part of our territory, a convention which regulates our present and future relations with them. It will be communicated to you without any restriction, as soon as it has received its last formality.

"You will know, gentlemen, and all France will know, the profound grief I must have felt; but the very safety of my kingdom rendered this great determination necessary; and, when I took it, I felt the duties it imposed upon me. I have ordered that there should, this year, be paid from the treasury of my civil-list, into the treasury of the state, a considerable portion of my revenue. My family were no sooner informed of my resolution, than they offered me a proportionate gift. I have ordered similar diminutions in the salaries and expenses of all my servants, without exception. I shall always be ready to share sacrifices which imperious circumstances impose upon my people. All the statements shall be submitted to you; and you will know the importance of the economy which I have commanded in the departments of my ministers, and in all parts of the government: happy if these measures shall suffice for the burthens of the state. In all events I rely upon the devotedness of the nation, and the zeal of the two chambers. But, gentlemen, other, sweeter, and not less important, cares, unite you at present; it is to give more weight to your deliberations, it is to collect more lights myself, that I have created new peers, and that the number of the deputies of departments has been increased.

"I hope I have succeeded in my choice; and the eagerness of the deputies, at this difficult conjuncture, is also a proof that they are animated by a sincere affection for my person, and an ardent love for the country. It is, then, with sweet satisfaction, and full confidence, that I have assembled you about me, certain that you will never lose sight of the fundamental basis of the happiness of the state, a frank and loyal union of the chamber with the king, and respect for the Constitutional Charter. That Charter, which I weighed before I gave it, to which reflection attaches me more and more dearly, which I have sworn to maintain, and to which all of you, beginning with my family, are about to swear obedience, is, without doubt, susceptible, like all human institution, of being more perfect; but none of us ought to forget, that the danger of innovation is not far remote from the advantage of melioration.

"Many other objects of importance require our labours to make religion re-flourish, purify morals, found liberty

upon respect for the laws, render them more and more analogous to these great views, give stability to credit, re-compose the army, heal the wounds that have but too deeply torn the bosom of our country; in fine, insure internal tranquillity, and thereby make France respected without: such are the objects that our efforts ought to lead to. I do not flatter myself that so much good can be the work of one session; but if, at the close of the present legislature, it is seen that we are approaching it, we ought to be satisfied with ourselves. I shall leave nothing undone; and, in order to arrive at it, I rely, gentlemen, upon your most active co-operation."

After the speech, the Duke of Angoulême, Duke of Berri, and the Duke of Orleans, took the oath which follows: "I swear fidelity to the king, and obedience to the constitutional charter, and the laws of the kingdom."—The names of the peers were afterwards called over, who individually took the following oath: "I swear fidelity to the king, obedience to the constitutional charter, and the laws of the kingdom; and to conduct myself in every thing which appertains to my situation as a good and loyal peer of France."

In communicating the documents to the chambers, the Duc de Richelieu explained to them the motives of the government in accepting terms, which he acknowledged to be the most disadvantageous ever signed by France. The motives assigned by him for their acceptance may be summed up in one word of powerful import; *Necessity*. "After long and continued discussions, (said he,) in which demands still more important had been produced against us, and at length withdrawn, those which have been communicated to you, were presented as an *ultimatum*. The most urgent and imperious considerations imposed it on us a law to subscribe to them; and it is enough to know that they have been proposed to *Frenchmen*, to be justified in the conclusion, that indispensable necessity alone could induce them to subscribe to them. After having exhausted all the means of discussion and resistance which could be suggested by reason, and by that political foresight which in good as well as in bad fortune ought to be the constant guide of the conduct of cabinets; seeing on the one part, in the disposition of the ministers of the powers, a determination irrevocably fixed; seeing, on the other hand, that the present crisis brought incessantly into action, in the whole extent of France, the principle of an oppression, of an impoverishment, of an irritation, and, in short, a series of devastations, which seemed daily to increase and to acquire new strength;—we judged, that, if we suffered this crisis to be indefinitely prolonged, the fate of France was at stake, even the fate of those who have imposed upon us such great sacrifices, and perhaps the destiny of social order in Europe. And it was in the prospect of so many dangers, that sacrificing, without hesitation, all our repugnance, we accepted, in the name of the king, in the name of the country, the conditions which have been laid before you." The minister, on ending his discourse, observed for the information of the chamber, that there were no secret conditions accessory to those which he had just communicated.

The speech of the duke de Richelieu seems to have been received with less resignation by the Chamber of Deputies than by the other branch of the legislature. "It was heard," says the Gazette de France, "with profound attention, and the silence of grief. The President, with a faltering voice, acknowledged the receipt of the communication which the minister had made to the chamber, and ordered the printing of the speech, the Treaty, and the Conventions which had been read. The chamber then formed itself into a secret committee, probably to prepare an address of condolence to the king. This purpose, however, was not effected; both chambers resolved, that the usual mode of presenting addresses by deputation should be deviated from in this instance, and that the presidents should be charged to present the thanks of the chambers. On Monday the 27th, the President of the Deputies

ties rendered an account to the chamber, of his mission to the king for that purpose. The President of the Chamber is stated to have said to the king: "Sire; Your faithful subjects of the Chamber of Deputies thank you for not having despaired of the safety of the state; they are sensible, that your magnanimous virtues have saved the country from the greatest calamities. Sire, the chamber participates in your profound grief; but, encouraged by your royal resignation, it feels itself strong enough to encounter so much adversity; its unchangeable confidence in your majesty, its love for your sacred person, and the union of Frenchmen, of which it will furnish the example, will alleviate the weight of the sacrifices that are imposed on us. France, faithful to the word of the king, and aided by Providence, will prove to the world, at what price she is capable of guarding the faith of treaties."

To which his majesty replied; "King of any other country, I might have abandoned hope; but the King of France never despairs of Frenchmen; let them form but one falces, and our misfortunes will be repaired." The chamber, it is said, immediately arose; and cries of "Long live the King" resounded through the hall.

France complained loudly and bitterly of the conditions of peace, which she termed harsh and severe. Galling and humiliating it no doubt was, to a nation which, only three years before, with her arms threatened the confines of Asia, not only to have lost every thing, but thus to have the bridle of Europe placed in her jaws, in order to curb her future motions. This short revolution was certainly most fatal to France; and the expenses which she incurred, in consequence, were immense. We shall here put into a short compass what it has cost her, in consequence of the return of Bonaparte from Elba.

Her own expenses estimated at	-	-	1,500,000,000
Contributions to the allies	-	-	700,000,000
Requisitions, food, clothing, &c. &c.	-	-	690,000,000
Maintenance of 150,000 men, 3 years	-	-	650,000,000
Total			3,540,000,000

or about 148,000,000l. sterling, in money; and at least 150,000 lives in France, and 50,000 in Italy. Such was the bitter cup of humiliation which she was doomed to drain, after so many triumphs over her neighbours, enjoyed with so little moderation. As she had risen higher under Napoleon than at any former period, so was she called upon to submit to a greater abasement.

The most important of all the Treaties, (except the principal one which we have given,) is that between the allies themselves, guaranteeing to each other the performance of the conditions exacted from France. By renewing the exclusion of Bonaparte and his family from the throne, they have extinguished the last hope of the intriguers in the name of Napoleon II. and, by engaging to support the foreign troops left in France against any attack, the allies guarded the throne itself against the possible influence of evil ministers, who might not hesitate to plunge their country into new wars.

During this session, a very important temporary law passed both chambers and received the royal sanction. Its object was to suppress seditious practices and demonstrations, for which various degrees of punishment are provided. It bears some resemblance to our suspension of the *habeas-corpus* act, and arms the executive with almost arbitrary power; but its duration was limited to the commencement of the next session of the chambers.

For some time after the second restoration of the Bourbons, it seemed as if the king was disposed to pass over the offences mentioned in his proclamation (p. 556.) and in his decrees (p. 574.) and so content himself, as Napoleon did, without "bringing up for judgment" those who had betrayed him. But, at length, measures were taken for punishing the principal offenders; and a commission was authorised to examine "the conduct of officers who had served during the usurpation."

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Colonel Labedoyere, having been arrested soon after the French army was disbanded, was tried on the 15th of August. M. de Sauvigny was president of the court. The charges against him were "treason, rebellion, and seducing his troops from their duty." His offences were clearly proved; and he was found guilty, and sentenced to suffer death. It appears that, on the news of Bonaparte's landing, he was ordered with his regiment, by general Devilliers, from Chambéry to Grenoble, where some troops were assembled to stop the progress of the usurper. He was placed in bivouac on the ramparts; but he incited his soldiers to revolt, and led them out to join the invader. He had scarcely left the town, when he drew his sword, and cried out, *Vive l'Empereur*. He then broke open a chest, whence he took an Eagle, placed it at the top of a branch of a tree, marched under it to join Napoleon, and returned with him the same evening to take military possession of Grenoble. His superior officer, general Devilliers, followed, and tried in vain to bring him back, though he persuaded about a hundred of the soldiers to return to their duty. In the preliminary proceedings of the trial, he admitted these facts, but denied having taken the oath of allegiance to the king; saying, that he had not joined his regiment when the oath was administered to that corps. After the ruin of Bonaparte's cause, Labedoyere joined Excelman's corps, which had hoisted the white flag. He did not himself hoist a white cockade, but joined it as a simple citizen. He wished to escape to America; but found it impossible to embark, or even to proceed to Switzerland. He then returned to Paris, and surrendered himself. The counsel against the accused remarked in aggravation, that Labedoyere had given the first signal of revolt; it was to his defection that all other defections were owing.

M. Labedoyere read his defence, which appeared to be written in haste and without method, upon slips of paper. He declared that he had no intention, nor the possibility, of denying facts public and notorious; he was ready to sign the act of accusation drawn up against him; but he would justify himself from the charge of having been concerned in any plot that preceded the return of Bonaparte; and he protested that he was convinced no relation ever existed between the isle of Elba and Paris. He then took some objections to the form of the proceedings. He observed, that the law ordained, that military prisoners should be tried by the councils of war of their respective divisions, in order to facilitate to them the means of moral justification in the very places where the crime imputed to them may have been committed: the last ordonnance of his majesty appears to deprive prisoners of the benefit of the law; can they demand it? this is the question which he wished to submit to council. He was answered in the negative.

The court, after long deliberation, found him guilty of treason and rebellion. They also declared, that he had not profited of the delay of eight days granted by the ordonnance of the king, to all the abettors of Bonaparte to return to their duty. In consequence, they condemned him to the pain of death, to degradation from the rank of colonel, and from the title of commandant of the legion of honour, and to the payment of the expenses of the trial.

After sentence of death had been pronounced, he was informed that he could appeal to the Court of Cassation; he did so, and, amongst other grounds, very justly urged the 12th article of the Convention of Paris, (see p. 557.) but this and every other plea was rejected. The court delivered its confirmation of the judgment on Saturday afternoon, at three o'clock; it was communicated to him, and he was required to prepare for instant execution.

When the family of Labedoyere heard that the council of revision had confirmed his sentence, his wife, clad in deep mourning, appeared before the king as he was getting into his carriage, and, falling at his feet, exclaimed, "Pardon, pardon, sire!"—"Madame," said the king, "I know

your sentiments and those of your family; and never was it more painful for me to pronounce a refusal. If M. Labedoyere had only offended me, his pardon should be granted; but all France demands the punishment of the man who has brought upon her all the scourges of war. I promise my protection to you and to your child." The mother of the unfortunate man was prevented from seeing the king, by those around him.

Col. Labedoyere in the mean time was hurried off to the Plain of Grenelle, where two lines of gendarmes were drawn up, to carry the sentence into effect. He refused to have his eyes bandaged; and, taking off his hat, said to the soldiers, "*Surtout ne me manquez pas—tirez!*" They fired, and in an instant he was no more; this was at half-past five o'clock, Aug. 19, 1815; two hours and a half after the confirmation of the sentence.

The next trial of importance that took place was that of Marshal Ney. This officer, on the return of Louis to Paris, left that capital with the intention of retiring to a foreign country; but was arrested near Aurillac, in Auvergne, on the 25th of August. After various delays, it was determined that his case should be submitted to a court-martial of the first military division, composed of Marshal Jourdan as president, Marshals Massena, Angereau, and Mortier; Lieutenant-generals Counts Villatte, Claparede, and Maifon. Massena, at the opening of the proceedings on the 9th of November, urged, as a ground for declining the judicial office, an old grudge, originating in some differences which had taken place between Ney and himself in Spain. This conscientious scruple being overruled by his colleagues, the trial began with the reading of some examinations of the prisoner by the prefect of the police, the depositions of witnesses who had already been examined, and a mass of papers relative to the conduct of the accused. The reading of these documents being finished on the 10th, Ney was brought before the court, but refused to answer any questions, on the ground of the incompetency of that tribunal. His advocate, to whom he left the exposition of the grounds of his protest, rested his arguments of incompetency on three positions: 1. That, by the charter, all crimes of high treason must be tried by the peers of the accused. 2. That peers cannot be tried criminally except by peers. 3. That, even supposing a marshal to be amenable to military law, the composition of that tribunal was not legal, because marshals, as grand dignitaries of the empire, bear no analogy to commanders-in-chief, who must be tried by officers of the same rank. The members of the court retired to consider these objections, and on their return, in half-an-hour, stated, that by a majority of 5 to 2 they declared themselves incompetent to try Marshal Ney.

This unexpected decision, although extremely mortifying to the king and his ministers, produced no hesitation as to the farther steps which ought to be taken. On the 11th the ministers, with the duke of Richelieu at their head, repaired to the Chamber of Peers to communicate a royal ordinance, directing the chamber, in conformity to the 33d article of the Charter, to proceed immediately to the trial of Marshal Ney. The duke, in an energetic speech, in which he did not disguise the disappointed feelings of his majesty's government, conjured the chamber to crush the hopes of a malevolent faction, to act with promptitude, and not to suffer a longer impunity of crime to engender new miseries. This was a pretty good hint as to what the king, in his paternal goodness, expected and wished should be the issue of the trial. The chamber accordingly determined on the 13th to proceed to the trial, and fixed the opening of it for the 21st.

Ney meanwhile, "in his last extremity," as he expresses himself, addressed a memorial to the ministers of the four great allied powers; demanding from them and their courts the protection which he claimed under the 12th article of the Military Convention of July, before referred

to. By that article, "the lives and properties of the inhabitants, and all persons in general who were then in Paris, were secured from all molestation on account of the functions which they held, or their political conduct or opinions." He contends, that, as this Convention was signed by the British and Prussian generals on the part of the allied powers, of whom Louis XVIII. was one, the King of France is equally bound to the observance of its conditions with every other member of the confederacy; and that, independently of this virtual assent, the Convention afterwards received the express sanction of his majesty on entering the capital. He concludes with declaring, that, had it not been for his implicit reliance on the word of so many sovereigns, he would have retired to some country where he was unknown, to bury himself in obscurity. To this memorial the duke of Wellington briefly answered, that the Convention related merely to the military occupation of Paris; that it was designed for the protection of the inhabitants from any measures of severity under the military authority of those who concluded it; but was never intended to tie up the hands of the then existing French government or any other which might succeed it, from acting as it might think fit.

The chamber of peers met on the day appointed; and, after about a fortnight's delay allowed for the summoning of witnesses, Ney was brought, on the 4th of December, before that tribunal. As the fact of his treasonable conduct in deserting the cause of the king, and joining Bonaparte with the force under his command, could not be controverted, the defence of his counsel principally aimed at a palliation of his guilt, founded on the alleged difficulty of the situation of the marshal, who was hurried away by the force of circumstances. It was also urged at the trial, as it had previously been in a note addressed to the duke of Wellington, that the Convention concluded for the surrender of Paris held out security to the persons and property of its inhabitants, whatever might have been their political conduct anterior to that event. The ministers shamefully contended that this convention had no reference to the king's dispositions and rights as sovereign of the country, that he never acceded to it, and that consequently he could not be bound by any of its provisions.

M. Dupin, his advocate, then attempted another mode of defence, which will appear rather singular: "The marshal (said he) is not merely under the protection of the French laws; he is under the protection of the law of nations. I speak not now of the Convention, but of the limits traced by the Treaty of the 20th of November, which certainly is an act solemn and legal, which we may invoke, since it is to that we owe the happy peace we now enjoy. The Treaty of the 20th of November, in tracing a new line round France, has left on the right Sarrebruck, the country of the marshal. The marshal, Frenchman as he is in heart, is no longer a Frenchman since the treaty." Here the accused with great vehemence interrupted his advocate: "*I am a Frenchman! I will die a Frenchman! I thank my counsel for what they have done, and are ready to do; but desire them rather to cease defending me at all than to defend me in this way. I forbid my counsel from saying a word more.*"

M. Bellart, after a conference with the king's ministers, said, "Since the marshal renounces all further defence, we renounce the right of reply. I shall now present the requisition, upon which the chamber will retire to deliberate." The chamber having deliberated six hours, brought in the expected verdict, declaring the unfortunate marshal guilty of high treason, and condemned him to suffer death. There were 160 peers present: 139 voted for the punishment of death; 17 for banishment, (deportation); 4 refused to vote at all; three upon the principle that it is not lawful for one man to decide upon the life of another, and one (the duke de Choiseul) said that, having himself been more than once condemned to death during the revolution,

volution, the horror of that situation was so strong upon his mind, he could not bring himself to place any other human being in a similar one.

This was on the 6th; and the promptness of the execution after sentence put folks in mind, as in the case of Labedoyere, of the good times of the republic; for at nine o'clock on the following morning he was put to death. The expression used at the time was, that he was "put to death *clandestinely*;" by which, however, nothing more is meant, than that he was executed at an earlier hour, and on a different spot, from what was expected; and hence the multitude, who intended to witness his death, were disappointed. The coach which conveyed him, traversing the garden of the Luxembourg, proceeded to the end of the grand walk that leads to the observatory, which was the spot fixed on for the execution. On finding the coach stop, the marshal, who thought they were going to carry him to the Place de Grenelle, expressed some surprise. Asking if that was the place of execution, he was answered in the affirmative; and immediately alighted. After embracing his confessor, to whom he gave his snuff-box for his wife, and some pieces of gold to be distributed to the poor, he proceeded with a quick step to within eight paces of the wall: he then faced the detachment of veterans who were to fire: he took off his hat to them, crossed his arms, and said, "Soldiers, I am innocent, I die innocent; and I appeal from this iniquitous judgment to God and to posterity." He then immediately unfolded his arms, and exclaimed, "Do your duty!" The volley was fired, and he fell: two balls struck him in the head, four in the body, and one passed through his heart. Conformably to military regulations, the body remained exposed on the place of execution for a quarter of an hour. There were but few persons, however, present; for the populace, believing that the execution would happen on the Place de Grenelle, had repaired thither. The body was placed upon a litter, covered with a cloth, and carried by the veterans to the Hospital of the Foundlings. All this was over before half-past nine; and, at ten, madame Ney, ignorant, like the people, that the execution had taken place, went to the Tuileries to implore the king's clemency; but the duke of Duras, to whom she addressed herself in order to be introduced, was obliged to inform her that the marshal no longer existed!

The next trial of importance which took place in Paris, after that of marshal Ney, was that of general Lavalette, the director-general of the post-office, who was accused of high-treason, in taking possession of the post-office on the 20th of March, before the arrival of Bonaparte. Lavalette was related to the Bonaparte family, having, in 1802, married a niece of the empress Josephine. He served as aide-de-camp to Bonaparte in his Italian campaigns, partook of his fortune in Egypt, and continued to serve under him till the peace of Luneville, in 1801, when he was appointed counsellor-of-state, and director-general of the posts, which place he occupied till the restoration of the Bourbons in 1814, when he was dismissed, and his place given to M. Ferrand. His trial commenced on the 20th of November, before the court of assize for the department of the Seine.

It is to be observed, that a post-master, in Paris and other great towns of France, is an officer of great importance; for he not only directs the conveyance or detention of letters, but has also all the inn-keepers under his jurisdiction, so that no traveller can obtain post-horses without his consent. Lavalette, having gone to the post-office, and displaced M. Ferrand, immediately circulated the following order:

"March 20, 1815. The post-master must give horses to no person who does not produce an order signed by me, or the emperor's ministers.

LAVALETTE."

It is not necessary for us to enter into the particulars of the trial, which occupied two days. About twelve o'clock at night, on the 21st, he was brought in guilty,

and sentence of death was pronounced upon him. He appealed, in the usual manner, against the sentence; but the attempt proved unavailing; and, on the 15th of December, he received a notification which confirmed the decision of the court of assize.

As he was not executed on the following day, according to the promptitude used in the two former instances, an idea went abroad that it was intended to commute his punishment; and madame Lavalette, whose health had been dreadfully impaired by her sufferings since the arrest of her husband, resolved, with the assistance of marshal Marmont, to endeavour to throw herself into the way of the king, and implore his mercy. The following is a short account of this affair. It is to be understood that, just previous to the king's going to mass, no person is permitted to enter from the great staircase into the Salle des Marechaux, through which he passes from his own apartments to the chapel. At this moment, however Marmont with madame Lavalette on his arm, both in deep mourning, contrived to pass the national guard who was on duty at the door; and, as the king, monsieur, madame, and the usual escort, entered the hall in their way to the chapel, madame Lavalette suddenly and unexpectedly rushed forward, seized the hand of the king, and, falling at his feet, exclaimed, "Pardon, pardon, fire!" The king could not refrain from tears; but, after looking very severely towards Marmont, he said to madame Lavalette, "I had hoped, madame, to have been spared this painful scene. In thinking you could save your husband, you have done your duty; but I must also do mine as a king." He then disengaged himself, and passed on, evidently much distressed. Madame Lavalette then attempted to get to the duchess d'Angouleme to intercede; but, overcome by the poignancy of her feelings, she fainted on the floor, and was carried out of the hall.

Notwithstanding the ill-success of this attempt, however, Lavalette escaped the infliction of the sentence passed upon him, by a stratagem which reflects everlasting honour upon the affection, constancy, and fortitude, of his wife. It has been already stated, that her health had been seriously impaired; in fact, she had been delivered of a dead child; and therefore, for several weeks, in order to avoid the motion of her carriage, she had made use of a sedan-chair. She was accustomed to be carried in this vehicle into the prison, when it was constantly deposited in the passage of the under-turnkey's room; thence passing through a door, the yard, and corridor, leading to the prisoner's apartments. At four o'clock on the afternoon of the 20th, madame Lavalette arrived, as usual, with a great French bonnet and a large veil, accompanied by her daughter, a young lady about eleven years of age. She was assisted up-stairs, and dined with her husband. About half-past five, M. Lavalette, arrayed in his wife's clothes, taking his daughter by the arm, and supported by one of the turnkeys, slowly descended the stairs. Nothing occurring to excite suspicion, he passed before all the inspectors and guardians of the prison, and, at the unbarring of the last gate, was restored to his friends and liberty. In the mean time, madame Lavalette, who had thrown over her the large cloak of her husband, was seated, almost breathless, in his arm-chair, with a book in her hand, and the candle burning behind her on the table. At half-past six, the gaoler, entering the room, spoke to her, but met with no reply; he repeated the question, and, astonished at the continued silence, he approached nearer to the lady, when with a smile, succeeded by strong convulsions, she exclaimed, "He is gone!" The confusion may be easily imagined. The prefect of police was acquainted with the fact at a quarter before seven; estafettes were dispatched in every direction, and the barriers were instantly closed.

The police traced the chair two streets distant; there, it appears, M. Lavalette alighted, and stepped into a carriage that was waiting for him. This well-conducted plan

was

was executed with peculiar facility, and at the decisive moment; for M. Barbe Marbois, after several requests, was reluctantly obliged to send, on the evening of the day before, to his majesty's attorney-general, the papers which passed through his hands from the court of cassation. It was even rumoured that he, in some degree, committed himself, by keeping those important documents two days longer in his possession than the law authorises. The attorney-general, had he received these papers before, must have done his duty immediately, and Lavalette would have been no more.

It is necessary here to observe, that the king of Bavaria on hearing of the conviction of Count Lavalette, to whom he was nearly related, demanded, through his minister, his full and entire acquittal, in virtue of the 12th article of the Convention of the 3d of July, which guaranteed the lives and property of all those who had taken any part in the revolution. This positive and well-timed demand staggered not only the French ministers, but the king himself; nay, it staggered even the duke of Wellington, who made that convention. The fact is, that the duke, in that very act, solemnly guaranteed the lives and properties of the individuals in question; and, in his letter to marshal Ney, it is plain that he shrunk from his duty in maintaining them. The trials of these men was a mere farce; for their condemnation was previously determined upon by the king and his ministers. In the trial of Ney, whenever his advocate urged a point of law in his favour, he was hissed and coughed down; and the president of the chamber of peers, who was a violent ultra-royalist, authoritatively dismissed, but without attempting to find even the shadow of an argument, the important plea which resulted from the 12th article of the capitulation of Paris, although the chief of Davoust's staff swears, that "his orders were to break off the conferences, had a refusal of it been made." The French attorney-general, however, objected to the article, as being "the work of foreigners," when, at the same time, he must have known, that, had it not been for "*the work of foreigners*," his master would not then have been in the Tuileries.

The circumstances we have mentioned being combined together, namely, the protest of the king of Bavaria, and the detention of the papers, &c. caused it at first to be very generally surmised that the king, or at least some of his ministers, had connived at the escape of this culprit. But it has since been discovered that he was assisted in his plans by three English gentlemen of some distinction: Sir Robert Wilson, who, as a soldier and a writer, had strongly manifested his antipathy to Bonaparte; Capt. Hutchinson, of the guards, nephew to lords Hutchinson and Donoughmore; and Mr. Bruce, son of Crawford Bruce, esq. banker.

These gentlemen were acquainted with the intended escape of Lavalette, and took measures to conceal him. Mr. Bruce procured the measure of his person, which Hutchinson transmitted to a French tailor, informing him that it was for an English general who had already left Paris, but wished the clothes to be sent after him without delay. On the 7th of January, 1816, in the evening, all matters being previously arranged, Bruce and Wilson met at Hutchinson's rooms, under pretence of taking a bottle together. Between seven and eight o'clock, Lavalette was brought thither by a Frenchman. He seemed at first in great emotion, and was so disguised that they did not know him. However, he was soon disembarrassed of his masquerade dress, furnished with a pair of pistols, and left to the care of Bruce for that night. The next morning, at half-past six, Sir Robert Wilson was at Hutchinson's door with a cabriolet and two saddle-horses, as if he was going to inspect some troops at a distance from the capital. Bruce and Lavalette entered the cabriolet. Sir Robert and Hutchinson rode near it, occasionally conversing with the persons within, one of whom, of course, contrived to keep his features concealed. On one occasion, they changed horses in the presence of

four gendarmes, whose suspicions were lulled by telling them the party were going to look out cantonments for a division of the English army. When they reached Compeigne, they found a serjeant ready to conduct them to the aide-de-camp's lodgings, where they took some refreshment, the latter having unsuspectingly sent a note beforehand for that purpose. They met with no obstacle whatever, except at Cambrai, where they were detained three hours at the gates. On their progress to Valenciennes, they were three times examined, and their passports carried to the respective commandants. They made no stop until they had crossed the Meuse, when they dined, and made arrangements for the ulterior destination of Lavalette; and, having taken leave of him, returned by Maubeuge and the Porte St. Martin.

On the return of Sir Robert Wilson and his companions to Paris, they were arrested in their beds early in the morning of the 13th of January, by an order from the minister of police, and carried to the prefecture, and from thence to the prison of the Abbaye, where they were confined in separate apartments. They demanded to be admitted to bail; but that was refused. After various examinations and considerable delays, they were brought to trial before the assize-court of the department of the Seine; together with Jacques Eberle, turnkey of the house of justice; Jean Baptiste Roquette de Kerguifec, head-gaoler of the same prison; Guerin, *alias* Marengo, Mad. Lavalette's chairman; and Benoit Bonneville, valet of M. Lavalette; charged respectively with having taken a part, more or less direct, in the escape of Lavalette.

On the facts charged against the accused, after their frank avowals, corroborated by the fullest proof, documentary and parole, no possible doubt could remain: and, at half-past five in the afternoon of the next day, the jury delivered their verdict into court. It was read by their foreman, and contained an acquittal of all the Frenchmen, except the turnkey, Eberle, who, as well as Sir Robert Wilson, Mr. Bruce, and Mr. Hutchinson, were found guilty. The president then proceeded to read the penal code, applicable to the convicted persons. Eberle was sentenced to two years' imprisonment. The article applicable to Sir Robert Wilson, and his friends, prescribes imprisonment for a term not exceeding two years, nor less than three months, at the discretion of the judge; and the president, without hesitation, pronounced for the shortest allowable period.

The French government were not deterred by the defence which was made founded on the 12th article of the Convention of Paris, from prosecuting and bringing other generals to trial, many of whom were condemned and shot. These measures, however, created general dissatisfaction throughout the kingdom. At Lyons, this spirit actually burst forth about the end of January 1816, in which generals Meunier and Lagrange were implicated. This attempt against the government, however, failed; the former was killed, and the latter afterwards secured a few leagues from the city. An insurrection of a more alarming nature took place at Grenoble, in May. This city is situated to the south-east of Lyons, and was the first great town that opened its gates to Bonaparte on his march, after landing from Elba. An attempt was made to take it by surprise, on the night between the 4th and 5th of May. The insurgents at first met with some success; but they were at length defeated with the loss of about 200 killed, wounded, and taken prisoners. Their force amounted to nearly 2000 men; and, as they consisted chiefly of half-pay officers and disbanded soldiers, they made a most desperate resistance to the troops opposed to them. This conspiracy was of a very general character, and its ramifications extended to the remotest parts of the country. Of those taken prisoners in this affair, thirty-eight were tried on the 9th of May, and fourteen shot on the following day. Didier, the leader, was subsequently secured, tried, and executed. Another set of conspirators were discovered at Paris, twenty-eight of whom were arrested

rested and brought to trial. The three principals, named Pleignier, Carbonneau, and Tolleron, were declared guilty of high-treason, and condemned to suffer death accordingly; seven were sentenced to transportation, and seven to solitary confinement for different periods, from five to ten years. This plot was connected with that discovered at Lyons, and even reached Brussels, which city was full of French refugees. Another revolt took place at Toulon, but was suppressed, though attended with the effusion of blood. Disturbances were continually breaking out in some parts of France, which, at one time, assumed such an alarming character, that the duke of Wellington was on the point of marching with his army to put it down.

This spirit of discontent was augmented, in a great measure, by the impolitic proceedings of the chamber of deputies; and the king was at length advised to close their sittings till the latter part of the year. So long, however, as these men continued to have any influence, prosecutions, trials, and executions, were the order of the day in France. General Mouton Duvernet, who surrendered himself, was tried and condemned to death on the 19th July, and shot on the 27th. Five persons were executed at Montpellier, on the 22d, for political offences, and great numbers were executed in other places. The prevotal court at Grenoble, which few would suspect of too much indulgence, recommended to the royal clemency eight individuals. This was not only withheld, but some disapprobation manifested to the members. For their own justification, they gave publicity to the motives which guided them. It appears, the greater part of the delinquents, for whom they invoked the king's mercy, were youths under eighteen, and that none of them were taken in arms; but it did appear that some of them were possessors of national property, and they had declared their resolution of defending it to the last drop of their blood. A youth of eighteen, who had inherited, a few months before, an estate of 500,000 francs, being captured in the ranks of the insurgents, was tried and shot. This refusal by Louis of an unanimous recommendation to mercy, will show the spirit of the court at this time, or rather of the ultras by whom the unfortunate monarch was influenced. We now proceed to the trials of the generals.

General Debelle was tried and found guilty upon two charges; namely, for assuming, without authority, the command of the department of the Drome, and for carrying arms against the king. Sentence of death, and degradation from the legion of honour, was passed upon him by the court; who, however, recommended him to mercy. Lieutenant-general Travot was also condemned to death, at Rennes, for rebellion, and exciting the citizens to arm against the legitimate authority. The sentence of death on Debelle was commuted for ten years' imprisonment; and he afterwards, at the intercession of the duke d'Angoulême, received a free pardon from the king. The sentence on General Travot was annulled by the tribunal of revision. The sentence of death pronounced against Col. Boyer, for his treasonable conduct at Guadaloupe was commuted to imprisonment for twenty years:—Admiral Linois was acquitted, and afterwards made a peer.

General Bertrand, who is with Bonaparte at St. Helena, was tried by a council of war at Paris, and condemned to death. General Lefebvre-Desnouettes, another of the principal agents in the usurpation of Bonaparte, was tried in his absence as *contumacious*; and, being found guilty, sentenced to death. He is the same person that was taken prisoner in the peninsula, and broke his parole in England.

General Rigault and Captain Thomassin were tried by the second council of war of the first military division; the former was absent and contumacious, the latter appeared. They were charged with using the public funds at Epervay, for the purpose of corrupting the troops and the inhabitants in favour of the return of Bonaparte. The total sum so applied by them was stated at 27,400

francs. General Rigault was found guilty, and sentenced to death; Thomassin was acquitted.

Marshal Gruyer was condemned to death by the council of war sitting at Strasburg; but his sentence has been commuted to imprisonment for twenty years.

General Chartrand was shot at Lille, in pursuance of his sentence, for having joined Bonaparte. Among other charges, he was accused of stopping the progress of the levies which were making in the south of France for the royal cause; and of rallying the general officers and troops in favour of Bonaparte, to oppose the duke of Angoulême, and to cut off his retreat. He was brought before the council of war on the 24th of December 1815; condemned to death on the 9th of May 1816, and shot on the 22d.

The trial of General Bonnaire, and Lieutenant Mieton, his aide-de-camp, for the murder of Colonel Gordon at Condé, terminated at half-past eight o'clock on the 8th of May. The council of war then withdrew to deliberate upon the sentence, and continued shut up until nine o'clock the next morning, when they pronounced their judgment: Mieton was condemned to death, and Bonnaire to transportation. Soon after the battle of Waterloo, Gordon, who was in the service of the king of France, was sent to the garrison of Condé, then in a state of revolt, to summon it to surrender. Bonnaire, the commander of the place, not only refused to recognize the orders of his sovereign, but caused Colonel Gordon to be put to death.

But the most interesting of all the trials for high treason was that of General Drouet, who accompanied Bonaparte to Elba after the treaty of Fontainebleau, and afterwards returned with him to France. The trial took place on the 6th of April. Drouet's case had many features of interest attached to it. After the treaty of Fontainebleau, by which Bonaparte was made independent sovereign of Elba, Drouet, who had served him long in the capacity of aide-de-camp, accompanied him to that island, and renounced his rights of Frenchman. He was, consequently, in the full sense of the word, the subject of Napoleon; and, as such, was bound to obey his orders. Actuated by "fidelity to his oaths and attachment to his sovereign," he refused many splendid offers of advancement in France, to accompany the fallen fortunes of his master, though he afterwards disapproved of his conduct. He stated, that Napoleon appeared to have no intention of ever returning to France till his pension was stopped, and he heard of the propositions made at the Congress of Vienna regarding himself; that France was unhappy, and loudly called for the restoration of her former government. This decided Napoleon, and he informed Drouet of his intention to give himself again to the wishes of the French people. Drouet was thunder-struck at his resolution, and opposed it with all his power, but in vain; and he had only to perform the duty of his functions by attending his sovereign. The march to Paris, and the triumph of the returning emperor, were described in glowing colours by Drouet. He partook in all the dangers of the succeeding events, and contributed with the army to the preservation of Paris. He withdrew with the troops to the Loire; where, on the re-establishment of the king's government, he gave the first example of submission to the king, and induced the corps he commanded, consisting of 16,000 men, to follow his example. Marshal Macdonald (duke of Tarentum) gave on the trial the highest testimony of his exemplary conduct on that occasion. He was, notwithstanding, included in the ordinance of proscription. On hearing this, he immediately repaired to Paris, where he surrendered himself, and demanded a trial. When the proceedings were concluded, the members of the council of war were divided in opinion, four for finding him guilty, and three for acquitting him; but, the law requiring that no condemnation shall take place except by a majority of at least five to two, he was acquitted.

General Cambronne was likewise brought to trial, and acquitted on the same principle as Drouet was. He

pleaded that he acted under the orders of Bonaparte; who was then Emperor of the isle of Elba, and his sovereign. General Cambronne, like Drouet, had gone with Napoleon to Elba. The acquittal of this latter officer added to the disappointment of the king and the ultra-royalists, and Louis insisted on the court revising the acquittal of Cambronne, which they did; but, to his great astonishment, they confirmed their former decision.

The result of these two trials gave considerable satisfaction to the inhabitants of Paris; and it was now evident, that the influence of the ultra-royalists was on the decline. They consoled themselves, however, for the present, with the foolish mummery of digging up the remains of the duke d'Enghien out of the fosse on the south side of the castle of Vincennes. The first object which caught attention was a boot, in tolerable preservation, in which were found the bones of the leg and foot; the skull was then found; the face was downwards; one leg had remained in an almost vertical position, and the arms were bent towards the back; a rather large stone appeared to have been designedly thrown upon the head, the bones of which were fractured. Some of the hair was still in preservation. The various fragments of the body, thus collected; were placed in a sheet. There were also found seventy-three German ducats; a leathern purse, in which there were a louis and some pieces of silver, a ring, and a gold chain which the prince was in the habit of wearing round his neck. There was remarked the perforation made by a ball in the shoulder-blade, and in the small casque which the prince wore at the time of execution. His hussar-boots were in tolerably good preservation. The sheet, containing the fragments, was placed in a leaden coffin.

The most important event in France this year was the dissolution of the chamber of deputies, by a royal ordinance of September the 5th. In the preamble, his majesty says, "We are convinced that the wants and wishes of our subjects concur in preserving untouched the Constitutional Charter, the basis of public law in France, and the guarantee of general tranquillity. We have, in consequence, judged it necessary to reduce the chamber of deputies to the number determined by the charter, and not to call to it men under forty years of age. But, to effect this reduction legally, it becomes indispensable to convoke anew the electoral colleges, in order to proceed to the election of a new chamber of deputies." The ordinance then declares, that "none of the articles of the constitutional charter shall be revised;" dissolves the chamber; reduces the number of deputies from 420 to 258; convokes the electoral colleges for the election of a new chamber, to meet on the 4th of November. Another ordinance, appointing the presidents of the electoral colleges, was remarkable for the exclusion of all members of the royal family from this important office, and the nomination of several of those members of the late chamber who supported the constitution against the party known by the appellation of ultra-royalists. It cannot be denied, that this measure was eminently calculated to inspire confidence in all classes, as evincing a determination, on the part of the king, to maintain the inviolability of personal property and private property, including the national domains, the restitution of which was manifestly a great object of the late chamber.

We shall take this opportunity of stating a few particulars relative to the chambers of parliament as at present constituted, after the various modifications the Charter has undergone in that respect. Under the article LONDON, vol. xiii. p. 382, 3, we gave a copy of the Constitutional Charter of the 6th of April, 1814, which was to be presented to Louis; and his acceptance of it was to constitute him king of France. He did not become king by accepting it, but was brought in by the victorious armies, and declared himself to be in the twentieth year of his reign. However, he promised to admit the chief articles,

as the basis, or foundation, of a Charter which *he* was to give them; and, accordingly, the particulars we shall give are chiefly to show the variations between that document and the present Charter, which is now appealed to by all parties as the safeguard of French liberty.

1. All ranks are equally admissible to public employments, whether civil or military.

2. The Catholic is the state-religion; but all other religions may be openly professed, and none imply political disqualification.

3. All sales of national property during the Revolution are confirmed to the purchasers.

4. The person of the king is inviolable; the responsibility rests with his ministers.

5. The executive power is vested in the king; the legislative, in the two houses of parliament as in England, with the distinction, that no bill can be brought in but by a minister of the crown, parliament having the right only of praying the king to bring in any particular bill.

6. The house of peers cannot be lawfully assembled except at the same time as the house of commons.

7. The members of the commons house are elected for five years, the house being renewable by a fifth annually.

8. The sittings of the house of commons are open to the public; those of the peers are private; all money-bills must originate with the commons.

9. The judges are named by the king; and, when appointed, are not removable. Juries are employed in criminal cases only.

The house of peers in France is, in many respects, on the same footing as in England, their number being unlimited; their nomination vested in the king; their dignity hereditary. Like our peers, they meet every session on the same day as the commons; and their proceedings, unless accompanied by simultaneous proceedings of the lower house, would be void. Like our peers also, they take cognizance of charges of treason and of high political misdemeanours; but they do not form a court of judicial appeal. All bills, with the exception of money-bills, may originate in either house; but the degree of public interest excited by the debates of the peers is not so great as by those of the lower house. The restrictions as to attending the debates, and printing the speeches of the peers, though not absolute, are greater than in England.

10. The king's brothers and nephews, with the princes of the blood (Orleans, Bourbon, Condé), are peers in right of their birth.

The number of peers in France is at present (1820) nearly 280: a number comprising two very distinct classes; the old nobility of France, stripped of the greater part of their paternal estates, but dignified by such names as Montmorency, Tremouille, Luxembourg; and the senators or generals of the revolution, who can boast of no ancestry; and who, in point of property, are, in general, very limited, but who lay claim to public regard for their personal exertions; such are Lanjuinais, Pastoret, Barthélemy, Macdonald, &c. Those who were members of the senate on the abdication of Bonaparte were made peers, and had their life-pension (1500*l.* a-year) confirmed to them by Louis XVIII. but the constitution requires that all future peers shall possess a certain entailed property, the amount of which, evidently adapted to the levelling effects of the revolution, is only 1250*l.* of clear income for a duke, 800*l.* for a marquis or earl, and 400*l.* for a viscount or baron.

The French house of commons also is in many respects similar to the British; each being the arena in which political parties try their strength, and in which the support or the overthrow of a ministry is decided. The nature of the subjects discussed, the privileges of the house, the admission of the public to the debates, are all similar to our usages; but there are some important differences as to the legal qualifications of the members, and the constitution of the body. The number of deputies or members is regulated by the amount of population. This, however,

however, has nothing in common with universal suffrage, for the basis of the qualification of a voter is property; it being an indispensable requisite that every voter shall pay 12l. a-year in direct taxes. This sum seems a very proper medium. From the nature of French taxation, it comprises a vast number of petty proprietors worth from 60l. to 150l. a-year. In like manner, the payment of 40l. the qualification for a member, implies only the possession of 200l. or 300l. a-year.

The right of voting for members of parliament in France was long exercised by delegation, the voters choosing a committee (*college électoral*) composed of persons paying 40l. in taxes, with whom rested the choice and nomination of the member; but this cold and indirect course was abrogated by the law of 5th February, 1817; since which the voters have made a direct nomination of their members, as in England. In this manner took place the two elections (each of a fifth of the house) in 1817 and 1818. The predilection shown in them to the *libéraux*, or moderate revolutionists, excited the fears of the royalists; but the king resisted all attempts to modify the established law, until a third trial in 1819, which, by giving another powerful addition to the *libéraux*, induced both him and his counsellors to project a change. In 1820, therefore, it was again proposed to extend the number of members to 430, and to confine the election of the additional number (172) to electoral committees on the old plan. Another part of the change was to dispense with annual elections, and to declare the whole house of commons entitled to sit for five years, as it is in England for seven.

The new law proposed no change in the qualification of voters. The number of the latter is of course very different in different departments; the medium is from 1500 to 2500; but in the department of Paris they exceed 10,000. The king is bound to convoke the chamber annually; he has, as in England, unlimited power to prorogue or dissolve; but, in that case, a new chamber must be called in the course of three months.

Hitherto, as we have before noticed, the members have always delivered written speeches; but they are coming to a sense of the inconvenience of that practice; and the count de Polignac has given notice of a proposition for the abolition of the use of written speeches, (Mar. 1821.) except on matters of finance, where numerical calculations must necessarily occur. But a similar proposition was rejected in the chamber of peers, Nov. 5, 1816, by a majority of 87 to 50.

Connected with this subject, a curious ordinance appeared in July, 1816, which tends to show the very different notions of liberty that exist in that country and in England. Many of the deputies having, by their patriotic and loyal conduct, obtained the applause and admiration of their constituents, the latter thought fit to testify their esteem by various honorary presents, such as a piece of plate, a sword, or the like; while the ministerial members had not been very fortunate in obtaining these marks of public esteem. A decree was promulgated, prohibiting any such presents being received in future, without the king's consent previously obtained!

And in November last (1820), a *royal proclamation* appeared, addressed to the electors throughout France, recommending to them such a choice of deputies at the present election "as shall best preserve the monarchy from the assaults of faction, and secure to France the continuance of freedom, peace, and prosperity." In short, a direct instruction, from the king himself, to influence the election of members devoted to the court and ministry. In England, we have not yet seen such open and direct interference in elections; but in France, though their representative constitution is so recent, the practice we have alluded to is not so new as to have been then resorted to for the first time: for on the 23d of November, 1816, at a dinner at the British ambassador's, where M. Pasquier, president of the chamber of deputies, was present, Talleyrand declared, that the influence employed in elections was an affront offered to the nation, and that the minister of the

interior should be the only medium through whom the king should communicate his sentiments. M. Pasquier grew warm in his reply; and the end of the affair was, that the next morning Talleyrand received a note forbidding him, in the name of his majesty, from appearing at court. This certainly smacks a little of the old French school, where every thing was *de par le roi*.

About this time, the king acknowledged, or adopted, the order of the legion of honour; ordering, however, that it should be called *royal*, and that its anniversary should be kept on the 15th of July, the birth-day of Henry the Fourth.

On the 22d of November, 1817, the minister of the interior presented to the chamber of deputies the projet of a law for carrying into effect a Concordat which had been entered into between the Pope and the Gallican church. By this Concordat, seven new archiepiscopal and thirty-five episcopal sees are established in France. In the French newspapers a list is given of the archbishops and bishops instituted by his holiness on the nomination of the king. Of these the most conspicuous is Talleyrand Perigord, grand almoner; who, having obtained a cardinal's hat, is promoted to the rank of archbishop of Paris. M. de la Luzerne, formerly bishop of Langres, and M. de Beauffet, formerly bishop of Alais, have also been created cardinals.

The duke of Berry, in whom the hopes of Louis for the long continuance of his dynasty seemed to be centered, was married to the princess Caroline, grand-daughter of the king of Naples, on the 16th of May, 1816. On the 13th of July, 1817, she was delivered of a daughter, which died the next day; and in September 1818 she miscarried of a male infant, after only four months' pregnancy; and thus for the second time disappointed the hope of seeing a Bourbon heir to the throne. The duke of Bourbon, at that time the last male of his illustrious branch, and the father of the late duke d'Enghien, was born in 1756. Ever since the murder of the duke d'Enghien, the existence of the duke de Bourbon has been a scene of unvaried melancholy; and the recent death of his venerable parent, the prince de Condé, in necessitating his return to France, did but vary the objects, without diminishing the weight, of his sorrow; and he has hitherto declined assuming the title of his deceased father, the Prince of Condé. The reason assigned for his refusal is so honourable, that it ought to be generally known: being, by the murder of the duke d'Enghien, the last of his illustrious race, he modestly holds himself unworthy of being called The Last of the Condés, and lets the name rest with his noble father lately deceased, who, as he says, had so long commanded the French nobility in their glorious exertions to defend the cause of the monarchy.

On the 21st of September, 1819, the duchess was safely delivered of a princess. This was a third disappointment, as a female cannot inherit the crown of France. But the greatest shock was to follow. On the 14th of February, 1820, at eleven o'clock at night, his royal highness the duke de Berry was assassinated on leaving the opera-house, by one Louvel, a journeyman saddler, formerly a soldier in the old imperial guard, who appears to have been impelled to this dreadful act by political fanaticism. He was immediately arrested; not having, indeed, made any effort to escape. He declared that he had meditated the crime for four years. The duke was immediately carried into one of the saloons of the opera-house, where all the assistance the medical art could supply was administered to him, but without effect, the weapon having penetrated too deep not to inflict a mortal wound, and he expired at six o'clock in the morning; all the princes of the royal family, and even the king himself, being present with the duke in his last moments.

Political fanaticism armed the hand of this wretched assassin, as formerly religious fanaticism armed that of Ravallac. When examined by interrogatories in the usual manner, he at once confessed the assassination, of which indeed there was overwhelming evidence. He did not evince the least appearance of regret.

When asked what induced him to commit this crime, he answered, "Because I think the Bourbons are tyrants, and the most cruel enemies of France."

"In that supposition, why did you attack the duke de Berry in preference to the rest?"—"Because he is the youngest prince of the royal family, and seemed to be destined to perpetuate that race hostile to France."

When he was told that his name would be for ever execrated, he answered, "You cannot be sure of that; wait till fifty years have passed. Brutus's name is not execrated." His trial did not begin till the 5th of June; and he was executed on the 7th.

The duchess was again pregnant at the death of her lord; and on the 6th of May, while Louvel was still in prison expecting his fate, an attempt was made upon her life, and, through her, upon the existence of the reigning house of Bourbon. It is stated, that soon after twelve o'clock a man made his appearance very silently at the wicket of the Rue de l'Echelle, near the windows of that part of the Tuileries where the duchess resides, and placed there a petard containing two pounds of gunpowder, the match of which he ignited by means of a lighted fegar. He was then immediately seized by the police-agents, placed in concealment near the spot by the prefect of police; who, it appears, had previous information of what was to take place. The name of the man thus taken into custody is Graviers, and he was formerly an officer in the 5th regiment of lancers. He made some disclosures, in consequence of which three other individuals were arrested early next morning. One of these was discharged; and the other three, Graviers, Bouton, and Legendre, were found guilty of "exploding a petard under the windows of the duchess de Berri, during her late pregnancy, in order to cause her to miscarry." Graviers and Bouton were condemned to death; but the king signified his intention, to remit the capital punishment.

Before the trial, however, namely, on the 29th of September, 1820, the duchess de Berri was safely delivered of a son. Her royal highness was almost alone when she gave birth to a prince, presumptive heir to the throne, in ample gratification of the anxious wishes of the royal family. The event was announced by the firing of artillery; and in the morning the king received the congratulations of the princes and princesses of his family, the ministers, marshals, &c. The young prince was christened, with great rejoicings and feasting, on Tuesday the 1st of May, 1821.

The baptismal ceremony took place in the cathedral of Notre Dame at eleven in the morning. The king went in great pomp from the Tuileries, having in the carriage with him all the members of his immediate house, except the child who was the principal actor, and who, with the ladies in attendance on him, occupied the carriage next to that of his majesty. The streets were lined with troops; and, crowded as was the church with spectators, the members of the legislative body and of the municipal corps of Paris attended. The young prince was named Henry-Charles-Ferdinand; and he had previously been created duke of Bourdeaux. After the ceremony, the clergy harangued the king, and were answered by him. The royal cortege was met and followed by loud applause; and the day closed with magnificent fire-works, while the palace-gardens and public offices were brilliantly illuminated.

The rejoicings continued for three days. On the second day there was a grand ball at the Hotel de Ville, at which all the royal family, with the exception of the king, were present. On the third day balls were given at the public expense to the different trading bodies of the metropolis. Illuminations, fireworks, dancing, music, and distributions of wine and victuals, took place on all three days. More than 30,000 papers of sweetmeats, such as are given to school-girls at their breaking-up, were thrown among the mob; and wine was poured out in abundance. One of our newspapers (the Traveller) says, "This series of fêtes will, perhaps, more effectually endear

the Bourbons to the people than whole years of wise and temperate government."

In the mean time, it cannot be disguised that the public mind in France is very much agitated, that the people are discontented with their present rulers, and that several members of the royal family are personally disliked. We have omitted the detail of recent insurrections in various parts of France, and even in La Vendée, which stood so high in the annals of loyalty, or rather of royalty; and we have also passed over sundry attempts to terrify or destroy the royal family, because we had become tired of such details, and because we wished to close our article with peace and friendship. In fact, while the public mind in France is discontented, the quiet and peace of the rest of Europe cannot be secure. It perhaps is impossible exactly and fully to point out what line of conduct Louis ought to pursue, in order to fix his throne on a firm and permanent foundation. The military spirit and habits which the people of France have acquired, will not soon wear away: their late disasters, their country twice conquered, a sovereign twice placed over them by these conquests, will not soon be forgotten; but, undoubtedly, their oblivion will be accelerated if Louis gains over the mass of the population, by securing to them all the benefits which the revolution produced, and by protecting them from the evils which it engendered. If, on the contrary, he has not learnt wisdom from experience; if it be true that he, as well as the rest of his family, have "forgotten nothing which they ought to have forgotten, and have learnt nothing which they ought to have learnt," during their misfortunes; then, not all the force of Europe can, or ought, to keep him on the throne of France. But let us hope better things: let us hope that these princes who lived so long in Britain did not shut their eyes to the facts which there surrounded them; from which they might have drawn this lesson: that the most lawful as well as the most happy, sovereign, is he who is powerful and happy in the affections and happiness of his subjects.

The following are the works from which this long article has been compiled.—Heylin's *Microcosmus*, 1621. Howel's *Letters*, 1620-40. Paris as it was, and as it is, 1802. Carr's *Stranger in France*, 1802. Holcroft's *Travels from Hamburgh to Paris*, 1802. Mercier's *Paris delineated*, and *New Picture of Paris*. Eustace's *Letter from Paris*. L'Hermite de la *Chaussée d'Antin*. Guillaume le Franc *Parleur*. *Description des Catacombes*, par M. de Thury. *Guide du Voyageur Sentimental au Cimetiere du Pere la Chaise*. *Quarterly Review*, N° xlii. *Promenade aux Cimetieres de Paris*, et aux *Catacombes*. Supplement to the *Encyclopedie Britannica*. Paul's *Letters to his Kinsfolk*, 1810. Boyce's *Second Usurpation of Bonaparte*, 1817. Reichard's *Itinerary of France and Belgium*. Scott's *Visit to Paris*, 1814; and *Paris revisited*, 1815. *Battle of Waterloo*, by a near observer, 1816. Gifford's *Hist. of the Wars*, &c. 1818. Saff's *Journey to Rome and Naples*, by way of Paris, 1817. Legrand's *Description of Paris*, 1808. *Picturesque Views of Public Edifices in Paris*, 1814. Tronchet's *Guide to Paris*, 6th edit. 1817. Planta's *Picture of Paris*, 12th edit. 1820. *New Monthly Mag.* vol. iv. v. *Edinburgh Review* for Aug. 1820. *Examiner newspaper*, Jan. and May, 1821. *Gent. Mag.* 1815-20. Chabulon's *Mem. of the private Life of Napoleon in 1815*; Lond. 1820. O'Meara's *Historical Memoirs of Napoleon*, Book IX. 1820. Hobhouse's *Letters from Paris during the last Reign of Napoleon*, 1816. *Lady's Mag.* Sept. 1815. Warden's *Letters from St. Helena*, 1816. *Official Accounts of the Battle of Waterloo*, by the Duke of Wellington, Marshal Blucher, the Prince of Orange, Don Michael de Alava, General Count Pozzo di Borgo, General Baron Vincent, and by the French, together with the *Explanations of Generals Ney and Grouchy*. *Private Letters from British and German Officers*. *Letters from Paris*, by Helen Maria Williams, 1815. Sundry volumes of the *Monthly Review*.

PAR'IS, a town of Prussia, in the province of Bartenland: eight miles north-north-east of Rastenburg.

PAR'IS, in Wales. See PARYS.

PAR'IS, a thriving post-town of America, in the state of New York, and county of Oneida, incorporated in 1792, and containing 4721 inhabitants. Iron-ore is found in its vicinity; and the land is excellent. It has an academy and a parish-church; and its progressive improvements are rapid.—Also, the county-town of Bourbon-county, in Kentucky: eighteen miles north-east of Lexington. It has a court-house and gaol, a presbyterian church, and several mills in its vicinity. Its houses are principally constructed of brick and stone. The town is pleasant and thriving, and contains 377 inhabitants.—A town of London-county, Virginia; fifty-nine miles from Washington.—A town in Oxford-county, state of Maine; containing 844 inhabitants.—An island on the coast of South Carolina.

PAR'IS (Francis), a French priest and writer of esteemed pious and practical treatises, was born in an unknown year of the seventeenth century, at Chatillon in the vicinity of Paris. He was of obscure birth; and, when young, served as a domestic in the family of MM. Vazet, who had a house at Chatillon. Pleased with his behaviour, and the inclination which he showed for acquiring knowledge, those gentlemen, one of whom was grand-vicar and archdeacon of Sens, took upon themselves the care of his education; and, when he was properly qualified, obtained for him admission into holy orders. Some time afterwards, he was presented to the living of St. Lambert, near the monastery of Port-Royal in the Fields; which he served for some years with great zeal and fidelity, much to the satisfaction as well as edification of his parishioners. At length he resigned that benefice, and removed into the province of Maine, to the lordship of M. le Vayer, the chapel of whose family-mansion served as a church to the parish in which it was situated: in this chapel M. Paris officiated for a considerable time, to crowded audiences from the neighbouring country; and diligently discharged, at the same time, the other functions of a parish-priest. His last removal was to Paris, where he died sub-vicar of the parochial church of St. Stephen of the Mount, in 1718, at a very advanced age.

As he was a person of great industry, and fond of retirement whenever his ministerial duties permitted it, he found time to compose a number of works, which are said to be equally solid and edifying. The principal of them are, 1. Forms of Prayer, founded on a Paraphrase of the Psalms, first published in 1690, 12mo. and afterwards frequently reprinted. 2. Prayers founded on a Paraphrase of various Passages of the sacred Scriptures, 12mo. 3. Martyrology; or, general View of the Lives of the Saints, of their Virtues and principal Actions, 1691, 8vo. 4. On the Benefit of the Sacraments of Penance and the Eucharist, according to the Sentiments of the Fathers, the Popes, and the Councils, 1673. 5. Familiar Instructions founded on the Gospels for all the Sundays and Festivals throughout the Year, 1699, 12mo. and often reprinted. 6. The Gospel explained, according to the Fathers, ecclesiastical Authors, and the Harmony of the four Evangelists, in 4 vols. 8vo. the two first published in 1693, and the two last in 1698. 7. Prayers and divine Aspirations, extracted from the Confessions of St. Augustine, 1698. 8. Christian Regulations for the Conduct of Life, taken from the sacred Scriptures and the holy Fathers, 1673, 12mo. 9. A French version, rather paraphrastic, of Thomas à Kempis's four books On the Imitation of Jesus Christ, 1705, 12mo. to which is prefixed a concise and well-written view of the principal foundations of Christian morality; and other pieces, for an account of which, as well as of the author's inedited manuscripts, we refer to *Moreri*.

PAR'IS (Francis), generally known by the name of the *Abbé Paris*, and rendered famous for a time by the

impostures and delusions which were practised at his tomb, was the eldest son of a counsellor to the parliament, and born at Paris in the year 1690. Had he chosen to follow the profession of the law, he would have succeeded to his father's appointment; but he preferred embracing the ecclesiastical life, and was admitted to deacon's orders. For some time he instructed the catechumens in the parish of St. Como, and had the conduct of the conferences attended by the young candidates for the clerical order. In the disputes occasioned by the bull *Unigenitus*, he attached himself to the Jansenist party; on which account the cardinal de Noailles was desirous of presenting him to the living of St. Como, but was prevented from that design by unforeseen obstacles. Upon the death of his father, the abbé Paris renounced all claim to his patrimonial inheritance in favour of a younger brother, and devoted himself to a life of poverty. Having made trial of different solitudes, he at length fixed upon a house in the suburb of St. Marcel, where he spent his time in prayer, and the most rigorous acts of penance, supporting himself by making stockings for the poor, with whom he divided the earnings of his labour. By this course of life he acquired a character for extraordinary sanctity with the superstitious populace, and pious old women, whose ignorance and credulity led them to ascribe such mortifications to the perfection of virtue. He died, most probably owing to the severity of the discipline which he observed, in 1727, when he was only thirty-seven years of age. He was the author of A Commentary on the Gospel of St. Matthew; An Explication of the nine first Chapters of the Epistle of St. Paul to the Romans; An Explication of the Epistle to the Galatians; and An Analysis of the Epistle to the Hebrews; which are very indifferent performances, and have had few readers.

He was buried in the church-yard of St. Medard at Paris, where his brother erected a monument to his memory, which the great reputation of his sanctity drew many people to visit, who paid their devotions to him as to a saint. This concourse gradually increasing, he was soon considered to be a subject proper to revive the credit of the Jansenist party, which was now depressed by the Jesuits, who were supported by the authority of the court. Within five years, therefore, after his death, the confident report of miracles wrought at his tomb, was propagated not only in the city of Paris, but through the whole kingdom. In consequence of this, infinite crowds were perpetually pressing to the place, who were duped by the artifices of crafty impostors, and went away proclaiming the benefits received from the saint, in the cure or relief of the most desperate diseases. In vain did men of sober sense endeavour to disabuse the multitude; nor could all the power of the government give a check to the rapidity of this superstition, till, by inclosing the tomb within a wall, all access to it was effectually obstructed. This step gave occasion to the following epigram, which was fixed upon the inclosure, in the style of the royal edicts:

*De par le Roy. Défense à Dieu
De faire miracles en ce lieu.*

But, though this expedient put an end to the external worship of the saint, it did not for some time shake the credit of his miracles, distinct accounts of which were drawn up and dispersed among the people. One collection of them was made by M. de Montgeron, as we have seen under his article, (vol. xv.) and presented to the king: and several other collections of them were published, containing in the whole above a hundred miracles. The reality of these wonders was attested by clergy of the first dignity, who presented a verbal process of each to the archbishops, with a petition, signed by above twenty of the beneficed clergy of Paris, desiring that they might be authentically registered, and solemnly published to the people as true miracles. There can be no doubt but many of the persons concerned were imposed upon

by their own superstitious credulity; but, on behalf of others, whose sagacity, learning, and good sense, were abundantly discovered in other matters, no such plea can be admitted. With Dr. Mosheim we say, that "we can easily account for the delusions of weak enthusiasts, or the tricks of egregious impostors; but, when we see men of piety and judgment appearing in defence of such miracles as those now under consideration, we must conclude, that they look upon fraud as lawful in the support of a good cause, and make no scruple of deceiving the people, when they propose, by this delusion, to confirm and propagate what they take to be the truth."

PAR'IS (Matthew). See MATTHEW, vol. xiv. p. 545. PARISCAT'TY, a town of Hindoostan, in Oude: twenty-five miles east of Goorackpouur.

PARISH, *f.* [*parochia*, low Lat. *paroisse*, Fr. from the Greek *παροικια*, habitation; of *παρα*, with, and *οικω*, to dwell.] The particular charge of a secular priest.—Our realm was first divided into *parishes* by Honorius, archbishop of Canterbury, in the year of our Lord 636. *Covell.*—By the catholic church is meant no more than the common church, into which all such persons as belonged to that *parish*, in which it was built, were wont to congregate. *Pearson.*

The tythes his *parish* freely paid he took;
But never su'd, or curs'd with bell or book. *Dryden.*

In the ancient church there was one large edifice in each city for the people to meet in; and this they called *parochia*, parish. But the signification of the word was afterwards enlarged; and by a parish was meant a diocese, or the extent of the jurisdiction of a bishop, consisting of several churches, unless we will suppose, as some do, that those bishops were only pastors of single churches. Dupin observes, that country parishes had not their origin before the 4th century; but those of cities are more ancient. The city of Alexandria is said to have been the first that was divided into parishes.

Of the first division of parishes, indeed, there is no certain information; for, in the early ages of Christianity in this island, parishes were unknown, or at least signified the same that a diocese now does. There was then no appropriation of ecclesiastical dues to any particular church, but every man was at liberty to contribute his tithes to any priest or church he pleased; but he was obliged to do it to some; or, if he made no special appropriation thereof, they were paid to the bishop, whose duty it was to distribute them among the clergy, and for other pious purposes, according to his own discretion. Camden says, England was divided into parishes by archbishop Honorius about the year 630. Sir Henry Hobart maintains that parishes were first erected by the council of Lateran, held A.D. 1179. But Selden proves, that the clergy lived in common, without any division of parishes, long after the time mentioned by Camden; and it appears from the Saxon laws, that parishes were in being long before the council of Lateran. The distinction of parishes occurs in the laws of king Edgar, about the year 970. It seems pretty clear and certain, says Blackstone, (1 Com. 112.) that the boundaries of parishes were first ascertained by those of a manor or manors; because it very seldom happens that a manor extends itself over more than one parish, though one parish often includes many manors. The lords, he adds, as Christianity spread, began to build churches upon their own demesnes or wastes, in order to accommodate their tenants in one or two adjoining lordships; and, that they might have divine service regularly performed therein, obliged all their tenants to appropriate their tithes to the maintenance of the one officiating minister, instead of leaving them at liberty to distribute them among the clergy of the diocese in general; and this tract of land, the tithes of which were so appropriated, formed a distinct parish. And this accounts for the frequent intermixture of parishes one with another: for, if a lord had a parcel of land detached from the main of

his estate, but not sufficient to form a parish of itself, it was natural for him to endow his newly-erected church with the tithes of such lands.

Camden reckons 9284 parishes in England; and Chamberlayne makes 9913. They are now generally reckoned about 10,000.

Extra-parochial wastes and marsh-lands, when improved and drained, are, by 17 Geo. II. cap. 37. to be assessed to all parochial rates in the parish next adjoining.

PARISH, *adj.* Belonging to the parish; having the care of the parish.—The *parish* allowance to poor people, is very seldom a comfortable maintenance. *Law.*

A *parish* priest was of the pilgrim train,
An awful, reverend, and religious, man. *Dryden.*

Maintained by the parish.—The ghost and the *parish* girl are entire new characters. *Gay.*

PARISH-CLERK, *f.* See vol. iv. p. 665. The following description of a parish-clerk, which appeared in the Examiner of Sunday, August the 22d, 1819, we think sufficiently witty without being offensive. "The office of parish-clerk is one of extreme venerableness and antiquity. Next in dignity to the clergy, faith Leland; semi-ecclesiastic, according to Camden. Witty Fuller likeneth him, in his Church History, to the bat, half-bird half-beast, yet so as there is more in him of the former than of the latter; his clergy wings do outweigh the laic or mouse part of him. He is the mouth-piece of the congregation, faith Hooker. Mouth of mouths, according to bishop Bull; the connecting link between the minister and people. Cousin, twice removed, to the vicar, faith another; note, that the curate is betwixt. Bell-weather to the flock, faith bishop Andrews, speaking it in honour. Spelman doubteth whether he be not entitled to a portion of the lesser tythes, say a tenth. From all which expressions, though some of them seem run up into a height of metaphor and allegory greater peradventure than the matter soberly considered will bear, we may yet gather in what kind of estimation antiquity hath held the function."

The COMPANY of PARISH-CLERKS is the most ancient in the city of London; yet they stand at the bottom of the list, we cannot tell why; (see vol. xiii. p. 602, 615.) and have neither livery, nor the privilege of making their members free of the city.

PARISH-OFFICERS, *f.* Churchwardens, overseers, and constables. Divers persons are exempted from serving parish-offices on account of their professions; viz. physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries; dissenting teachers; persons having prosecuted certain felons to conviction, &c.

PARISH PRIEST, *f.* The parson or minister who holds a parish as a benefice. If the predial tithes are appropriated, the parson is called *rector*. If they are impropriated, he is called *vicar*.

As to the situation and emoluments of the parish-priests in the city of LONDON, see that article, p. 600, 1.

PARISH-REG'ISTERS, *f.* See BILLS of MORTALITY, vol. xvi. p. 18 & seq.

PARISH'IONER, *f.* One that belongs to the parish.—I praise the Lord for you, and so may my *parishioners*; for their sons are well tutor'd by you. *Shakespeare.*

Hail bishop Valentine, whose day this is.

All the air is thy diocese;

And all the chirping choristers

And other birds are thy *parishioners*.

Donne.

PARISHIONERS are a body politic to many purposes; as, to vote at a vestry if they pay scot and lot; and they have a sole right to raise taxes for their own relief, without the interposition of any superior court; may make bye-laws to mend the highways, and to make banks to keep out the sea, and for repairing the church, and making a bridge, &c. or any such thing for the public good; and, by stat. 3 & 4 W. III. c. 11, to tax and levy poor-rates,

and to make and maintain fire-engines; and, by 9 Geo. I. c. 28, for purchasing workhouses for the poor.

PARISIAN, *adj.* Belonging to Paris.

PARISIAN, *f.* A native of Paris, an inhabitant of Paris.

PARISIAN ISLAND, an island of North America, in Lake Superior, near the south-east coast. Lat. 46. 30. N. lon. 85. W.

PARISII (Ptolemy), a people of Britain, having the Brigantes to the north and west, the German Sea to the west, and the Coritani to the south, from whom they were separated by the Humber; and occupying that district which is called Holderness, or, as Mr. Camden imagines, the whole east riding of Yorkshire. The Parisii are supposed to have derived their name from the two British words *Paur Iſa*, which signify Low Pasture, and which are descriptive of the situation and use of their country. However this may be, it is evident that our Parisii never attained to any great degree of power or consequence, but were always subject to the authority, and followed the fate, of their more powerful neighbours, the Brigantes. Their only town was *Pituaria*, probably Patrington in Holderness.

PARISIS, *f.* A French money of account, formerly a real coin struck at Paris, at the same time with the Tournois struck at Tours. The Parisis exceeded the Tournois by one-fourth; so that the livre or pound Parisis was twenty-five sols, and the livre Tournois twenty. The sols and deniers Parisis, &c. were in proportion.

PARISO'T, a town of France, in the department of the Aveyron: ten miles south-west of Villefranche, and twenty-one west of Sauveterre.

PARISYLLABLE, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρὰ*, with, and *συλλαβή*, a syllable.] A word that has an equal number of syllables in all its cases. *Cole.*

PARISYLLABIC, or PARISYLLABICAL, *adj.* Having the same number of syllables in all its cases.

PARITA, a town of South America, in the province of Panama: five miles north of Santos.

PARITEE HO'TUN, a town of Chinese Tartary: 445 miles east-north-east of Peking. Lat. 42. 28. N. lon. 125. 16. E.

PARITI, *f.* in botany. See *HIBISCUS*.

PARITOR, *f.* [for *apparator*.] A beadle; a summoner of the courts of civil law.—You shall be summoned by a host of *paritors*; you shall be sentenced in the spiritual court. *Dryden.*

PARITY, *f.* [*paritas*, Lat.] Equality; resemblance.—Survey the total set of animals; and we may, in their legs or organs of progression, observe an equality of length and *parity* of numeration; not any to have an odd leg, or the movers of one side not exactly answered by the other. *Brown.*—Their agreement in essential characters makes rather an identity than a *parity*. *Glanville.*—By an exact *parity* of reason, we may argue, if a man has no sense of those kindnesses that pass upon him from one like himself, whom he sees and knows, how much less shall his heart be affected with the grateful sense of His favours whom he converses with only by imperfect speculations, by the discourses of reason, or the discoveries of faith? *South.*

PARIUM, in ancient geography, a town situated in the Propontide, between Lampacus and Priapus. Its territory was fertile, and produced excellent wines; and it had a good port. This town was founded by the Milesians, the Erithræans, and the inhabitants of the isle of Paros, from which it took its name. Augustus established a colony in this place; and, like many others, it was governed by a senate or council composed of decurions. The worship of Apollo and Diana was transported from Adratia to Parium, where a large and splendid altar was erected, the work of the celebrated Hermocreon. *Strabo.* Pliny also mentions a statue of Cupid, belonging to this city, the production of Praxiteles, and not inferior in beauty to the Venus of Cnidus.

Parium was ravaged in the year 267 by the Heruli, a

German nation; but these barbarians were defeated and driven into their own country by the emperor Gallienus, in consequence of which a triumphal arch was erected; which arch consisted of three arcades, upon which the emperor appeared in a car drawn by two elephants, between two Victories, which presented to him a crown of laurel. When the government of proconsular Asia was divided into several provinces, Parium was comprised in the new province of the Hellespont, of which Cyzicus was the metropolis. Now CAMANAR.

PARIVO'A, *f.* in botany. See *DIMORPHA grandiflora*.

PARIYATEKA, *f.* The Sanscrit name of a species of *Nyctanthus*; and in the mythological legends of the Hindoos it is a golden tree, yielding in its fruit whatever the heart can desire. It is fabled to have arisen from the ocean when churned by the gods and demons, as described under the article *KURMAVATARA*, and to have fallen to the lot of the demigod Indra, regent of the firmament, who hence, and from similar possessions, is called the Lord of Wealth. The name is commonly pronounced *parijat*, and it is often alluded to in the holy tales and fables of the Hindoos. There is a treatise on Hindoo music in the Persian language, probably a translation from the Sanscrit, named after this all-yielding tree *Pariyateka*.

PARK, *f.* [*parcus*, Lat. from *parco*, *parcere*, "to spare;" because parks were destined for the safe keeping of deer and other animals, that they might not be exposed to common hunting.] A piece of ground enclosed and stored with wild beasts of chase.—Manwood, in his Forest-law, defines it thus: A *park* is a place of privilege for wild beasts of venery, and also for other wild beasts that are beasts of the forest and of the chase: and those wild beasts are to have a firm peace and protection there, so that no man may hurt or chase them within the park, without license of the owner. *Cowel*.—We have *parks* and inclosures of all sorts of beasts and birds, which we use not only for view or rareness, but likewise for dissections and trials. *Bacon.*

A park differs from a *forest*, in that, as Compton observes, a subject may hold a park by prescription, or the king's grant; which he cannot do with respect to a forest. A park differs from a *chase* also; because a park must be inclosed; if it lie open, it is a good cause of seizing it into the king's hands, as a free chase may be if it be inclosed. Nor can the owner have any action against such as hunt in his park if it lie open.

Du-Cange refers the invention of parks to king Henry I. of England; and the first park in England is said to have been that of Woodstock in Oxfordshire, made by him, which was walled round with stone, and seven miles in circumference: the royal example was first followed by Henry earl of Warwick, to preserve his deer and other animals for hunting; after which the practice of park-making became general among persons of opulence. But Spelman shows it to be much more ancient; and it was in use among the Anglo-Saxons. *Zosimus* assures us also, that the ancient kings of Persia had parks.

The clergy of rank, at all times, had the privilege of hunting in their own parks and inclosures; and accordingly, at the time of the reformation, the see of Norwich only was in the possession of not less than thirteen parks, well stocked with deer and other animals for the chase.

No man can now erect a park without a license under the broad seal; for the common law does not encourage matters of pleasure, which bring no profit to the commonwealth. *Wood's Inst.* 207. But there may be a park in reputation, erected without lawful warrant; and the owner of such park may bring his action against persons killing his deer. *Ibid.* See the article *GAME*, vol. viii. p. 233.

To a park three things are required. 1. A grant thereof. 2. Inclosures by pale, wall, or hedge. 3. Beasts of a park, such as buck, doe, &c. and, where all the deer

are

are destroyed, it shall no more be accounted a park, for a park consists of vert, venison, and inclosure; and, if it is determined in any of them, it is a total disparking; and the king may by letters patent dissolve his park. *Cro. Car.* 59, 60.

Parks as well as chases are subject to the common law, and are not to be governed by the forest-laws. 4 *Injl.* 314.

Offenders pulling down park-walls or pales, shall be liable to the same penalty as for killing deer, &c.

The best inclosure for a park is a brick or stone wall; but, as the expense of this is very great, it may be done by paling; the pales must, in this case, be of sound heart of oak; and so close planted, that no animal of prey can make its way in between them; and, for a farther defence, a good quick-set hedge is very proper, and should be kept in good order. Some part of the mountain and high wood may conveniently be made a heronry, and some part of the middle may be a warren for hares and rabbits. Colts and horses may be bred at large in the park; and, in the summer season, it will be proper to have cows in the pasture-ground on the plains.

There should be at least five or six inclosures in the park, that the deer may be shut out or let in as occasion requires. In the coldest seasons, they should always be kept in the high woods, where they have good shelter, and are to be fed constantly by the keepers. In the summer such a number as are intended to be used may also be kept on the best ground, that they may thrive quicker than those intended only for store. Some artificial holes and caverns should also be made for the deer to retire into in the hot weather, as well as in the cold.

It is supposed by Mr. Loudon, in his "Treatise on Country Residences," that parks should be of two kinds; those belonging to small houses, where regard should principally be had to the value of the pasture, and where the pasturing-animals are horses, cattle, sheep, &c. and those where grandeur of character is the main object.

In the former sort, the surface of the ground should be unbroken, but clothed and varied, or characterized chiefly by trees, unless a few shrubs of the lower growths be admitted near the residences, or the walks of the pleasure or more ornamental parts. The apparent extent of this kind of park depends more upon the variety of the grounds, and the manner in which the trees and shrubs are planted, than upon the number of acres. A level or uniform surface, spotted by circular, oval, or even angular, clumps, and surrounded by a compact serpentine belt, as at Duddington and some other places, can never, it is supposed, appear extensive; but a very few acres of varied ground, sprinkled over with light groups, thorns, and hollies, appear boundless. In such a park, every step presents a new composition, arising from the varied herds of cattle intermingling with the trees, &c. and always changing their position: and, as there is no permanent mark by which one scene can be distinguished from another, so as to know it again, a person might wander up and down the extent of a few acres for several days, without being able to say whether he was not traversing a park of several square miles. And this is the case in natural forests, as depending on the same principles.

In the latter kind of park, nothing, it is believed, can contribute so highly to the necessary grandeur of effect, as the wild forest-style of breaking the ground, and planting trees, shrubs, low growths of plants, furze, bramble, ferns, &c. and showing roots, decayed trunks, rocks, or stones, where they may appear with propriety, and, as it were, fortuitously. The grazing-animals in this case should be principally deer, a few wild cattle, and horses. It is suggested, that, as parks are the prominent features of all extensive residences, were this appearance of wildness and forest-scenery given to them, words could not convey an adequate idea of the beauty and grandeur that would be communicated to them, and at the same time to the country at large. The materials

by which this is chiefly to be effected are, as has been seen, the proper arrangement of low shrubby growths, wild plants, and forest-trees. Nothing can, however, give an idea of what these effects might be, except looking at the finest ranges of forest-scenery, few of which now exist in this country. In the New Forest, as well as that of Needwood, it is however supposed, that there are still select ranges or tracts, which the true admirers of nature will view with rapture or enthusiastic delight, and by the imitation of which, vast ornamental advantages might be made to the already beautiful parks of Donnington, Blenheim, and Croom, as well as all those esteemed the finest in the kingdom.

PARK, as signifying an inclosure, is used upon various occasions where another word might do as well, or perhaps better. Thus,

Park is the term for a movable pallisade, set up in the fields, to inclose sheep to feed and rest in during the night. This is to be shifted from time to time, to dung the ground one part after another.

Park is the name given to a very large net, disposed on the brink of the sea, with only one hole, which looks towards the shore, and which becomes dry after the flood is gone off; so that the fish once got in have no way left to escape.

Park of Artillery, a post in a camp, out of cannon-shot of the enemy, and fortified to inclose the train of artillery, and to secure the magazines and ammunition, as well as the battalions of artillery appointed for its service and defence.

The park of artillery should always be placed, if possible, within a short distance of water-carriage; and have the most ready communication with every part of the line of the army. Its form must depend upon its situation. Ten feet are usually allowed in front for one carriage and its interval, and near 50 feet from the hind wheels of the front row to the fore wheels of the second; this interval should allow sufficient room for putting the horses to the carriages, and for a free passage along the line. In parks not on immediate service, it is customary to arrange the guns with their muzzles to the front; but, where the guns are likely to be wanted at a short notice, appearances must not be studied, and the gun-carriages must be parked with the shafts to the front, ready to receive horses to them.

Park of Provisions, a place in a camp, on the rear of every regiment, which is taken up by the sutlers, who follow the army with all sorts of provisions, and sell them to the soldiers. Likewise that place where the bread-waggons are drawn up, and where the troops receive their ammunition-bread, being the store of the army.

TO PARK, *v. a.* To inclose as in a park:

How are we *park'd*, and bounded in a pale!

A little herd of England's tim'rous deer,

Maz'd with a yelping kennel of French curs. *Shakespeare.*

PARK (Mungo), a celebrated traveller, was the son of a farmer on the banks of the Yarrow, near the town of Selkirk, in Scotland; and born on the 10th of September, 1771. After having received the first rudiments of education in his father's family, he was removed to a grammar-school at Selkirk, where he remained for a considerable number of years, and where he was distinguished by his application and improvement. At this early period, though he was sedate, studious, and thoughtful, he manifested traces of that ardent and adventurous disposition which formed his distinguishing character in future life. Preferring the medical to the ecclesiastical profession, for which he was originally designed, he was bound apprentice, at the age of fifteen, to Mr. Anderson, a respectable surgeon at Selkirk; and, after residing with him for three years, he removed in 1789 to Edinburgh, where he attended the usual medical lectures during three successive sessions. He distinguished himself among his fellow-students by ardour and assiduity in the prosecution

tion of his studies, and by particular attention, during his summer-vacations, to botanical pursuits, in which he was assisted by his brother-in-law Mr. James Dickson. Upon his removal to London, this eminent botanist introduced him to sir Joseph Banks, by whose recommendation he was appointed assistant-surgeon to the Worcester East Indiaman. In 1792 he sailed for Bencoolen; and, having availed himself of the opportunities for scientific researches which this voyage afforded him, the result of his inquiries and observations was communicated, after his return, to the Linnæan Society, and published in the third volume of their Transactions. Some years prior to this period, a society had been formed with a view of promoting discoveries in the interior parts of Africa; and several persons had been employed in accomplishing the laudable purposes for which that society was established. Among these, we may reckon Messrs. Ledyard and Lucas, major Houghton, and Mr. Hornemann, who fell sacrifices either to the severity of the climate, the fatigue of the service, or the violence of the natives. The society, though disposed to afford liberal encouragement to any person who was qualified for this undertaking, and who had at the same time resolution sufficient to engage in it with the prospects which past experience presented to view, found themselves at a loss for a person in every respect fit for this hazardous mission. At this interesting period Mr. Park returned from India; and no person could have been found better qualified for such an adventurous office. Sir Joseph Banks, the distinguished patron of genius and science, had been his friend; and with him Mr. Park was in habits of frequent and intimate intercourse. Thus circumstanced, he offered his services, and they were accepted. Having received his final instructions from the Society, he set sail from Portsmouth on the 22d of May, 1795, and on the 21st of June landed at Jillifree, a small town near the mouth of the river Gambia, whence he proceeded to Pisania, where he was hospitably received by Dr. Laidley, to whom he had letters of recommendation. For an account of his progress, see the article AFRICA, vol. i. p. 186. Upon his return, he was received with cordial congratulation, both by his friends and the gentlemen of the African Association; and he was allowed to publish an account of his travels for his own benefit. In the mean while, Mr. Bryan Edwards, secretary of the Association, printed and distributed among the subscribers an abstract of the Travels from Mr. Park's papers. To this abstract was annexed an important Memoir by major Rennell, consisting of geographical illustrations of Park's journey; and this, by Mr. R's permission, formed a valuable appendage to the fourth edition of the Travels.

In the spring of 1798, government having it in contemplation to obtain a complete survey of New Holland, applied to Mr. Park for this purpose; but the proposed plan was never executed. The remainder of this year was spent by Mr. Park in visiting his friends in Scotland, and arranging the materials of his Travels. Towards the close of this year he returned to London, and devoted the principal part of his time to the correction of his MSS. which he committed to the press in the spring of the year 1799. The work, as soon as it was published, commanded an extensive and rapid sale, both on account of the interesting information which it contained, and the general elegance of its composition. An abstract of Mr. Park's discoveries, with regard to the easterly course and magnitude of the Niger, the large and populous towns and villages that occupy the interior parts of Africa, the discriminating character of the Negroes, contrasted against that of the Moors, and the civilization of the inhabitants of the interior, beyond the influence of the slave-trade, compared with that of those who are situated near the coast, and a variety of other particulars relating to the soil and productions of the country, and the manners and habits of its inhabitants, has been already given under the articles AFRICA, MANDINGO, NIGER, &c. so that we need not here enlarge. The curiosity of the public was

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amply gratified, and the name and work of Mr. Park became singularly popular, though neither the one nor the other altogether escaped censure. The slave-trade was at this time a subject of general reprobation, and attempts were repeatedly renewed for the abolition of it. It was therefore natural to imagine, that in a work of this kind, the author would have availed himself of the opportunities which his narrative afforded him, of expressing his decided disapprobation of this nefarious species of commerce; more especially as it was well known to many of Mr. Park's intimate and confidential friends, that in conversation he had frequently declared his abhorrence of slavery and the slave-trade. Nor was it sufficient to allege, as some of his advocates have done, that he considered the abolition of the slave-trade as a measure of state-policy, and that it would be improper for him to give an opinion on a subject which was at this time under the deliberation of the legislature. This neutrality on his part, to say the least of it, led persons, who did not know his real sentiments, to reckon him among those who were hostile to the abolition; and his authority was triumphantly appealed to by the advocates of the slave-trade. Whilst he seems to have studiously avoided giving an opinion on the pernicious influence of this trade, he states facts which have been cited and strongly urged in favour of its abolition. In order to account for this kind of inconsistency without impeaching his integrity, we should recollect how he was circumstanced whilst he was preparing and publishing his narrative. "He was then," says a candid biographer, "a young man, inexperienced in literary composition, and in a great measure dependant, as to the prospects of his future life, upon the success of his intended publication. His friend and adviser, Mr. Bryan Edwards, (a West-India planter, and a systematic advocate of the slave-trade,) was a man of letters and of the world, who held a distinguished place in society, and was besides a leading member of the African Association, to which Mr. Park owed every thing, and with which his fate and fortunes were still intimately connected. It is difficult to estimate the degree of authority which a person possessing these advantages, and of a strong and decisive character, must necessarily have had over the mind of a young man in the situation which has now been described. Suggestions coming from such a quarter must have been almost equivalent to commands; and, instead of severely animadverting on the extent of Park's compliances, we ought, perhaps, rather to be surprised, that more was not yielded to an influence which must have been nearly unlimited." Mr. Park is known to have regretted that some parts of his publication, relating to the slave-trade, had been misunderstood, and applied in a sense which it was not intended they should have been.

After the publication of his travels, Mr. Park returned to Scotland in the summer of 1799; and, on the 2d of August in that year, he married a daughter of Mr. Anderson of Selkirk, with whom he had served his apprenticeship. In the month of October, 1801, he settled at Peebles, with a full purpose of pursuing his medical profession; but, as he devoted much of his time and attention to the poor, the profits of his business were inconsiderable; nor could he forbear wishing for a change of situation that would be more advantageous. His views, however, were directed towards a second African mission. A prospect of this kind was presented to him by a letter from sir Joseph Banks, soon after the signature of the preliminaries of peace with France, in October 1801; but it was not till the autumn of the year 1803, that a specific proposal was made to him for this purpose. Previously disposed to accept it, he did not long hesitate in announcing his purpose; and accordingly he took leave of his friends, and left Scotland in December 1803, confidently expecting that he should soon embark for the coast of Africa. A variety of circumstances occurred which delayed and threatened the total failure of the expedition; however, in a course of time all difficulties were obviated; the ob-

jects and plan of the undertaking were settled to the satisfaction of Mr. Park, and he received a commission from government for conducting and executing it. To himself was granted a brevet-commission of a captain in Africa; and to his friend Mr. Alexander Anderson a similar commission of lieutenant; and Mr. Scott was appointed to attend him as a draftsman. He was empowered to enlist at Goree any number of the garrison that would be necessary for his purpose, not exceeding forty-five, with such bounties as would induce them cheerfully to accompany him. From Goree he was directed to proceed up the river Gambia; and thence, crossing over to the Senegal, to march by such routes as he should find most eligible to the banks of the Niger. The great object of his journey was to pursue the course of this river as far as it could be traced; to establish a communication and intercourse with the different nations on the banks; to obtain all the knowledge in his power respecting them; and to ascertain various points which he had stated in his memoir. Mr. Park was empowered to draw for any sum which he might want, not exceeding 5000*l*.

Every thing being now fixed, and the season already far advanced, Park was extremely anxious to hasten his departure, as the whole success of the expedition depended on its being undertaken a sufficient time before the rains. He was nevertheless detained two months for his official instructions; and one month more elapsed, before he could set sail. As every thing was ready early in October (1804), it is deeply to be lamented, that any accident should have prevented him from sailing in the course of that month. The delay, indeed, proved fatal to the enterprise, which in all probability would have had a different result, had it been undertaken at an adequate distance of time from the rainy season.

The expedition at length failed on the 30th January, 1805; and arrived, after a somewhat tedious passage, on the 8th of March, at Jago, one of the Cape-de-Verd islands, where they purchased the asses requisite for their caravan; and on the 28th they reached Goree in safety.

From Goree they proceeded to Kayee, a small town on the Gambia, a little below Pisania, where Park engaged a Mandingo priest, named Isaaco, who was also a travelling merchant, and much accustomed to long inland journeys, to serve as the guide to his caravan. Here they staid till the 27th of April, arranging matters for the expedition; and here commences Mr. Park's interesting Journal of his last Mission, which includes regular memoranda of his progress and adventures to Nov. 16. so that seven months had not elapsed before his career was for ever arrested. It is very evident that, had he lived to return to his country, these mere hints would never have been laid before the public; but his melancholy fate gives an interest to every scrap of information respecting him. Lieut. Martyn and thirty-five men of the Royal African Corps formed his escort.

On the 27th April, 1805, at ten o'clock in the morning, Mr. Park took his departure from Kayee; and arrived in two days at Pisania, from whence he had set out for the interior of Africa nearly ten years before. Some of the practical difficulties of the march were apparent during this short journey; and he found it necessary to stop at Pisania six days (a delay which must have been highly inconvenient), to purchase additional beasts of burden, and make other arrangements for the expedition.

He quitted Pisania on the 4th of May, and arrived on the 11th at Madina, the capital of the kingdom of Woolli. The effects of the season had already become apparent; two of the soldiers having fallen ill of the dysentery on the 8th. On the 15th he arrived at Kussai, on the banks of the Gambia; and about this time lost one of his soldiers by an epilepsy.

On the 26th, the caravan experienced a singular accident (almost unintelligible to an European) from the attack of a large swarm of bees; in consequence of which, besides that many of the people were most severely stung,

seven of their beasts of burden perished or were lost; and, owing to an accidental fire which was kindled in the confusion, the whole baggage was near being burnt. For half an hour it seemed as if the bees had put an end to the expedition.

At Shrondo, in the kingdom of Dentila, where the caravan shortly afterwards arrived, there are considerable gold-mines; and his journal contains a minute and interesting description both of the manner of collecting the metal, and of the country in which it is found.

After quitting Shrondo, Park mentions, that on the 12th of June, in consequence of a very sudden tornado, they were forced to carry their bundles into the huts of the natives, being the first time that the caravan had entered a town since leaving the Gambia. Considering the climate and season, this slight circumstance is alone a sufficient proof of the hardships which must have been sustained by Europeans during such a journey.

At Dindikoo, beyond Shrondo, Park was much struck with the beauty and magnificence of that mountainous tract of country, as well as with the degree in which it was cultivated, and the comparatively happy condition of the inhabitants. Proceeding a little farther, he quitted the track he had hitherto followed, by which he had formerly returned from Kamalia to the Gambia; and directed his course towards the north-east, with a view probably of avoiding the Jallohka Wilderness. But the difficulties of travelling were now become extreme; partly from the nature of the country, but principally from the increasing prevalence of the disease produced by the continual rains. So rapidly had sickness now extended among the men, that on the morning of the 13th of June, when they departed from Dindikoo, the sick occupied all the horses and spare asses; and by the 15th some were slightly delirious. At Kimbia, the blacks manifested their hostile disposition; and made it very probable that, as soon as the party was so reduced as to be unable to defend themselves, the inhabitants would attack them and seize their property.

July 4. Isaaco, the guide, was nearly demolished by a crocodile. His escape appears scarcely credible. "Our guide, Isaaco, was very active in pushing the asses into the water, and shoving along the canoe; but, as he was afraid that we could not have them all carried over in the course of the day, he attempted to drive six of the asses across the river farther down, where the water was shallower. When he had reached the middle of the river, a crocodile rose close to him, and, instantly seizing him by the left thigh, pulled him under water. With wonderful presence of mind he felt the head of the animal, and thrust his finger into its eye; on which it quitted its hold, and Isaaco attempted to reach the further shore; calling out for a knife. But the crocodile returned, and seized him by the other thigh, and again pulled him under water; he had recourse to the same expedient, and thrust his fingers into its eyes with such violence that it again quitted him; and, when it rose floundered about on the surface of the water as if stupid, and then swam down the middle of the river. Isaaco proceeded to the other side, bleeding very much. As soon as the canoe returned, I went over, and found him very much lacerated. The wound on the left thigh was four inches in length: that on the right not quite so large, but very deep; besides several single teeth-wounds on his back.

It is afflicting to peruse the items of this melancholy journal. Depredations were made on the coffee, or caravan, (as the party is called,) by the inhabitants in one place, and banditti in another; increasing sickness and death prevailed among the small military escort; and the continuance of rain gave little hope of any improvement in the sick-list.

On the 2d of August, they halted at Balanding; on the 3d, at Balandoo; and on the 4th reached Koolihori, a town partly walled, but having the greater part of its huts without the walls. On the 6th, they reached Ganifarra,

Ganiffarra, a small beggarly village. On the 9th, they crossed the Ba Woolli, a very deep river, flowing at the rate of four or five miles an-hour.

They pursued their route, until, on the 13th, those of them who survived reached Koomikoomi, where they halted; lat. 13. 16. 29. N. On the 15th, they reached Doombila, where Mr. Park met with an old friend, Karfa Taura, a worthy negro whom he had known, and whose kindness he had experienced, in his former travels. From Doombila, they proceeded on the 18th to Toniba; and from thence they ascended the mountains south of it, till, having attained the summit of the ridge which separates the Niger from the remote branches of the Senegal, Mr. Park had the satisfaction of once more seeing the Niger rolling its immense stream along the plains. But this satisfaction was accompanied by the mortifying reflection, that three-fourths of the soldiers had died on their march, and that, in their weakly state, they had no carpenters to build the boats in which they proposed to prosecute their discoveries. It was, however, a pleasing consideration, that, in conducting a party of Europeans, with immense baggage, through an extent of more than 500 miles, he had always been able to preserve the most friendly terms with the natives; and hence he was warranted to infer, that, with common prudence, any quantity of merchandise may be transported from the Gambia to the Niger, without danger of being robbed by the natives; and that this journey may be performed, in the dry season, with a probability of not losing more than three or at most four out of fifty. But Mr. Park was unfortunate in undertaking such a journey with the prospect of the rainy season; and the event proved, that this season set in before his journey to the Niger was more than half completed.

When he reached the Niger at Bambakoo, where the river begins to be navigable, on the 19th of August, there remained out of thirty-four soldiers and four carpenters, who left the Gambia, only six soldiers and one carpenter; and the principal persons who composed the expedition, besides Mr. Park himself, were three, viz. Mr. Anderson, Mr. Scott, and lieutenant Martyn, who were more or less affected by the disease of the climate; the two former very seriously, so that Mr. Scott was left behind at Koomikoomi, and died without reaching the Niger. Mr. Park had been slightly affected; and it is wonderful, that the anxiety and fatigue which he must have experienced did not break down both his spirits and his strength.

Having arrived at the Niger, Mr. Park, and the few companions that remained, embarked in a canoe on the 22d of August, and were borne away by the current at the rate of about five knots an-hour. The river is, at the point of embarkation, an English mile broad; and at the rapids, of which there are three principal ones, it spreads out to nearly twice that breadth. On the 23d, they arrived at Marraboo, where they were joined by those who came by land. Isaaco was immediately dispatched to Sego, the capital of Bambara, to negotiate with Mansong, the sovereign, for a free passage through his dominions. Whilst Mr. Park waited for his return, he was seized with a dysentery that threatened the termination of all his projects; but, by the aid of medicine and the advantage of a good constitution, he was soon restored to health. Many difficulties and delays occurred in the negotiation, which was conducted on the part of Mr. Park with singular judgment and address; but at length, after many unfavourable rumours, which kept his mind in a state of distressing suspense, Mansong deputed a messenger to conduct him towards Sego. Under his escort, he left Koolikorro (lat. 12. 52. N.) on the 13th of September, and enjoyed the beautiful views which his voyage afforded him; "the river," as he says, "being sometimes as smooth as a mirror, at other times ruffled with a gentle breeze, but at all times sweeping us along at the rate of six or seven miles an-hour." On the 14th, they

departed from Deena, where they had lodged, and arrived at Yamina, (lat. 13. 15.) where they halted on the 15th; and on the 16th reached Samee, (lat. 13. 17.)

Here a deputation of Mansong's friends visited Mr. Park, in order to hear from himself a statement of his views and purposes in the voyage he was undertaking. His statement was satisfactory to the grandees that had executed this commission; and Mr. Park was assured of permission to pursue his voyage, and of protection from Mansong as far as his power extended. The king and his courtiers were much gratified by the presents which they received on the occasion. Accordingly, on the 26th of September, Mr. Park proceeded from Samee to Sanfanding, which is twenty-five miles north-east of Sego. Here he intended to provide a proper vessel for his further navigation down the Niger; but it was with difficulty that he procured from Mansong and his son, in return for the presents he had given them, two decayed canoes, which merely afforded him materials for constructing, with his own hands, and some assistance from one of the surviving soldiers, a flat-bottomed boat, to which he gave the sounding title of His Majesty's Schooner the Joliba.

In the mean while Mr. Park was informed of the death of Mr. Scott; and he had now occasion to lament the loss of his friend Mr. Anderson, who died, after a lingering attack of four months, on the 26th of October. The sensibility he expressed on this occasion did honour to his feelings; and yet, considering his present perilous situation, and the dreary and discouraging prospects which presented themselves with regard to the prospects of his undertaking, he must have possessed a very high degree of equanimity, firmness, and self-possession. On the 16th of November, the schooner having been completed, and every thing in Mr. Park's power to command being ready for the voyage, he closes his journal; and, in the course of the succeeding days, previous to his embarkation, which was on the 19th, he wrote several letters to his friends and kindred in England and Scotland. In these letters, we discover traces of that deliberate and inflexible resolution, without effort or ostentation, which was a distinguishing feature of his character. From this period, we have no strictly-authentic information concerning Mr. Park, or the progress and termination of his expedition. In the course of the year 1806, conjectures and reports agitated the public mind; and the agitation was aggravated by intelligence communicated by the native traders from the interior of Africa to the British settlements on the coast; whence it was concluded, that Mr. Park and his companions were killed. In consequence of these unsatisfactory and alarming rumours, lieutenant-general Maxwell, then governor of Senegal, obtained permission from government to engage a proper person to investigate and ascertain the truth of these rumours. Accordingly, he engaged Isaaco, Mr. Park's guide, to conduct this business. In January 1810, Isaaco left Senegal; and returned on the 1st of September, 1811, fully confirming the reports of Mr. Park's death. His journal, including another from Amadi Fatouma, the guide who had accompanied Park from Sanfanding down the Niger, was delivered to the governor, and transmitted by him, after having been translated from Arabic to English, to the secretary of state for the colonial department.

From Amadi Fatouma's journal we learn, that the conductors of the expedition went from Sanfanding to Silla, where Mr. Park had ended his first voyage; and that from thence Mr. Park, Martyn, three other white men, three slaves, and Amadi as guide and interpreter, nine in number, proceeded in a canoe to Ginny; and, as they passed Sibby, or Dibbie, they were attacked by an armed force in three canoes, which they repulsed. Again at Rakbara, or Kabra, they repelled another assault; and, in passing Tombuctoo, they resisted another similar attack, escaping by force and by the slaughter of many of the natives. As they

they advanced, the number of hostile canoes increased, till at length it amounted to sixty, and in self-defence they killed a very considerable number of persons; their own number being now reduced, by the death of one of the white men, to eight. At length, having passed Kaffo and Gourmon, and having supplied themselves with provisions, they entered the country of Haoussa. The king of the country, having received information from the chief of Yaour, a village in this district, that the white men had departed without giving them any presents, sent an army to a village called Boussa, near the side of the river, which was posted on the top of a rock that traversed the river, in which rock there was a large cleft or opening that admitted the water to pass in a strong current; and, when Mr. Park arrived at this opening, and attempted to pass, he was attacked with lances, pikes, arrows, and stones; against which he for some time resolutely defended himself, till, at length overpowered by numbers and fatigue, and unable to keep up the canoe against the current, Mr. Park laid hold of one of the white men and jumped into the water; Mr. Martyn did the same, and they were drowned in the stream in attempting to escape. One slave was left, and they took him and the canoe, and carried them to the king. Amadi, after having been kept in prison for three months, was released; and obtained information from the surviving slave, concerning the manner in which Mr. Park and his companions had died. Nothing was left in the canoe but a sword-belt, of which the king had made a girth for his horse; and this belt Isaac afterwards recovered. Amadi, according to Isaac's report, was a good upright man, and delivered the above account to him on oath; nor could he have any interest in deceiving him. From circumstances it is concluded, that Mr. Park died four months after his departure from Sanfanding.

The leading parts of Mungo Park's character must have been anticipated by the reader in the principal events and transactions of his life. Of his enterprising spirit, his indefatigable vigilance and activity, his calm fortitude and unshaken perseverance, he has left permanent memorials in the narrative of his former travels and in the journal and correspondence since published. In these respects few travellers have equalled, none certainly ever surpassed, him. Nor were the qualities of his understanding less valuable or conspicuous: he was distinguished by a correctness of judgment seldom found united with an ardent and adventurous turn of mind, and generally deemed incompatible with it. His talents certainly were not brilliant, but solid and useful, such as were peculiarly suited to a traveller and geographical discoverer. Hence, in his accounts of new and unknown countries, he is consistent and rational; he is betrayed into no exaggeration, nor does he exhibit any traces of credulity or enthusiasm. His attention was directed exclusively to facts; and, except in his opinion relative to the termination of the Niger, (which he supported by very plausible arguments,) he rarely indulged in conjecture, much less in hypothesis or speculation.

In all the relations of private life he appears to have been highly exemplary; and his conduct as a son, a husband, and a father, merited every praise. To the more gentle and amiable parts of his character, the most certain of all testimonies may be found in the warm attachment of his friends, and in the fond and affectionate recollections of every branch of his family. He was a stranger to all vanity and affectation; and, notwithstanding his great popularity and success, appears to have lost no portion of the genuine simplicity of his character and manners. This simplicity originated perhaps in a considerable degree from a certain coldness and reserve, which, as was before remarked, rendered him very indifferent, and perhaps somewhat averse, to mixed or general society. It was probably owing to the same cause that his conversation, for a man who had seen so much, had nothing remarkable, and was rarely striking or animated. Hence,

although his appearance was interesting and prepossessing, he was apt to disappoint the expectations of strangers: and those persons who estimated his general talents from his powers of conversation, formed an erroneous and inadequate opinion of his merits. In his person he was tall, being about six feet high, and perfectly well proportioned. His countenance and whole appearance was highly interesting; his frame was active and robust, fitted for great exertions and the endurance of hardships. His constitution had suffered considerably from the effects of his first journey into Africa; but seems afterwards to have been restored to its original vigour, of which his last expedition afforded the most ample proofs. The second volume of his Travels, entitled "Journal of a Mission into the Interior of Africa in the Year 1805," with his Life prefixed, and from which the above article is collected, was published by the African Institution, in 1815, 4to. and a new edition was published, in 8vo. in 1816.

PAR'K-LEAVES. See HYPERICUM.

PAR'KANY, a town of Hungary, at the conflux of the rivers Gran and Danube: two miles north of Gran, and fourteen east of Comorn.

PAR'KEL, a town of Hindoostan, in Golconda: thirty-two miles south-south-west of Hydrabad.

PAR'KER, *s.* A park-keeper.—To make good such a justification by a *parker*, forester, or warrener, there are these things requisite. *Hale*.

A doe came tripping in at the rere ward;
But, lorde, how the *parker* was wroth with all! *Shelton*.

PAR'KER, a township of Butler county, in Pennsylvania, having 399 inhabitants.

PAR'KER (Matthew), the second protestant archbishop of Canterbury, and a prelate of considerable abilities and learning, was the son of a substantial tradesman of Norwich, where he was born in the year 1504. When only twelve years of age he lost his father; but his mother took care to place him under the instruction of good masters, by whom he was well grounded in grammar-learning. In the year 1520 he was sent to the university of Cambridge, where he entered of Corpus-Christi college; of which house he was chosen a bible-clerk, or scholar, in the following year; in 1523 he was admitted to the degree of B. A. in 1527 he was ordained deacon, and afterwards priest; and in the same year he commenced M. A. and was chosen fellow of his college. In 1533, when he was about nine-and-twenty years of age, he preached his first sermon before the university; and almost immediately became a popular preacher in the neighbourhood of Cambridge. He had by this time imbibed the principles of the Reformation, and showed so much zeal for them, that archbishop Cranmer granted him a licence to preach throughout his province. About this time he was sent for to court, and was made chaplain to queen Anne Boleyn, who appointed him, a short time before her death, to the particular charge of her daughter Elizabeth. About the year 1534 he was presented by the queen to the deanery of the college of Stoke, near Clare, in Suffolk; a preferment of small value in a pecuniary view, but affording him a pleasing place of retirement, when he chose to withdraw from the court, from which it was about twenty miles distance. Here he laboured to reform the popish superstitions; and founded a grammar-school, for the instruction of youth in sound learning, and in the principles of the Christian religion, at which the children of the poor were taught gratis. Mr. Parker still continued to preach assiduously at Stoke, Cambridge, and other places; and sometimes in London, at St. Paul's Crofs.

In the year 1537, after the death of queen Anne Boleyn, king Henry VIII. took Mr. Parker into his own service, appointing him one of his chaplains. In 1538 he was created D. D. in 1541, installed prebendary in the cathedral church of Ely, and in the following year presented

sented to the rectory of Athen in Essex. This living he resigned in 1544; immediately after which he was presented to the rectory of Birlingham All-Saints, in his native county of Norfolk. In the same year, in consequence of the king's letters commendatory, containing a very honourable testimony to his character and worth, he was chosen master of Corpus-Christi college; to which he afterwards became a liberal benefactor, and compiled for it a new body of statutes. In 1545, he was elected vice-chancellor of the university of Cambridge; and in the same year he was presented by his college to the rectory of Landbeach in Cambridgeshire. In 1547, he lost his deanery of Stoke by the dissolution of that college, which he ineffectually exerted himself to prevent: however, from a regard to his merit, he had a yearly pension of forty pounds settled on him in lieu of it, and a promise of the deanery of Lincoln.

After the accession of king Edward VI. matrimony being allowed to the clergy, Dr. Parker married a lady of a good family, who proved an excellent wife, as well as an excellent woman, and contributed materially to his happiness during twenty-three years. Being accidentally in Norfolk, in 1549, during the time of Kett's rebellion, Dr. Parker had the resolution to go to the rebels' camp, where he preached to them under the oak of reformation, taking the opportunity to exhort them to temperance, moderation, and submission to the king. In doing this he ran great hazard, and his life appears to have been in danger from the fury of some of the enraged multitude; however, he happily escaped out of their hands.

In 1551, Dr. Parker was included in a commission for correcting and punishing anabaptists; under which term seem to have been comprehended, not only persons who rejected infant-baptism, but Arians, Pelagians, and others who administered the sacrament in a different way from that prescribed by the Book of Common-Prayer. In 1552, he was presented by king Edward VI. to a prebend in the cathedral church of Lincoln, and a few days afterwards to the deanery of the same church. He had before been nominated a chaplain to his majesty, probably soon after his accession to the crown. Thus he lived in great reputation and affluence, during the reigns of Henry VIII. and Edward VI. and happy in the acquaintance and esteem of some of the greatest men of the time; among whom were the learned Emanuel Tremellius, lord Cromwell, archbishop Cranmer, bishop Ridley, bishop Latimer, sir William Cecil, sir John Cheke, and Mr. Nicholas Bacon, afterwards lord keeper.

After the accession of queen Mary to the throne, Dr. Parker was deprived of all his preferments, under the pretence of his being disqualified for holding them as a married man; but, in reality, on account of the active part he had taken in promoting the principles of the reformation. Upon this, he withdrew privately into Norfolk, with his wife and family, bearing his reverse of fortune with a contented and cheerful mind. The first asylum which he chose was in the house of one of his friends; but, as strict search was frequently made after him, he was obliged to remove from place to place, and proved so fortunate as to escape the vigilant and active persecutors of that bloody reign. Some part of the leisure which his present obscure situation afforded him, Dr. Parker employed in turning the Book of Psalms into English verse, and in writing a defence of the marriage of priests.

Upon the death of queen Mary, and the accession of Elizabeth, in 1558, a very great alteration took place in the circumstances of Dr. Parker; for he not only became free from all fear and danger, but was elevated to the highest dignity in the English church, the archbishopric of Canterbury. For this exalted station he was considered to be the fittest man among the English clergy at that difficult crisis, when the great work of reformation was to be carried on with vigour, on account of his great learning, piety, zeal, courage, and prudence. He was

so far from seeking this dignity, that he appears to have been really averse to the acceptance of it, and sincere in his application to the lord keeper Bacon, to use his interest with the queen that he might be permitted to decline it. Her majesty, however, persisting in her choice, he was obliged to submit, and was consecrated in Lambeth chapel, on the seventeenth of December, 1559, by William Barlow, late bishop of Bath and Wells, and then elect of Chichester; John Scory, late bishop of Chichester, and then elect of Hereford; Miles Coverdale, bishop of Exeter; and John Hodgkin, suffragan bishop of Bedford. We mention these particulars, of which there is the clearest evidence, as affording a decisive confutation of the malignant falsehood that was invented and propagated some years afterwards by the papists, that Parker was consecrated at the Nag's Head inn, or tavern, in Cheapside.

Being thus constituted primate and metropolitan of the church of England, Dr. Parker endeavoured to fill the vacant sees with men of learning and piety, who were zealous for promoting the reformation; and, soon after his own consecration, he consecrated at Lambeth, Grindal bishop of London, Cox bishop of Ely, Sandys bishop of Worcester, Jewel bishop of Salisbury, and several others. He also extended his influence and his concern for the protestant interest to the kingdom of Ireland, sending over proper instructions to Hugh Corwin, archbishop of Dublin, for completing the work of the reformation of the church of Ireland. Accordingly, the Litany was sung in English at the cathedral in Dublin, in the presence of the earl of Sussex, the queen's lieutenant, and his court; which so highly exasperated the popish party, that they had recourse to their old fraud of inventing a miracle, to keep up the reputation of the old superstition. That which they adopted, however, was so indifferently contrived, that it was easily detected, to the shame and disgrace of the parties concerned, and of the cause which it was meant to support. The particulars of this ridiculous story having been transmitted from the archbishop of Dublin to archbishop Parker, he took care that it should be universally circulated, to expose the credulity of those who still retained a veneration for images. This letter was published by him very opportunely in England, as the question whether they should be continued in the churches or not, was now debating by the clergy, and the queen seemed inclined to retain them; but the sight of this letter, backed by several passages produced from Scripture by the archbishop and other divines, produced her consent that they should be taken down throughout the kingdom and demolished.

About this time archbishop Parker received a letter from Calvin, congratulating him on the religious change which had taken place in England, and entreating him to prevail with the queen to summon a general assembly of all the protestant clergy, wheresoever dispersed, for the purpose of agreeing upon one common form of worship and of church-government, to be established not only within her dominions, but also among all the reformed and evangelical churches abroad. This letter was taken into consideration by the queen's council, who requested his grace to return thanks to Calvin for his proposals, which they acknowledged to be candid and desirable; but at the same time to signify to him, that the church of England would still retain her episcopacy, and that the queen would continue to be the head of her own church.

But the queen found it impossible to produce conformity and unanimity even in her own church. Disturbances soon arose on the subject of ecclesiastical habits, which threatened an alarming schism, and could not fail giving cause of scandal to all well-disposed Christians. In consequence of a clause in the act of uniformity, which gave the queen power to add any rites and ceremonies which she thought proper to add to those of the established church, she had issued injunctions, by which particular ecclesiastical habits were ordered to be worn by the clergy,

which

which had been laid aside in the reign of king Edward VI. These injunctions occasioned a great diversity of practice in the church; many conforming themselves implicitly in every circumstance, while others rejected a part of the habits, and not a few the whole, considering them to be relics of popery, and consequently superstitious and sinful. Square caps, copes, and surplices, in particular, were strongly objected to; and many forsook the service of the churches where these habits were used, while others deserted those places where they were rejected. The great majority of the laity, however, who were zealous for the reformation, were against these habits; and the clergy who wore them were subject to the insults of the common people, who believed them to be papists at heart, and conformists to the protestant religion only from interested motives. At length the matter was laid before the queen, who was highly offended at this diversity in the practice of the clergy, and especially that any opposition should be made to laws enacted with her concurrence and authority. She therefore directed a letter to the archbishops of Canterbury and York, reflecting with some acrimony on these diversities, as if they were owing to remissness in the bishops; and requiring them to confer with her ecclesiastical commissioners, "and to take effectual methods that an exact order and uniformity be maintained in all external rites and ceremonies; and that none hereafter be admitted to any ecclesiastical preferment, but who was well disposed to common order, and should formally promise to comply with it." In compliance with this letter, archbishop Parker, together with the bishops of London, Ely, Winchester, and Lincoln, drew up "Ordinances for the due Order in Preaching, and administering the Sacraments, and for the Apparel of Persons ecclesiastical." According to some of these ordinances, all the licences for preaching were to be directly cancelled; but were to be renewed to such of the clergy as their bishops should think worthy of the office. Those who should be licensed, were to preach once in three months; and those who should be unlicensed, were to read homilies. In administering the sacrament, the principal minister was to wear a cope; but, in the other parts of the devotional service, only the surplice. In cathedrals they were to wear hoods, and to preach in them. The sacrament was to be received by every person kneeling. Communion-tables were to be placed in all churches towards the east, and the ten commandments set up on the walls above them. No person was to be ordained without having first taken his degrees; and a subscription was to be required of all who were admitted to any office in the church, that they would observe uniformity, and conform to all the laws and orders already established for that purpose, &c.

These ordinances the archbishop published, under the title of *advertisements*; and soon gave the clergy to understand, that he would enforce them with rigour in the spiritual court. Among those whom he cited before him, were Mr. Thomas Sampson, dean of Christ-church, and Dr. Lawrence Humphreys, regius professor of divinity and president of Magdalen-college, Oxford, who were universally respected for their great learning, piety, and zeal for the reformation, and had been exiles on account of their religion in the reign of queen Mary. These men, together with the rest of their brethren who entertained conscientious scruples about wearing the habits, were now classed under the general denomination of *Puritans*. Upon their appearance before the archbishop, he endeavoured to remove their scruples by arguments, accompanied with menaces of deprivation in case of their refusal to conform; but found them inflexible. After a long attendance, and many checks from some of the high-commissioners for their refractoriness, they were ordered not to depart the city without leave. The commissioners were divided in their opinions how to proceed with them; some being disposed towards a connivance,

and others towards a compromise. But the archbishop, who guided their ultimate determinations, would not grant them the least indulgence; and on their next appearance he peremptorily told them, that they must comply with the *advertisements*, or part with their preferments. Upon their answering that, whatever the event might be, their consciences would not allow them to comply, they were taken into custody, and confined in prison for some time, by way of terror to others; and, when this proceeding was found not to produce the desired effect, they were deprived, and then dismissed. Soon afterwards the archbishop summoned the whole body of the incumbents and curates of the city of London to appear before him and some of the other commissioners at Lambeth; and when, on the appointed day, they appeared in court, the archbishop's chancellor ordered them to declare, by a subscription under their hands, whether they would promise conformity to the habits or not. After much persuasion, and many threatenings, sixty one subscribed, and thirty-seven absolutely refused; in which latter number were some of the best preachers in the city, as archbishop Parker acknowledged. These were immediately suspended from the office of the ministry, notwithstanding their crying out for compassion to themselves and families; and they were assured, that, if they did not conform within three months, they should be deprived. When they offered a paper containing the reasons of their refusal, the chancellor told them, that it was not the business of the commissioners to argue and debate, but to execute the queen's injunctions.

In consequence of these proceedings against the Puritans, many churches in London, and in every part of the kingdom where the queen's injunctions were rigidly executed, were shut up for want of preachers; the serious well-wishers to the reformation lamented to see its progress impeded by such arbitrary and oppressive measures; and the papists rejoiced with inexpressible pleasure to see the protestants thus weakening their own hands by silencing such numbers of their best divines. The sufferers under these persecutions, having been refused a hearing by the archbishop and the rest of the commissioners, thought it their duty to lay their case before the world, and published various books and pamphlets in defence of their nonconformity. To some of these, answers were written on the part of the bishops, either by themselves or their chaplains; which were followed by replies from the Puritans, whose tracts were eagerly sought after, and were widely spread among the people. Provoked at the attention which was paid to them, the archbishop and the other commissioners complained to the privy council, that, notwithstanding the queen's injunctions, the schism in the church was kept open, and increased, by the printing and publication of seditious libels. In consequence of this complaint, they obtained a decree from that arbitrary tribunal the star-chamber, prohibiting all books and pamphlets in which any thing should be advanced against the queen's injunctions, ordinances, or letters patent; and empowering the wardens of the stationers' company to search all suspected places for such books, and to bring the offenders before the ecclesiastical commissioners. This high stretch of tyranny, which took place in June 1566, was a disgrace to the cause in behalf of which it was exerted, and excited against the men who had recourse to such an expedient for silencing their opponents, the detestation of all the consistent friends of truth and liberty.

The Puritans, thus shut out of the church by sequestrations, imprisonments, the taking away of their licences to preach, and the restraints of the press, were at first at a loss how to act, being unwilling to separate from a communion in which they admitted that the faith and essentials of religion were uncorrupted, though they conceived that the administration of the word and sacraments was defiled with popish superstitions. At length, after much serious discussion, they came to this determination,

nation, "that it was their duty, in their present circumstances, to break off from the public churches, and to assemble, as they had opportunity, in private houses, or elsewhere, to worship God in a manner that might not offend against the light of their consciences." It was also debated among them, whether they should use as much of the Common Prayer and Service of the Church, as was not offensive; or resolve at once to set up what they considered to be the purest and best form of worship, most consonant to the holy scriptures, and to the practice of the foreign reformers. The latter of these measures was concluded upon; and accordingly, they laid aside the English Liturgy, and made use of the Geneva Service-Book. Thus commenced the formal separation of the Protestant Nonconformists from the Church of England: "a most unhappy event of this controversy," says Mr. Strype, "whereby people of the same country, of the same religion, and of the same judgment in doctrine, parted communions; one part being obliged to go apart into secret houses and chambers, to serve God by themselves, which begat strangeness between neighbours, Christians, and Protestants." "And not only strangeness," adds Mr. Neal, "but unspeakable mischiefs to the nation in this and the following reigns. The breach might easily have been made up at first, but it widened by degrees; the passions of the contending parties increased, till the fire, which for some years was burning under ground, broke out into a civil war, and with unspeakable fury destroyed the constitution both of church and state. At whose door the beginning of these sorrows are to be laid," the impartial reader will be at no loss in determining.

In the year 1567, the archbishop founded three grammar-schoolships, or exhibitions, in Bennet-college; and two years afterwards, seven more schoolships, and two fellowships, in the same house. In 1568, a new folio edition of the English Bible was published, chiefly under the inspection of archbishop Parker, with a preface written by him. This was commonly called the *Bishops' Bible*, on account of its having been revised and corrected, principally by bishops, from the translation published by Cranmer; and it was made use of in the churches, till the last translation took place in the reign of James I. About the year 1572, archbishop Parker gave handsome presents of plate, and other benefactions, to several colleges in the university of Cambridge; and founded a scholarship for the study of the law, and another for the study of physic. In 1574, he presented many volumes to the library of the university of Cambridge, of which twenty-five were valuable manuscripts; and he gave additional benefactions to Corpus-Christi college.

One of the last public acts in which his grace was employed, was a metropolitanical visitation of the diocese of Winchester, and in particular of the Isle of Wight, in the year 1575, in which he exercised such severities as exposed him to universal odium, and even induced the court to interfere and reverse his proceedings. That island being a place of resort for foreign protestants, and sea-faring persons of all countries and religions, many of whom were Calvinists, it had been judged expedient by government not to be so strict on the subjects of the habits and ceremonies, as in other places, lest the commerce of the country should sustain an injury. But such considerations had no weight with Parker, who was determined to enforce a strict conformity throughout the island. Accordingly, when he came thither, he deprived all the clergy who refused submission, consisting of the greater part of that body, and shut up their churches. The inhabitants, greatly concerned at this display of intemperate zeal, sent a complaint against the prelate to the earl of Leicester, who laid it before the queen. The bishop of Winchester, likewise, transmitted a remonstrance to court, against the inquisitorial proceedings of the archbishop in his diocese. These complaints were investigated

at the council, who declared their disapprobation of the archbishop's conduct, and advised her majesty that ecclesiastical matters should be placed in the Isle of Wight upon their former footing. This was done accordingly; and, when Parker came next to court, the queen not only received him very coldly, but declared her displeasure at his unseasonable severities. Full of resentment at the reception which he had met with, and the interference of the earl of Leicester, and some others, in this business, the archbishop wrote an angry letter to the lord treasurer, in which he expressed his discontent at the opposition made to his measures, disclaimed all concern in the present policy of the court, and declared the church and state to be in danger of dissolution, from the countenance given to the Puritans.

Archbishop Parker now rapidly declined in his health, and suffered much from attacks of the stone and strangury; a violent paroxysm of which carried him off in May 1575, when he was in the seventy-first year of his age. He was buried, with great magnificence and solemnity, in his own private chapel at Lambeth, under a tomb erected by himself; which remained there till 1648, when colonel Scot, having purchased that palace for a mansion-house, pulled down the tomb, and scandalously abused the remains of the prelate, by directing them to be thrown into a hole near an outhouse where poultry were kept, while he disposed of the leaden coffin which had contained them to a plumber. Some time after the restoration they were decently re-interred in the place where the monument had stood, which was again erected to his memory.

Archbishop Parker has the honour to rank among the principal agents in exposing the superstitions of popery, and in placing the protestant religion on a permanent footing in England. It is to be lamented, however, that he sullied this honour, by introducing in protestantism much of the ecclesiastical pride, and tyrannical persecuting spirit, of the church from which he separated. It is justly observed by Dr. Warner, that a general character of him cannot be given, which will accord with the former and latter part of his life, since he was so different a man in those two periods. In the former part of his life, he had behaved with remarkable good temper, as a modest humble man; and the great unwillingness with which he accepted the primacy, shows that he entertained a deep sense of the duties of the episcopal office, and that he was then uninfluenced by avarice or ambition: but, when he was invested with the archiepiscopal dignity, he lost all his former humbleness of mind, and assumed high notions of authority both in church and state: he became as rough and uncourtly in his behaviour towards those who had business with him, as he was slavish in his obedience to the prerogative and supremacy. The queen had once told him, that he had a supreme ecclesiastical authority in himself, which seems to have fired him with ambition, to see what great things he could do for the church; and he appears to have thought, that his best method of rendering service to it, would be by enforcing an uniformity of opinion and worship; forgetting that, upon the same principles, the popish persecutions might have been defended. His religion seems to have almost wholly consisted in a servile submission to the queen's injunctions, and in regulating the public service of the church; for, while he was expending his zeal, and time, and labour, in suppressing Puritanism, he appears to have taken little care to reform the lives and manners of his clergy; of which many complaints were made in parliament, in pamphlets, and in conversation. Neal remarks, that "his grace had too little regard for public virtue; his entertainments and feasts being chiefly on the Lord's day: nor do we read, among his episcopal qualities, of his diligent preaching or pious example. Fuller calls him a *parker* indeed, careful to keep the fences, and shut the gates of discipline, against all such night-stealers as would invade the same; and indeed this was his chief excellence."

excellence." He was naturally of a warm temper; but, till his head was turned by his exaltation, he exhibited no instances of haughtiness and ill-nature. He was to the last hospitable and charitable; and did many kind and benevolent things to private people, as well as for the public benefit. The regulation of his family was extremely laudable: he assigned all his domestics some employment or other, and kept no idle people about him: those who were not occupied in learned pursuits, about the management of his revenues, or the affairs of his household, were variously employed; some in binding books, others in engraving, painting, transcribing manuscripts in fine hand-writing, drawing, or illuminating.

Archbishop Parker was much attached to the study of British and Saxon antiquities; and he spared neither labour nor expense in collecting and preserving whatever manuscripts of this kind could any where be met with, of which a fatal havock and destruction had been made at the time of the dissolution of the monasteries. Mr. Strype says, that one of his agents, in the space of no more than four years, procured for him not fewer than six thousand seven hundred volumes. In 1563, he was the instrument of preserving two volumes of collections in folio, made by archbishop Cranmer. All these valuable MSS. besides a considerable number of printed books, he deposited in a library which he built for Corpus-Christi college in Cambridge. To him literature is indebted for editions of four of our ancient English historians; namely, Matthew of Westminster, Matthew Paris, Thomas Walsingham, and Asser's Life of King Alfred, all in folio. He also published, besides the articles which have already been noticed by us, "a Testimony of Antiquity, shewing the ancient Faith of the Church of England, touching the Sacrament of the Body and Blood of the Lord, here publicly preached, and also received, in the Saxons' Time, about seven hundred Years ago," 1566, 8vo. being a Sermon translated out of Latin into Saxon, by Ælfric abbot of St. Alban's, about the year 996, and appointed to be delivered to the people at Easter, before they should receive the communion. This piece was accompanied with two Letters of Ælfric, which were brought forward to afford additional proof that the doctrine of the real presence was not then admitted by the church. Another considerable work of the archbishop contains the lives of his predecessors in the see of Canterbury, and is entitled, "De Antiquitate Britannicæ Ecclesiæ, et Privilegiis Ecclesiæ, et Privilegiis Ecclesiæ Cantuariensis, cum Archiepiscopis ejusdem LXX." 1572, folio. Most of the copies of this work want the account of Parker's own life, he having caused it to be suppressed while he lived; on which account Mr. Strype has inserted it in the appendix to his Life of our prelate. The materials for this performance were collected from ancient historians, by John Josceline, secretary or chaplain to our prelate, who was himself the digester and compiler of it. The best edition of it was published at London, in 1729, folio, illustrated with excellent engravings. *Strype's Life of Parker. Neal's Hist. Purit. vol. i. Warner's Eccl. Hist. vol. ii.*

PARKER (Samuel), an English prelate, notorious for his temporizing servile spirit, and the scandalous sacrifice of his principles, was the son of John Parker, a serjeant at law under the protectorate of Oliver, and also after the restoration; and born at Northampton in the year 1640. He was educated in grammar-learning among the Puritans at his native place; whence he was sent, in 1656, to the university of Oxford, where he was entered of Wadham-college, and placed under a presbyterian tutor. Here he is said to have led a very strict and religious life, and became a member of a society of young students who met weekly to fast and pray together, and were distinguished by the name of *Gruellers*, from their making water-gruel their principal diet. So constant was he in his attendance upon prayers, sermons, and sacraments, in the meetings of the puritan party, that they esteemed him

as "one of the most precious young men in the university." In 1659-60, he was admitted to the degree of B. A. Upon the restoration of king Charles II. he hesitated for a time what side to take, but still continued freely to talk against episcopacy; on which account, being discountenanced by Dr. Blandford, the new warden of Wadham-college, he withdrew from that house, and became a member of Trinity-college. In this society, by the conversation and arguments of Dr. Ralph Bathurst, then senior fellow, he was prevailed upon to renounce his puritanical opinions, and to become a zealous member of the church of England. He now lost no opportunity of ingratiating himself with his new friends, and of affording proofs of the sincerity of his conversion, by opposing the principles, and by endeavouring to exercise his wit at the expense, of the party which he had quitted. In 1636, he took the degree of M. A. Soon afterwards he entered into holy orders; and, resorting frequently to London, became chaplain to a nobleman, whom he was accustomed to divert by his drolleries and reflections on his old friends the puritans. In 1665, he was elected a fellow of the Royal Society; and about the same time he published some physico-theological essays, entitled, "Tentamina physico-theologica de Deo; five Theologia Scholastica, ad Normam novæ et reformatæ Philosophiæ concinnata," 4to. These essays were attacked in a piece, entitled, "of the Bulk and Selvedge of the World, by N. Fairfax, M. D." and they were severely criticised by the celebrated Andrew Marvel, in his "Rehearsal transposed," who calls them, "a tedious transcript of our author's common-place-book, wherein there is very little of his own, but the arrogance and unparalleled censoriousness that he exercises over all other writers." In 1666, Mr. Parker published, "A free and impartial Censure of the Platonic Philosophy," 4to, in a letter written to a friend; which was soon followed by a second letter, containing "An Account of the Nature and Extent of the divine Dominion and Goodness, especially as they refer to the Origenian Hypothesis concerning the Pre-existence of Souls, &c." 4to. These pieces were written in defence of some passages in his Essays; and the last of them called forth the animadversions of the author of an excellent tract, entitled, "*Deus Justificatus*;" or, the divine Goodness vindicated and cleared, against the Assertors of absolute and inconditionate Reprobation."

The dedication of the author's Tentamina to Dr. Sheldon, archbishop of Canterbury, proved the means of introducing him to that prelate, who was so well pleased with him, that, in 1667, he appointed him one of his own chaplains. Having now the road to preferment opened to him, he quitted Oxford, and went to reside at Lambeth; where his attention to his patron was rewarded, 1670, by his nomination to the archdeaconry of Canterbury. In the same year, having been appointed one of the attendants on William prince of Orange, when he paid a visit to the university of Cambridge, our author was honoured on that occasion with the degree of D. D. Dr. Parker's next promotion was to a prebendal stall in the cathedral church of Canterbury, which was conferred upon him in 1672; and not long afterwards he was collocated by the archbishop to the rectories of Ickham and Chartham in Kent.

He had now been engaged between two and three years in controversy with different writers, which was commenced by a piece of his containing severe reflections upon the presbyterians and other nonconformists, and entitled, "a Discourse of Ecclesiastical Polity, wherein the Authority of the civil Magistrate over the Consciences of Subjects in Matters of external Religion is asserted;" 1669, 8vo. The principal antagonists whom he provoked to enter the lists by this publication, were Dr. John Owen, and Andrew Marvell. In 1678, Dr. Parker published "Disputationes de Deo et Providentia Divina; an Philosophorum ulli, et quanam, Athei fuerint?" &c. which Dr. Henry More highly commends. His next publication

appeared in 1681, and was entitled, "A Demonstration of the divine Authority of the Law of Nature, and of the Christian Religion, in two parts," 4to. in which he attempts to vindicate the genuineness of the famous passage in Josephus concerning our Saviour, from the exceptions of Tanaquil Faber, and other critics; the importance of the testimony of Phlegon, in support of the evangelical narrative concerning the miraculous darkness at the time of our Saviour's crucifixion; and also the genuineness of the Acts of Pontius Pilate, with his Letter to Tiberius, and of the Letter of Abgarus king of Edessa to Jesus, with the Rescript attributed to our Saviour. In the same year he published, "The Case of the Church of England briefly stated, in the three first and fundamental Principles of a Christian Church: the Obligation of Christianity by divine Right; the Jurisdiction of the Church by divine Right; the Institution of Episcopal Superiority by divine Right," 8vo. This attempt to support the exorbitant claims of the church, was followed, in 1683, by another publication, written with the same view, and entitled, "An Account of the Government of the Christian Church in the first six hundred Years, &c." 8vo. At the same time Dr Parker distinguished himself by his zeal in exalting the authority of the crown, and in enforcing the courtly doctrines of passive obedience and non-resistance. In 1684, he published "Religion and Loyalty; or, a Demonstration of the Power of the Christian Church within itself, &c." 8vo. which he dedicated to king Charles II. during whose reign he maintained an unreversed obsequiousness to the court.

Upon the accession of king James II. Dr. Parker continued the same servile complaisance towards the regal power, and in 1685, published the second part of "Religion and Loyalty," intended still further to corroborate his reasonings in defence of high-church politics. By his conduct and writings he had now rendered himself so acceptable to his majesty, that, upon the death of Dr. Fell in 1686, he nominated him to the bishopric of Oxford, with permission to hold the archdeaconry of Canterbury *in commendam*. Soon afterwards he was made a privy-counsellor; and in 1687, by a royal *mandamus*, in an illegal manner, was constituted president of Magdalen-college in Oxford. The particulars of this last-mentioned arbitrary stretch of the regal prerogative, (which had no little influence in determining the clergy to concur in those measures which drove James from his throne,) have been imperfectly related under the article OXFORD, p. 146, 7, of this volume. It should have been added, that, after the college had rejected Anthony Farmer, and elected Dr. Hough, the king's ecclesiastical commissioners deprived him of the presidency, installing Dr. Parker, bishop of Oxford, by proxy, in his room; and, as the fellows refused to sign a submission to their new president, twenty-five of them were immediately expelled the college with Dr. Hough, and declared incapable of being admitted to any ecclesiastical dignity or benefice.

So far did Dr. Parker carry his servile conformity to the royal pleasure, that he appeared ready without scruple to sacrifice his religion to it; and prostituted his pen by writing in defence of transubstantiation, and the worship of saints and images. That the papists regarded him as a proselyte to their faith, appears from two letters which were written about this time. In the first, sent by a Jesuit of Liege to a Jesuit of Fribourg, is the following passage: "The bishop of Oxford himself seems to be a great favourer of the catholic faith. He proposed in council, whether it was not expedient, that one college at least in Oxford should be allowed to the Catholics, that they might not be forced to be at so much charges in going beyond sea to study; but it is not yet known what answer was made. The same bishop having invited two of our noblemen (i. e. Roman-catholics), with others of the nobility, to a feast, drank the king's health, wishing his majesty good success in all his undertakings: adding

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also, that the religion of the Protestants in England did not seem to him in a better condition than Buda was before it was taken; and that they were next to atheists who defended that faith." The other letter, written by father Petre, a jesuit, and privy-counsellor to king James, and directed to father la Chaise, contains these words: "The bishop of Oxford has not yet declared himself openly; the great obstacle is his wife, whom he cannot rid himself of: his design being to continue bishop, and only change communion; as it is not doubted but the king will permit, and our holy father confirm: though I do not see how he can be further useful to us in the religion he is in, because he is suspected, and of no esteem among the heretics of the English church; nor do I see that the example of his conversion is like to draw many others after him, because he declared himself so suddenly. If he had believed my counsel, which was to temporize for some longer time, he would have done better; but it is his temper, or rather zeal, that hurried him on." These two letters were first printed in "A third Collection of Papers relating to the present Juncture of Affairs in England," &c. 1689, 4to. So little decency did bishop Parker observe in his compliance with the most unjustifiable measures of the court, that he rendered himself quite contemptible; and his influence and authority in his diocese became so very insignificant, that, when he assembled his clergy, and desired them to subscribe an address of thanks to the king for his declaration of liberty of conscience, he could only prevail with one clergyman to concur with him in it. The last effort which he made to serve the views of the court, was by publishing "Reasons for abrogating the Test, &c." 1688, 4to. in which he endeavoured to palliate, or represent in false colours, the popish doctrine of transubstantiation, and likewise took great pains to excuse, and explain away, the shameful idolatry practised in the church of Rome. To this piece various able answers soon appeared, and, among others, one by Dr. Burnet, who observes, that Parker's book "raised such a disgust at him, even in those that had been formerly but too much influenced by him, that, when he could not help seeing that, he sunk upon it." "I was desired," says he, "to answer his book with the severity that it deserved; and I did it with an acrimony of style, that nothing but such a time and such a man, could in any sort excuse." At length, the shame and vexation which he felt at being despised by all good men, brought on him a distemper, of which he died unlamented, at the president's apartments in Magdalen-college, in March 1687-8, when he was about forty-eight years of age.

Bishop Burnet's character of him is, that "he was a man of no judgment, and of as little virtue; and as to religion rather impious. He was covetous and ambitious; and seemed to have no other sense of religion but as a political interest, and a subject of party and faction. He seldom came to prayers, or to any exercise of devotion; and was so lifted up with pride, that he was become insufferable to all that came near him." After his death, a piece was published, said to be taken from his manuscripts, and entitled, "A Discourse sent to the late King James, to persuade him to embrace the Protestant Religion; with a Letter to the same Purpose," 1690, 4to. and he left behind him a History of his own Times, in Latin, which was published in 1726, under the title of "Reverendi admodum in Christo Patris Samuelis Parkeri, &c. de Rebus sui Temporis Commentariorum Libri quatuor, &c." 8vo. of which two English versions afterwards appeared.

Our prelate had a son, of his own name, who was a man of learning, and after the revolution adhered to the principles of the non-jurors. He was the author of, 1. An English translation of Tully's five Books *de Finibus*, or moral Ends, 1702, 8vo. 2. An Abridgment of the Ecclesiastical Histories of Eusebius, Socrates, Sozomen,

and Theodoret, 1729, 4to. 3. Bibliotheca Biblica; or, a Commentary on the five Books of Moses, extracted chiefly from the Fathers, 4to. &c. *Gen. Biog.*

PARKER's BA'Y, a bay on the fourth coast of Jamaica, a little to the south of Palmetto Point.

PARKER's CREEK, a river of Maryland, which runs into the Chesapeake in lat. 38. 52. N. lon. 76. 31. W.

PARKER's ISLAND, an island of North America, in the Chesapeake, near the coast of Maryland: fifteen miles south of Annapolis. Lat. 38. 53. N. lon. 76. 41. W.

PARKER's ISLAND, or RUSKOHEGAN, an island on the coast of Maine, in the mouth of the Kennebeck.

PARKER's RIVER, a river of North America, which takes its rise in Boxford, in the Massachusetts, and, pursuing a variable course, at length wanders through the marshes, and enters Plum-island-bound by a mouth about a quarter of a mile wide. It is richly stored with fish; and is navigable for coasting-vessels to the head of the tide, but obstructed by two bridges.

PARKER's TOWN, a town of Kent county, in Vermont, having 100 inhabitants.

PARKGATE, a village and sea-port in the county of Chester, on the north-east coast of the river Dee, from whence packets sail to Ireland: twelve miles north-west of Chester, and 193 north-north-west of London. Lat. 53. 21. N. lon. 2. 3. W.

PARKHURST (John), a learned and pious divine of the church of England was the second son of John Parkhurst, esq. of Cateby in Northamptonshire, where he was born in June 1728. He was educated in grammar-learning at the school of Rugby in Warwickshire. Being a younger son, he was intended for the church; and entered of Clare-hall, Cambridge, where his application and improvement were highly commendable. He proceeded B. A. in 1748; M. A. in 1752; and was many years fellow of his college. Soon after he had entered into holy orders, by the death of his elder brother he became heir to a very considerable estate; though, as his father was still living, it was some time before he came into the full possession of it. When, however, it descended to him at the death of his father, his accession of fortune produced no change in his manners or pursuits. He still continued to cultivate the studies becoming the clerical profession, paying particular attention to that of the original languages of the Jewish and Christian scriptures. From his family-connexions, as well as from his learning and piety, he might have reasonably looked forward to preferment in the church; but he never obtained any. This circumstance some have attributed to his being considered as a disciple of Hutchinson, from his partiality for the writings of that singular character. But might not his fortune, which placed him above the want of preferment, be the reason why none was conferred upon him? Besides, he was so attached to retirement, and a life of close and intense study, that he had no inclination to seek after preferment. Yet he took pleasure in the exercise of the clerical duty, and for a long time officiated in the capacity of curate, with exemplary zeal and diligence, but without any salary, in his own chapel at Cateby, which, after the demolition of the church of the nunnery there, served as a parish-church. When some years afterwards he became possessed of the right of presentation to a living, he considered church-patronage as a trust, rather than a property; and, instead of taking it himself, he bestowed it on a gentleman known to him only by character, from no motive but a persuasion that he would faithfully discharge the duties of his office. The living referred to was Epfom, and the person benefited, the late Rev. Jonathan Boucher.

In the year 1754, Mr. Parkhurst married a lady who brought him a daughter and two sons; and after her death he took a second wife in 1761, by whom he had one daughter, who had a passion for classical learning, and

arrived at a degree of perfection in it which is rarely met with in the female world. He had begun his career of authorship in the year 1753, by publishing "A Friendly Address to the Reverend Mr. John Wesley, in Relation to a principal Doctrine maintained by him and his Assistants," which has had the fate of most controversial treatises, that of being forgotten or uninteresting after the period when it made its appearance. Our author's next work was the result of much labour and application; and was given to the public in 1762, under the title of "An Hebrew and English Lexicon, without Points; to which is added, a methodical Hebrew Grammar, without Points, adapted to the Use of Learners." Independently of numerous etymological and philosophical disquisitions which occur in it, and which are tinged by the author's peculiar opinions, this performance reflects great credit on his learning and patient enquiry; and it deserves to be recommended, as affording valuable assistance to the biblical student in forming an acquaintance with the Hebrew Scriptures. That such was the general opinion of its merits, may be concluded from its favourable reception by the learned world, and the encouragement which was thus afforded the author to correct and improve it. In 1778, he published a second edition of this Lexicon, considerably enlarged; and a third in 1792. In the year 1769, he published "A Greek and English Lexicon to the New Testament; to which is prefixed a plain and easy Greek Grammar." Of this work a second edition made its appearance in 1794; and so desirous was the author of rendering his literary labours more generally useful, that he continued to revise, correct, enlarge, and improve, both his lexicons, till within a few weeks of his death. It was his intention to give new editions of them in octavo, with his last corrections; and he had completed the copies, and received the first proof-sheet of the Greek Lexicon from the press, when the all-wise Disposer of events called him to himself. The subsequent task of editing them devolved on his youngest daughter, the wife of the Rev. Joseph Thomas, to whose qualifications for such an undertaking we have alluded above. They have since been published, each in one large octavo volume. In the year 1787, Mr. Parkhurst published "The Divinity and Pre-existence of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, demonstrated from Scripture; in Answer to the first Section of Dr. Priestley's Introduction to the History of early Opinions concerning Jesus Christ; together with Strictures on some other Parts of the Work, and a Postscript relating to a late Publication of Mr. Gilbert Wakefield."

Mr. Parkhurst died, after a painful and lingering illness of ten months, on the 21st of February, 1797, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, at Epfom in Surrey, where he had resided during the latter part of his days. Throughout the whole of his life he was a most assiduous student: for many years it was his constant practice to rise at five o'clock, and, in winter, to light his own fire. He was always of an infirm and sickly habit of body; yet he was enabled to lead such a remarkably studious and sedentary life, even to an advanced age, by strict temperance and a careful regimen. He also gave less of his time to the ordinary interruptions of life, than is common with most persons in his circumstances. Though he resided in a hospitable, friendly, and pleasant, neighbourhood, he visited little; alleging that such a course of life neither suited his temper, his health, nor his studies. Yet his manners were sociable; and his conversation was always instructive, and often delightful. Like many other men of weak and sickly constitutions, Mr. Parkhurst was naturally irritable, warm, and earnest in his resentments; but he effectually subdued this temper by an attention to the injunctions of religion, and passed through a long life in peace and harmony with all around him, respected by men of learning, beloved by his friends, and highly honoured by his family. *Gent. Mag.* April 1797, and July 1800. *Monthly Mag.* July 1800. *Ency. Brit.*

PARKI,

PARKI, a town of Bengal: thirty-two miles north of Ramgur.

PARKINSON (John), a celebrated old English herbalist, was born in 1567, and bred up as a London apothecary. He is mentioned by his contemporaries as a man of eminence in his profession, and was at length appointed apothecary to king James I. Charles I. afterwards conferred upon him the title of *Botanicus Regius Primarius*. A great share of his attention, during a long life, was devoted to the study of plants. He had a garden well stored with rarities, and he bestowed equal notice upon the curiosities of the flower-garden, in all their luxuriant Proteus-like varieties, and on the native productions of his own and other countries, embracing their literary history, as well as their practical investigation.

His first publication was his "*Paradisi in Sole Paradisus terrestris*; or, a choice Garden of all Sorts of rarest Flowers, &c. to which is annexed a Kitchen Garden, &c." This was printed at London, anno 1629, in a folio of 612 pages. A second edition, "much corrected and enlarged," appeared in 1656, after the decease of the author. Both editions are dedicated "to the Queen's most excellent Majesty," which could hardly have been, as Dr. Pulteney supposed, Queen Elizabeth; but rather the Queen of Charles I. About a thousand plants, either species or varieties, are described in this book, of which 780 are figured in wood-cuts, partly copied from Clusius and Lobel, partly original, but all of them coarse and stiff, though sometimes expressive. Numerous remarks are interspersed, respecting the botanical history or medical virtues of the plants, as well as their culture; but the latter subject is, for the most part, given in the introductory chapters, which display no small degree of intelligence and experience. This book affords a very correct and a very respectable idea of the gardens of our ancestors at the time it was written; and has been considered, by the learned authors of the *Hortus Kewensis*, unequivocal authority as to the time when any particular species was introduced or cultivated among us. The florist and the kitchen-gardener will find some productions recorded which have since disappeared; and, though our kitchen-gardens had not arrived at such luxuriant perfection or variety as they afterwards attained in king William's days, and have since preserved, there is reason to think the science of horticulture declined considerably after the time of Parkinson, previous to its restoration at the end of the 17th century. As to the botanic garden, Dr. Pulteney remarks, from an investigation of the *Paradisi Terrestris*, that "intertropical productions had, at this period, been but sparingly imported. The real stove-plants are very rare throughout the book. There are some American species, and particularly from Virginia, as being a part of that continent with which England had the most frequent intercourse. But the principal productions of the English gardens were exotic European and Grecian plants, some Asiatic, and a few from the northern coasts of Africa." It is no small praise to the work before us, that the late Mr. Curtis held it in particular estimation. He always cites it in his *Magazine* with peculiar pleasure and respect; giving many a specimen of the old writer's amusing quaintness, whilst he enriches us with his information.

In 1640 our author published his principal work, the "*Theatrum Botanicum*; or Theatre of Plants, or an Herbal of large extent; &c." This is a ponderous folio of 1746 pages, with innumerable wood-cuts. This work and the Herbal of Gerard were the two main pillars of botany in England till the time of Ray, who indeed gave them fresh importance by his continual reference to their contents. These volumes were dispersed throughout the country, one or other, or both, being the inexhaustible resource of all who had any love for plants, or any interest in enquiring into their qualities. The benevolent country divine, the lady of the manor, the village-doctor, and the humble herb-gatherer employed in the service of

all the rest, consulted Gerard or Parkinson, as they would have consulted their Bibles, and with little less implicit confidence. Of these two writers it is justly observed, that Parkinson was by far the most original and the most copious; but, his cuts being of vastly inferior merit to those admirable ones, prepared for Conrad Gesner, with which Gerard had the means of adorning his publication, the latter has greatly prevailed in popularity, as a book of reference. It is indeed chiefly for the figures that we now cite these works. Nice distinctions of species, or any discrimination between species and varieties, are not to be expected; still less, any ideas of classification or scientific arrangement worthy a moment's consideration. Parkinson is much more original than Gerard in his descriptions, and more particular in his indications of the places of growth; he is also very learned and critical in his synonymy, and, above all, in the medical part of his subject. It is not to be wondered at if these great works contain some hundreds of repetitions, when we consider how obscurely many plants had been described and figured by previous authors; inasmuch that it was, in many cases, next to impossible to discover whether a given plant had been described before. Parkinson, however, is entitled to superior praise on this head, having taken all possible pains to avoid such mistakes, by his deep study of synonyms. Some papers of Lobel are said to have fallen into the hands of Parkinson, after the death of the former which proved of use to his undertaking; but it does not appear that he implicitly confided in such, any more than in previously-printed authorities, without a due investigation; and therefore they became in some measure his own.

The time of Parkinson's decease is not known; but he appears to have been living when his Herbal was published, in 1640, at which period he was, if Dr. Pulteney's date of his birth be correct, 73 years old. Nothing is recorded of his family. Some copies of his *Paradisus* have an engraved portrait of the author, done in his 62d year, and there is a small oval one in the title-page of his Herbal. *Pulteney's Sketches of Botany in England.*

PARKINSONIA, *f.* [so named by Plumier, in memory of the subject of the preceding article.] In botany, a genus of the class decandria, order monogynia, natural order of lomentaceæ, (leguminosæ, *Juss.*) Generic Characters—Calyx: perianthium one-leaved; at the base bell-shaped flattish, permanent; border five-parted; segments lanceolate-ovate, acute, coloured, reflex, almost equal, deciduous. Corolla: petals five, with claws, almost equal, spreading very much, ovate; the lowest kidney-form; claw upright, very long. Stamina: filaments ten, awl-shaped, villose below, declined. Antheræ oblong, incumbent. Pistillum: germen round, long, declined; style filiform, rising, the length of the stamens; stigma blunt. Pericarpium: legume very long, round, swelling over the seeds, (whence it is necklace-form,) acuminate. Seeds several, one to each joint of the legume, oblong, subcylindric, blunt.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-cleft; petal five, ovate; the lowest kidney-form; style none; legume necklace-form.

Parkinsonia aculeata, or prickly parkinsonia, a single species. It is a small tree, with a trunk ten or twelve feet high, unarmed, even: branches long, subdivided, flexuose, prickly. Leaves alternate, in fours from the same bud, pinnate, very long, linear; leaflets extremely small, on very short petioles, ovate, smooth. Racemes terminating and axillary, solitary, shorter than the leaves, erect, eight to ten, many-flowered. Flowers alternate, scattered, yellow, on long peduncles; calyx five-leaved, inserted into a bell-shaped receptacle: four of the petals ovate, with short claws; the fifth or uppermost as it were pedicelled, roundish, with blood-red streaks at the base: all waved and curled; antheræ purple: seeds brown, smooth.

Jacquin describes it as a very elegant tree, with the bark both of trunk and branches remaining a long time green

green and shining, but, when the tree grows old, becoming brownish and streaked. The wood is white. The prickles are solitary, awl-shaped, subaxillary, acuminate, slightly recurved, four lines in length; on the older branches frequently by threes, the middle one very strong, and nine lines in length. Leaves shining, three, four, or five, from the same axil, on a mid-rib a foot long, broad and flattened. Leaflets oblong, numerous. Racemes loose, simple, smooth, containing about ten flowers; which smell very sweet, and are yellow with the uppermost petal variegated at the base with scarlet spots. Legumes yellowish brown, containing from one to six shining seeds. Parkinsonia seems to be distinguished from *Poinciana*, Barbadoes flower-fence, merely by the equality of the calycine segments. These two trees sown very thick make most beautiful hedges. Parkinsonia flowers the first year from seed, and grows very fast. In Jamaica, it is called *Jerusalem thorn*. It was first introduced there from the main, but now grows wild in many parts and in the other islands of the West Indies, where it was originally cultivated for inclosures. It seldom rises above eight feet in height, and is well supplied with strong thorns on every part. The branches are flexible and small, and the trunk seldom grows to any considerable thickness. The French, in the West Indies, call it *genet épineux*, way-thorn, or furze. It flowers several times in the year, and at the same time bears ripe fruit. Mr. Miller cultivated it here in 1739. He gives it the height of twenty feet, which is nearly twice as much as authors of the best credit attribute to it. It bears, says he, long slender bunches of yellow flowers, hanging down like those of Laburnum: they perfume the air to a considerable distance, for which reason the inhabitants of the West Indies plant them about their houses.

It is propagated by seeds, which should be sown in small pots filled with light fresh earth early in the spring, and the pots must be plunged into a hot-bed of tanner's bark, where, in three weeks or a month's time, the plants will come up, when they should be kept clear from weeds, and frequently refreshed with a little water. In a little time these plants will be fit to transplant, which should be done very carefully, so as not to injure their roots. They must be each planted into a separate half-penny-pot filled with light fresh earth, and then plunged into the hot-bed again, observing to stir up the tan; and, if it has lost its heat, there should be some fresh tan added to renew it. Then shade the plants from the heat of the sun, until they have taken new root; after which time they should have fresh air admitted to them every day, in proportion to the warmth of the season. With this management they will grow so fast, as to fill the pots with their roots by the beginning of July, at which time they should be shifted into pots a little larger than the former, and plunged again into the bark-bed to forward their taking new root; after which it will be the best way to inure them by degrees to bear the open air, that they may be hardened before winter; for, if they are kept too warm in winter, the plants will decay before the next spring. "The only method (says Miller) by which I have succeeded in keeping these plants through the winter, was by hardening them in July and August to bear the open air; and in September I placed them on shelves in the dry stove, at the greatest distance from the fire, so that they were in a very temperate warmth; and there they retained their leaves all the winter, and continued in health, when those which were placed in a warmer situation, as also those in the green-house, were entirely destroyed; but even these seldom survived the second winter. Jacquin observes, that the seeds continue fertile several years, and germinate readily in the European stoves; that the plants grow luxuriantly to three feet in height the first year, but seldom live through the winter, or, if they do, they die without flowering the second summer. I have not heard that Parkinsonia has ever flowered in Europe."

PAR'KOW, a town of Austrian Poland, in Galicia: thirty miles north-north-west of Chelm.

PAR'KSTEIN, a town of Bavaria, in the principality of Sulzbach: seventeen miles north-east of Sulzbach, and sixteen north of Nabburg.

PAR'LAGOW, a town of Hindoostan, in Candéish: five miles east of Barawnay.

PAR'LANCE, *f.* [from *parle*.] Conversation; talk. *A modern word*.—In common *parlance*, when you speak of criminal actions, no man was ever understood to mean the prosecution of a crime, but the crime itself. *British Critic*, 1793.

PAR'LASCA, a town of Italy: five miles north of Como.

To PAR'LE, *v. n.* [*parler*, Fr.] To talk; to converse; to discuss any thing orally.—Their purpose is to *parle*, to court, and dance. *Shakespeare*.—Knut, finding himself too weak, began to *parle*. *Milton's Hist. of Eng.*

We came to *parle* of the publique weale,
Confirming our quarrell with maine and might,
With swords and no words we tried our appeale,
Instead of reason declaring our zeale. *Mir. for Mag.*

PAR'LE, *f.* Conversation; talk; oral treaty; oral discussion of any thing.—Our trumpet call'd you to this general *parle*. *Shakespeare*.

Why meet we thus, like wrangling advocates,
To urge the justice of our cause with words?
I hate this *parle*; 'tis tame: if we must meet,
Give me my arms.

Roue's Amb. Step-mother.

To PAR'LEY, *v. n.* [*parler*, Fr.] To treat by word of mouth; to talk; to discuss any thing orally. It is much used in war for a meeting of enemies to talk.—A Turk desired the captain to send some with whom they might more conveniently *parley*. *Knolles*.—He *parleys* with her a while, as imagining she would advise him to proceed. *Broom*.

PAR'LEY, *f.* Oral treaty; talk; conference; discussion by word of mouth.—Let us resolve never to have any *parley* with our lusts. *Calamy*.

Force never yet a generous heart did gain;
We yield on *parley*, but are storm'd in vain. *Dryden*.

Yet, when some better-fated youth
Shall with his amorous *parley* move thee,

Reflect one moment on his truth,

Who, dying thus, persists to love thee.

Prior.

PAR'LIAMENT, *f.* [*parliamentum*, low Latin; *parlement*, Fr. from *parler*, to discourse.] In England, is the assembly of the king and three estates of the realm; namely, the lords spiritual, the lords temporal, and commons, for the debating of matters touching the common-wealth, especially the making and correcting of laws; which assembly or court is, of all others, the highest, and of greatest authority. *Cowel*.—The true use of *parliaments* is very excellent; to be often called, and continued as long as is necessary. *Bacon*.

The king is fled to London,
To call a present court of *parliament*. *Shakespeare*.

The origin or first institution of parliaments is one of those matters which lie so far hidden in the dark ages of antiquity, that the tracing of it out is a thing equally difficult and uncertain. The word *parliament* itself (or *colloquium*, as some of our historians translate it) is, comparatively, of modern date; derived from the French, and signifying "the place where they met and conferred together." It was first applied to general assemblies of the states under Louis VII. in France, about the middle of the 12th century. But it is certain, that long before the introduction of the Norman language into England, all matters of importance were debated and settled in the great councils of the realm. A practice which seems to have been universal among the northern nations, particularly the Germans; and carried by them into all the countries

countries of Europe, which they overran at the dissolution of the Roman empire.

In England, however, this general council hath been held immemorially, under the several names of *michel-synoth*, or great council; *michel-gemote*, or great meeting; and more frequently *witena-gemote*, or meeting of wise men. We have instances of its meeting to order the affairs of the kingdom, to make new laws, and to amend the old, or, as Fleta expresses it, *novis injuriis emerfis nova constituere remedia*, so early as the reign of Ina king of the West Saxons, Offa king of the Mercians, and Ethelbert king of Kent, in the several realms of the heptarchy. And after their union, the Mirror informs us, that king Alfred ordained for a perpetual usage, that these councils should meet twice in the year, or oftener if need be, to treat of the government of God's people; how they should keep themselves from sin, should live in quiet, and should receive right. Our succeeding Saxon and Danish monarchs held frequent councils of this sort, as appears from the respective codes of laws; the titles whereof usually speak them to be enacted, either by the king with the advice of his *witena-gemote*, or wise men; or by those sages with the advice of the king; or, lastly, by them both together.

There is also no doubt but these great councils were occasionally held under the first princes of the Norman line. Glanvil, who wrote in the reign of Henry II. speaking of the particular amount of an amercement in the sheriff's court, says, it had never yet been ascertained by the *general assize*, or assembly, but was left to the custom of particular counties. Here the general assize is spoken of as a meeting well known, and its statutes or decisions are put in a manifest contradistinction to custom, or to the common law. And in Edward III's time, an act of parliament, made in the reign of William the Conqueror, was pleaded in the case of the abbey of St. Edmund's Bury, and judicially allowed by the court.

Hence it indisputably appears, that parliaments, or general councils, are coeval with the kingdom itself. How those parliaments were constituted and composed, is another question, which has been matter of great dispute among our learned antiquarians; and particularly, whether the commons were summoned at all; or, if summoned, at what period they began to form a distinct assembly. But, without entering into controversies of this sort, it may be sufficient to observe, that it is generally agreed, that, in the main, the constitution of parliament, as it now stands, was marked out so long ago as the 17th year of king John, A.D. 1215, in the Great Charter granted by that prince; wherein he promises to summon all archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls, and greater barons, personally; and all other tenants in chief under the crown, by the sheriff and bailiffs; to meet at a certain place, with 40 days' notice, to assess aids and scutages when necessary. And this constitution has subsisted in fact at least from the year 1266, 49 Henry III. there being still extant writs of that date, to summon knights, citizens, and burgesses, to parliament. We proceed therefore to inquire wherein consists this constitution of parliament, as it now stands, and has stood for the space of at least 500 years.

The parliament is regularly to be summoned by the king's writ or letter, issued out of chancery by advice of the privy council, at least 40 days before it begins to sit. It is a branch of the royal prerogative, that no parliament can be convened by its own authority, or by the authority of any except the king alone. Nor is it an exception to this rule, that, by some modern statutes, on the demise of a king or queen, if there be then no parliament in being, the last parliament revives, and is to sit again for six months, unless dissolved by the successor: for this revived parliament must have been originally summoned by the crown. Indeed, by statute 16 Car. I. c. 1. it was enacted, that, if the king neglected to call a parliament for three years, the *peers* might assemble and

issue out writs for choosing one; and, in case of neglect of the peers, the constituents might meet and elect one themselves. This act, however, was deemed injurious to the royal prerogative, and repealed by statute 16 Car. II. c. 1.

There are, it must be acknowledged, two capital exceptions to this rule; but they were justifiable on a principle of necessity, that supercedes all law. The convention-parliament, that restored king Charles II. met above a month before his return; the lords by their own authority, and the commons in pursuance of writs issued in the name of the *keepers of the liberty of England* by the authority of parliament; and this parliament sat full seven months after the restoration, and enacted many laws still in force. But the first thing done after the king's return, was to pass an act declaring this to be a good parliament, notwithstanding the defects of the king's writs. And it was thought farther necessary to confirm its acts in the next parliament, by 13 Car. II. cap. 7. and cap. 14. The other exception occurs at the time of the revolution, A.D. 1688, when the lords and commons by their own authority, and upon the summons of the prince of Orange (afterwards king William), met in a convention, and disposed of the crown and kingdom. The throne at this time was vacant by the abdication of king James II. and it was declared by W. & M. stat. 1. cap. 1. that this Convention was really the two houses of parliament, notwithstanding the want of writs, and other defects of form. So that, though we have these two capital exceptions, which were justifiable only on a principle of necessity (and each of which, by the way, induced a revolution in the government), the rule laid down is in general certain, that the king only can convoke a parliament.

'And this, by the ancient statutes of the realm, he is bound to do "every year, or oftener if need be." Not that he is, or ever was, obliged by these statutes to call a new parliament every year; but only to permit a parliament to sit annually for the redress of grievances, and dispatch of business, "if need be." These last words are so loose and vague, that such of our monarchs as were inclined to govern without parliaments, neglected the convoking them, sometimes for a very considerable period, under pretence that there was no need of them. But, to remedy this, by the stat. 16 Car. II. c. 1. it is enacted, that the sitting and holding of parliaments shall not be intermitted above three years at the most. And by the stat. 1 W. & M. st. 2. c. 2. it is declared to be one of the rights of the people, that for redress of all grievances, and for the amending, strengthening, and preserving, the laws, parliaments ought to be "held frequently." And this indefinite frequency is again reduced to a certainty by stat. 6 W. & M. c. 2. which enacts, as the statute of Charles II. had done before, that a new parliament shall be called within three years after the determination of the former. But, as the mutiny-act, and certain acts relating to the revenue, are passed for one year only, the statutes enforcing the meeting of parliament are now of little avail; for the parliament must necessarily be summoned, for the dispatch of business, once every year.

The constituent parts of a parliament are—the king's majesty, sitting there in his royal political capacity; and the three estates of the realm; the lords spiritual, the lords temporal (who sit together with the king in one house), and the commons, who sit by themselves in another. And the king and these three estates together form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is said to be *caput, principium, et finis*. For, upon their coming together, the king meets them, either in person or by representation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he also has alone the power of dissolving them. 4 *Infl.* 6. 1 *Comm.* c. 2. p. 153.

On holding a new parliament, the king, the first day, sits in the upper house, and, by himself or the lord chancellor, shows the reason of their meeting; then the commons

mons are commanded to choose their Speaker; which done, two or three days afterwards he is presented to the king, and, after some speeches, is allowed, and sent down to the house of commons; when the business of parliament proceeds. 12 Rep. 115.

A parliament may be holden at any place the king shall assign. 1 Comm. p. 153.

The constituent parts of parliament, next in order, are the *spiritual lords*. These consist of two archbishops, and twenty-four bishops; and, at the dissolution of monasteries by Henry VIII. they consisted likewise of twenty-six mitred abbots, and two priors: a very considerable body, and in those times equal to half the number of the temporal nobility. *Co. Litt.* 97. See 4 *Inst.* 1. by which it appears, that the number of the temporal nobility was one hundred and six. All these hold, or are supposed to hold, certain ancient baronies under the king. But, though these lords spiritual are, in the eye of the law, a distinct estate from the lords temporal, and are so distinguished in most of our acts of parliament, yet in practice they are usually blended together under the one name of the *lords*; and it has been doubted, by Dyer, Selden, and other eminent lawyers, whether the lords spiritual make in themselves a distinct estate of the realm. Whitelock, in his Book on Parliaments, contends, that the lords spiritual and temporal make but one estate. The want of a separate assembly and a separate vote would seem to warrant this opinion; but, in the eye of the law, the estates are certainly distinct, though a singular record upon our statute-books proves the distinction to be merely nominal. The Act of Uniformity, 1 Eliz. chap. 2. was passed with the dissent of all the bishops, and therefore the style of "lords spiritual" is omitted throughout the whole. (Gibson's Codex, 268.) Other instances of bills passing the house of lords, though every lord spiritual voted against them, are cited by Selden and Coke, (Baronage, c. 6. 2 *Inst.* 585, 6, 7.) It is also a curious fact, that in the early part of the reign of Henry VIII. the judges gave it as their opinion, that the king might hold a parliament without any spiritual lords; (Keilwey's Reports, 184.) Their opinion was fully acted up to in a subsequent reign: for the first ten or twelve years no bishops sat in the parliaments of Charles II. in fact, no bishops were summoned to his two first parliaments, nor until after the repeal of the 16th of Charles I. c. 27. which was repealed by virtue of the 13th Car. II. st. 1. c. 2.

The *lords temporal* consist of all the hereditary peers of the realm, by whatever title of nobility distinguished; dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, or barons. Some of these sit by *descent*, as do all ancient peers; some by *creation*, as do all new-made ones; others, since the union with Scotland and Ireland, by *election*; which is the case of the sixteen peers who represent the body of the Scots nobility, and the twenty-eight temporal lords elected for life by the peers of Ireland. The number of lords temporal is indefinite; and may be increased, at will, by the power of the crown; except that, by the union with Ireland, the number of Irish peers is limited, so that by future creation it cannot exceed one hundred.

The *Commons* consist of the knights, citizens, and burgesses, who are the representatives, in the house of commons, of the various counties, cities, and boroughs, in the united kingdom. The counties are represented by *knights*, elected by the proprietors of lands: the cities and boroughs are represented by *citizens* and *burgesses*, chosen by the mercantile part, or trading interest, of the nation.

The number of English representatives is 513, of Scotch 45, of Irish 100; in all, 658. And every member, though chosen by one particular district, when elected and returned serves for the whole realm; and therefore he is not bound to consult with, or take the advice of, his constituents upon any particular point, unless he himself thinks it proper or prudent so to do. 1 Comm. 157, 9.

It is not to be understood that the number of members

in the house of commons has been always the same; for, since the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII. that number has been more than doubled. In his first parliament, the house consisted only of 298 members: 360 have since been added by acts of parliament, or by the king's charter, either creating new or reviving old boroughs. Under the provisions of the acts 27 Hen. VIII. c. 26. § 29. and 34, 35, Hen. VIII. c. 26. § 27. there were added 29 for Wales; 12 precisely by the first act for the counties, and 12 under the provision of the latter act for the boroughs. Two for the county and two for the city of Chester were added by stat. 34, 35, Hen. VIII. c. 13. Two for the county and two for the city of Durham, by stat. 25 Car. II. c. 9. 45 for Scotland by the Acts of Union with that kingdom; and 100 for Ireland, by the Acts of Union with that kingdom; and the remainder by charter.

The power and jurisdiction of parliament, thus composed, and considered as an aggregate body, is so transcendent, says sir Edward Coke, (4 *Inst.* 36.) that it cannot be confined, either for causes or persons, within any bounds. And of this high court he adds, it may be truly said, *Si antiquitatem spectes, est vetustissima; si dignitatem, est honoratissima; si jurisdictionem, est capacissima.* It hath sovereign and uncontrollable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, restraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding, of laws, concerning matters of all possible denominations, ecclesiastical or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal; this being the place where that absolute despotic power, which must in all governments reside somewhere, is entrusted by the constitution of these kingdoms. All mischiefs and grievances, operations and remedies, that transcend the ordinary course of the laws, are within the reach of this extraordinary tribunal. It can regulate or new-model the succession to the crown; as was done in the reign of Henry VIII. and William III. It can alter the established religion of the land; as was done, in a variety of instances, in the reigns of king Henry VIII. and his three children. It can change and create afresh even the constitution of the kingdom and of parliaments themselves; as was done by the act of union, and the several statutes for triennial and septennial elections. It can, in short, do every thing that is not naturally impossible; and therefore some have not scrupled to call its power, by a figure rather too bold, the *omnipotence of parliament*. So that, as Blackstone observes, it is a matter most essential to the liberties of this kingdom, that such members be delegated to this important trust as are most eminent for their probity, their fortitude, and their knowledge; for it was a known apophthegm of the great lord-treasurer Burleigh, "That England could never be ruined but by a parliament;" and as sir Matthew Hale observes, this being the highest and greatest court, over which none other can have jurisdiction in the kingdom, if by any means a misgovernment should any way fall upon it, the subjects of this kingdom are left without all manner of remedy.

In order to prevent the mischief that might arise from reposing such extensive authority with incompetent persons, it is provided by the custom and law of parliament, that no one shall sit or vote in either house, unless he be twenty-one years of age. 7 & 8 Will. III. c. 25. No member shall sit or vote in either house, till he hath, in the presence of the house, taken the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration, and subscribed and repeated the declaration against transubstantiation, and invocation of saints, and the sacrifice of the mass. 30 Car. II. stat. 2. 1 Geo. I. c. 13. 6 Geo. III. c. 23. No alien, even though he be naturalized, shall be capable of being a member of either house of parliament. 12 & 13 Will. III. c. 2. As to the qualifications of members of the house of commons, besides the above qualifications, it is declared and required by the law of parliament or special statutes, that they must not be any of the twelve judges, because they sit in the lords' house; nor of the clergy, because they sit in convocation; nor persons attainted of treason

treason or felony, because they are unfit to sit any-where: that sheriffs of counties, and mayors and bailiffs of boroughs, are not eligible in their respective jurisdictions, as being returning officers: that no persons concerned in the management of any duties or taxes created since 1692, except the commissioners of the treasury; nor any of the officers following, viz. commissioners of prizes, transports, sick and wounded, wine-licences, navy and victualling; secretaries or receivers of prizes, comptrollers of the army-accounts, agents for regiments, governors of plantations and their deputies, officers of Minorca or Gibraltar, officers of the excise and customs, clerks or deputies in the several offices of the treasury, exchequer, navy, victualling, admiralty, pay of the army or navy, secretaries of state, salt, stamps, appeals, wine-licences, hackney-coaches, hawkers and pedlars; nor any persons that hold any new office under the crown, created since 1705, are capable of being elected members. That no person having a pension under the crown, during pleasure or for any term of years, is capable of being elected, ("which," says the Hyp-Doctor, Feb. 26, 1731, "was very modestly telling the king, that those whom he judged his best friends deserved to be turned out of the house;") that, if any member accepts an office under the crown, except an officer in the army or navy accepting a new commission, he vacates his seat, but is capable of being re-elected; and moreover, persons in particular circumstances have forfeited the right of choice, and have been declared ineligible for that parliament by a vote of the house of commons, or for ever by an act of the legislature. By 22 Geo. III. c. 45. contractors are ineligible. It has been also required, in strictness, that all members should be inhabitants of the places for which they are chosen; but this is altogether disregarded and repealed by 14 Geo. III. c. 53.

As for the method of proceeding in elections. When the parliament is summoned, the lord-chancellor (or if a vacancy happens during parliament, the speaker, by order of the house) sends his warrant to the clerk of the crown in chancery; who issues out writs to the sheriff of every county, for the election of all the members to serve for that county, and every city and borough in it. Within three days after the receipt of this writ, the sheriff is to send his precept, under his seal, to the proper returning officers of the cities and boroughs, commanding them to elect their members: and the said returning officers are to proceed to election within eight days from the receipt of the precept, giving four days' notice of the same; and to return the persons chosen, together with the precept, to the sheriff. But elections of knights of the shire must be proceeded to by the sheriffs themselves in person, at the next county-court that shall happen after the delivery of the writ. If this court falls upon the day of delivering the writ, or within six days after, the sheriff may adjourn the court and election to some other time, not longer than sixteen days, nor shorter than ten; but he cannot alter the usual place without consent of the candidates; and, in all such cases, ten days' public notice must be given of the time and place of election. In order to prevent all undue influence, as soon as the time and place of election, in counties or boroughs, are fixed, all soldiers quartered in the place are to remove, at least one day before the election, to the distance of two miles or more, and not to return till one day after the poll is ended. By vote of the house of commons, no lord of parliament, or lord lieutenant of a county, hath any right to interfere in the election of commoners; and by statute, the lord warden of the cinque ports shall not recommend any members there. If any officer of the excise, customs, stamps, or other branches of the revenue, presumes to intermeddle in elections, by persuading or dissuading any voter, he forfeits 100l. and is disabled to hold any office.

On the day of election, the returning officer first takes an oath against bribery, and for the due execution of his

office; the candidates, also, if required, must swear to their qualifications; and the electors, both in counties and boroughs, are compellable to take the oath of abjuration, and that against bribery and corruption. When the election is closed, the returning officer in boroughs returns his precept to the sheriff with the persons elected by the majority: and the sheriff returns the whole, together with the writ for the county, and the knights elected, to the clerk of the crown in chancery, before the day of meeting, if it be a new parliament; or within fourteen days after the election, if it be an occasional vacancy; under penalty of 500l. If the sheriff does not return such knights only as are duly elected, he forfeits, by the old statutes of Henry VI. 100l. and the returning officer in boroughs, for a like false return, 40l. and they are besides liable to an action, in which double damages shall be recovered, by the later statutes of king William: and any person bribing the returning officer shall also forfeit 300l. But the members returned by him are the sitting members, until the house of commons, upon petition, shall adjudge the return to be false and illegal.

The lords and commons in their respective houses have power of judicature, and so have both houses together: and in former times, both lords and commons sat together in one house of parliament. The king cannot take notice of any thing said to be done in the house of commons, but by the report of the house; and there is a resolution of the house, on the king's taking notice of a bill in its passage through the house, which they voted to be a *high breach of the privilege of parliament*, and on which they also demanded a conference with the lords. This resolution has not always been acted on, even in the present reign, though it still remains on the journals.

As every court of justice hath laws and customs for its direction, some the civil and canon, some the common law, others their own peculiar laws and customs; so the high court of parliament hath also its own peculiar law, called the *lex et consuetudo parliamenti*; a law which Coke observes is *ab omnibus querenda, a multis ignorata, a paucis cognita*. It will not therefore be expected that we should enter into the examination of this law with any degree of minuteness; since, as the same learned author assures us, it is much better to be learned out of the rolls of parliament and other records, and by precedents and continual experience, than can be expressed by any one man. It will be sufficient to observe, that the whole of the law and custom of parliament has its origin from this one maxim; "That whatever matter arises concerning either house of parliament, ought to be examined, discussed, and adjudged, in that house to which it relates, and not elsewhere." 4 *Inst.* 15. Hence, for instance, the lords will not suffer the commons to interfere in settling the election of a peer of Scotland; the commons will not allow the lords to judge of the election of a burgess; nor will either house permit the subordinate courts of law to examine the merits of either case. But the maxims upon which they proceed, together with the method of proceeding, rest entirely in the breast of the parliament itself; and are not defined and ascertained by any particular stated laws.

The house of lords is a distinct court from the commons, to several purposes: they try criminal causes on impeachments of the commons; and have an original jurisdiction for the trial of peers, upon indictments found by a grand jury: they also try causes upon appeals from the court of chancery, or upon writs of error to reverse judgments in the K. B. &c. And all their decrees are as judgments; and judgments given in parliament may be executed by the lord chancellor. 4 *Inst.* 21. *Finch.* 238. Also the house of commons is a distinct court to many purposes: they examine the right of elections, expel their own members, and commit them to prison, and sometimes other persons, &c. And the book of the clerk of the house of commons is a record. 2 *Inst.* 536. 4 *Inst.* 23. The commons are the grand inquest of the realm; to present public

lic grievances and delinquents to the king and lords, to be punished by them: and any member of the house of commons has the privilege of impeaching the highest lord in the kingdom. *Wood's Inst.* 445.

The *High Court of Parliament* is the supreme court in the kingdom, not only for the making, but also for the execution, of laws; by the trial of great and enormous offenders, whether lords or commoners, in the method of parliamentary impeachment. Acts of parliament to attain particular persons of treason or felony, or to inflict pains and penalties, are new laws made *pro re nata*, and by no means an execution of such as are already in being; but an impeachment before the lords, by the commons of Great Britain, in parliament, is a prosecution of the already known and established law, and has been frequently put in practice; being a presentment to the most high and supreme court of criminal jurisdiction by the most solemn grand inquest of the whole kingdom. 1 *Hal. P. C.* 150. A commoner, it is said by Blackstone, who quotes authorities to prove his position, cannot be impeached before the lords for any capital offence, but only for high misdemeanours: a peer may be impeached for any crime; but it appears that the right of impeaching a commoner even in capital cases, has been claimed and asserted by the lords. See 4 *Comm.* 260. in n.

The privileges of parliament are very large and indefinite; and therefore when, in 31 Hen. VI. the house of lords propounded a question to the judges concerning them, the chief justice, sir John Fortescue, in the name of his brethren, declared, "That they ought not to make answer to that question, for it hath not been used aforetime that the justices shall in anywise determine the privileges of the high court of parliament; for it is so high and mighty in its nature, that it may make law; and that which is law, it may make no law; and the determination and knowledge of that privilege belongs to the lords of parliament, and not to the justices." Seldon's *Baronage*, c. 4.

Inconvenience to the community does undoubtedly arise from these undefined privileges; for how is a man to avoid committing an offence which is not declared to be such by either the common or the statute law? What is called the common law of the land springs out of an early period of our history, the lowest boundary of which, according to Sir Matthew Hale, is the reign of Richard I. But in that reign the house of commons did not exist. It is clear, therefore, that the house cannot claim the power of punishing without trial for what it calls breach of privilege from the *common law*; and it is equally certain that there is no *statute* which confers the power. What right, then, can the house have to say of its own motion, "We will assume and exercise this power, because it is necessary (as was said in the case of the ship-money) for our support, and we are judges of the necessity." It were to be wished (says Dean Swift) the house of commons would form a pandect of their own power and prerogatives, to be confirmed in as solemn a manner as *Magna Charta*. *Free Briton*, Mar. 2, 1731.

There are, however, several privileges of the members of either house, which are sufficiently certain and notorious. These are, privilege of speech, of person, and, before the stat. 10 Geo. III. c. 50. of their domestics, and of their lands and goods. As to the first, privilege of speech, it is declared by the stat. 1. W. & M. ft. 2. c. 2. as one of the liberties of the people, "that the freedom of speech, and debates, and proceedings in parliament, ought not to be impeached, or questioned, in any court or place out of parliament." And this freedom of speech (with other privileges) is particularly demanded of the king in person, by the speaker of the house of commons, at the opening of every new parliament. If any member of either house, however, speak words of offence in a debate, after the debate is over he is called to the bar, where commonly on his knees he

receives a reprimand from the speaker: and, if the offence be great, he is sent to the Tower.

The other privileges, of persons, and heretofore of servants, lands, and goods, are immunities as ancient as Edward the Confessor. And still, to assault by violence a member of either house, or his menial servants, is a high contempt of parliament, and there punished with the utmost severity. It has likewise peculiar penalties annexed to it in the courts of law, by stat. 5 Hen. IV. c. 6. and 11 Hen. VI. c. 11. By this latter statute, assaulting a member coming to or attending in parliament incurs the penalty of double damages. Neither can any member of either house be arrested and taken into custody, unless for some indictable offence, without a breach of the privilege of parliament.

But all other privileges which derogate from the common law in matters of civil right are now at an end, save only as to the freedom of the member's person; which in a peer (by the privilege of peerage) is for ever sacred and inviolable; and in a commoner (by the privilege of parliament) for forty days after every prorogation, and forty days before the next appointed meeting; which is now, in effect, as long as the parliament subsists, its freedom being prorogued for more than four score days at a time. 2 *Lev.* 72. It does not appear that the privilege from arrest is limited to any precise time after a dissolution; but it has been determined by all the judges, that it extends to a *convenient time*. Prynne is of opinion, that it continued for the number of days the member received wages after a dissolution; which were in proportion to the distance between his home and the place where the parliament was held. 4 *Parl. Writs.* 68.

As to all other privileges which obstruct the ordinary course of justice, they were restrained by stats. 12 W. III. c. 3. 2 & 3 Ann. c. 18. 11 Geo. II. c. 24. and totally abolished by stat. 10 Geo. III. c. 50. which enacts, that any suit may at any time be brought against any peer or member of parliament, their servants, or any other person entitled to privilege of parliament; which shall not be impeached or delayed by pretence of any such privilege, except that the person of a member of the house of commons shall not thereby be subject to any arrest or imprisonment. Likewise, for the benefit of commerce, it is provided by stat. 4 Geo. III. c. 33. that any trader, having privilege of parliament, may be served with legal process for any just debt to the amount of 100l. and, unless he makes satisfaction within two months, it shall be deemed an act of bankruptcy; and that a commission of bankrupt may be issued against such privileged traders in like manner as against any other.

As to the special privileges and claims of *peers*; we may observe, that, by the charter of the forest, confirmed in parliament 9 Hen. III. every lord, spiritual or temporal, summoned to parliament, and passing through the king's forests, may, both in going and returning, kill one or two of the king's deer without warrant. They have also a right to be attended by the judges of the court of king's bench and common pleas, and such of the barons of the exchequer as are of the degree of the coif, or have been made serjeants at law, and likewise by the masters of the court of chancery, for their advice in point of law, &c. The secretaries of state, the attorney and solicitor general, and the rest of the king's counsel, being serjeants, were also used to attend the house of peers, and have, to this day, their regular writs of summons issued out at the beginning of every parliament: but, as many of them have of late years been members of the house of commons, their attendance here is fallen into disuse.

Every peer, by license obtained from the king, may make another lord of parliament his *proxy*, to vote for him in his absence, which no member of the house of commons can do, because he is himself but a proxy for a multitude of other people. Proxies cannot be used in a

committee. No lord shall have more than *two* proxies, (i. e. be a proxy for more than two absent lords.) If a peer, after appointing a proxy, appears personally in parliament, his proxy is revoked and annulled. 4 *Infl.* 13.

By the orders of the house, no proxy shall vote upon a question of "guilty or not guilty:" and a spiritual lord shall only be proxy for a spiritual lord, and a temporal lord for a temporal. Two or more peers may be proxy for one absent peer; but Coke is of opinion, that they cannot vote, unless they all concur. 4 *Infl.* 12. 1 *Wood.* 41.

Whenever the senate shall be seriously disposed to reform whatever may be considered as capable of amendment in its own customs or conduct, we trust the voting by proxy will be done away. It is truly painful to reflect, that noblemen should depute others to carry their voice or vote, for or against a measure, before they have heard its merits discussed, or the arguments which other senators may offer for rejecting it. It is not a little surprising, that a well-constructed mind can consent to pin its faith upon the sleeve of another in any case, much more so in what concerns legislation affecting the lives, liberties, and properties, of their fellow-men.

Each peer has also a right, by leave of the House, when a vote passes contrary to his sentiments, to enter his *dissent* in person, on the journals of the house, with the reasons for such dissent, which is usually styled his *protest*. 1 *Comm.* c. 2. All bills likewise that may, in their consequences, any way affect the right of the peerage, are by the custom of parliament to have their first rise and beginning in the house of peers; and to suffer no changes or amendments in the house of commons.

Considered in its judicial capacity, the house of peers is the supreme court of judicature in the kingdom; having at present no original jurisdiction over causes, but only upon appeals and writs of error; to rectify any injustice or mistake of the law committed by the courts below. But this house has original *criminal* jurisdiction in the cases of *impeachment* by the commons, and of the trial of peers. On appeals and writs of error, the house of peers is the court of last resort, from whose judgment no further appeal is permitted; and every subordinate tribunal must conform to their determinations; but in all dubious cases they refer themselves to the opinions of the judges, who are summoned by writ to advise them; since upon their decision all property must finally depend. 3 *Comm.* c. 4.

As the house of lords seems to be politically constituted for the support of the rights of the crown, so the province of the house of commons is to stand for the preservation of the people's liberties. The commons, in making and repealing laws, have equal power with the lords. It is the ancient indisputable privilege and right of the house of commons, that all grants of subsidies, or parliamentary aids, do begin in their house, and are first bestowed by them; although their grants are not effectual, to all intents and purposes, until they have the assent of the other two branches of the legislature. And so reasonably jealous are the commons of this valuable privilege, that herein they will not suffer the other house to exert any power, except that of rejecting. They will not permit the least alteration or amendment to be made by the lords to the mode of taxing the people by a *money-bill*; under which appellation are included all bills by which money is directed to be raised upon the subject, for any purpose, or in any mode whatsoever; either for the exigencies of government, and collected from the kingdom in general; or for private benefit, and collected in any particular district, as by turnpikes, parish rates, and the like. This rule is even extended to all bills for canals, paving, provision for the poor, and to every bill in which tolls, rates, or duties, are ordered to be collected; and also to all bills in which pecuniary penalties and fines are imposed for offences. 3 *Hut.* 110. In any case where a money-bill is remanded to the commons, all amendments in the mode of taxation are sure to be re-

jected. And, even if the commons desire to agree with the amendment, the form is to reject the bill so amended by the lords, and to bring in a *new bill* containing those amendments, solely for the purpose of preserving the privileges of commons.

In the election of knights, citizens, and burgeses, to represent the counties, cities, and boroughs, of the kingdom, consists the exercise of the democratical part of the British constitution: the *sovereignty of the people* being shown in their choice of their representatives.

To consider, therefore, first, the qualifications of electors of Knights of the Shire, or, as they are more commonly termed, Members for the Counties, in Great Britain. By stats. 8 Hen. VI. c. 7. 10 Hen. VI. c. 2. (amended by stat. 14 Geo. III. c. 58, which made the residence of the electors and the elected in their respective counties, cities, and boroughs, no longer necessary,) the knights of the shire shall be chosen by people, whereof every man shall have freehold to the value of 40s. by the year within the county; which, by subsequent statutes, is to be clear of all charges and deductions, except parliamentary and parochial taxes. The stat. 7 & 8 Will. III. c. 25, requires, that every freeholder shall take an oath, that he is a freeholder of the county, and has freehold lands or hereditaments of the yearly value of 40s. lying at such a place, within the said county, and that he hath not before polled at the election. The voter's evidence of the value must, therefore, be received at the poll; but it is not conclusive, and may be contradicted by other evidence, upon a *scrutiny*, or before a committee.

The knights of shires are the representatives of the landholders or landed interest of the kingdom; their electors must therefore have estates in lands or tenements within the county represented; these estates must be freehold, that is, for term of life at least. This freehold must be of 40s. annual value; because that sum would, at the time of passing the statutes, with proper industry, furnish all the necessaries of life, and render the freeholder, if he pleased, an independent man. 1 *Comm.* 172.

The other less important qualifications of the electors for counties in England and Wales, are—That no person under twenty-one years of age shall be capable of voting for any member. This extends to all sorts of members, as well for boroughs as counties, as does also the next; viz. That no person convicted of perjury, or subornation of perjury, or of having asked or received any bribe, shall be capable of voting in any election. 2 *Geo.* II. c. 24. § 6, 7. That no person shall vote in right of any freehold granted to him *fraudulently*, to qualify him to vote. Fraudulent grants are such as contain an agreement to re-convey, or to defeat the estate granted; which agreements are made void, and the estate is absolutely vested in the person to whom it is so granted. And every person who shall prepare or execute such conveyance, or who shall give his vote under it, shall forfeit 40l. 10 *Ann.* c. 23. § 1. To guard the better against such frauds, it is further provided, that every voter shall have been in the actual possession or receipt of the profits of his freehold, to his own use, for twelve calendar months before; except it came to him by descent, marriage, marriage-settlement, will, or promotion to a benefice or office. That only one person shall be admitted to vote for any one house or tenement; to prevent the splitting of freeholds, and multiplying votes for election-purposes. But this does not extend to cases which arise from operation of law, as devises, descents, &c. As, if an estate should descend to any number of females, the husband of each would have a right to vote, if his interest amounted to 40s. a-year. That no estate shall qualify a voter, unless the *estate* has been, at all events, assessed to some land-tax aid for at least twelve months next before the election; and, for six months before the election, either in the name of the voter, or his tenant, or of the tenant actually occupying the same; but, if he has acquired it by marriage, descent, or other operation of law, in that

case it must have been assessed to the land-tax, within two years before the election, either in the name of the predecessor or person through whom the voter derives his title, or in the name of the tenants of such person, or in the name of the tenant actually occupying the same.

In Ireland, the electors of the knights of the shire must have 40s. a-year freehold in the county: and such freehold must be duly registered.

The right of election in *boroughs* is various; depending entirely on the several charters, customs, and constitutions, of the respective places, which have occasioned infinite disputes. In some measure to prevent this evil, the stat. 7 & 8 Will. III. c. 7, enacted, that the determination of the house of commons, as to the right of election, should bind the returning officer in taking the poll. That statute was enlarged by stat. 2 Geo. II. c. 24. by the 4th section of which, the last determination of the house of commons was declared to be final.

By stat. 3 Geo. III. c. 15. no freeman of any city or borough (other than such as claim by birth, marriage, or servitude) shall be entitled to vote therein, unless he hath been admitted to his freedom twelve calendar months before. This is called the Durham-act, and it was occasioned by the corporation of Durham having, upon the eve of an election, in order to serve one of the candidates, admitted 215 honorary freemen. Some corporations have the power of admitting honorary freemen, viz. persons who, without any previous claim or pretension, are admitted to all the franchises of the corporation. The Durham Act is confined to persons of that description solely. It has frequently been contended, that if honorary freemen are created for the *occasion*, that is, merely for an election-purpose, it is a fraud upon the rights of election; and that, by the common law, as in other cases of fraud, the admission and all the consequences would be null and void; that within the year, by the statute, fraud was presumed; but that, after that time, the statute left the necessity of proving it upon those who imputed it.

No length of possession is required from voters in burgate-tenure boroughs. There are about 29 burgate-tenure boroughs in England. 1 *Dougl.* 224. In these the right of voting is annexed to some tenement, house, or spot of ground upon which a house in ancient times has stood. Any number of these burgate-tenure estates may be purchased by one person, which, at any time before a contested election, may be conveyed to so many of his friends, who would each in consequence have a right to vote.

By stat. 26 Geo. III. c. 100, it is enacted, that in boroughs, in England, where the householders or inhabitants of any description claim to elect, no person shall have a right to vote as such inhabitant, unless he has actually been resident in the borough six months previous to the day on which he tenders his vote. By an Irish act, 35 Geo. III. c. 29. § 55, &c. inhabitants of boroughs in Ireland, claiming to vote, must be registered at the sessions of the county twelve months before the election.

As to the qualifications of persons to be *elected* members of the house of commons; every knight of a shire shall have a clear estate of freehold or copyhold, (or mortgage, if the mortgagee has been seven years in possession,) to the value of 600l. per annum; and every citizen and burgess to the value of 300l. except the eldest sons of peers, and except the members for the two universities. 9 *Ann.* c. 5. But this act does not extend to Scotland or Ireland.

If a vacancy happens by the death, &c. of any member during the sitting of parliament, the speaker may, by order of the house, send his warrant to the clerk of the crown; who thereupon proceeds as in other cases where the warrant is sent by the lord chancellor. And, with regard to a vacancy happening by death or peerage during the prorogation or recess of parliament, the stat. 24 Geo. III. ft. 2. c. 26. which repeals the former statutes upon

this subject, provides, that if, during any recess, any two members give notice to the speaker, by a certificate under their hands, that there is a vacancy by death, or that a writ of summons has issued under the great seal to call up any member to the house of lords, the speaker shall forthwith give notice of it to be inserted in the Gazette; and at the end of fourteen days after such insertion he shall issue his warrant to the clerk of the crown, commanding him to make out a new writ for the election of another member. But this shall not extend to any case where there is a petition depending for such vacant seat; or where the writs for the election of the member so vacating had not been returned fifteen days before the end of the last sitting of the house; or where the new writ cannot issue before the next meeting of the house for the dispatch of business.

The place where the parliament meets is wherever the king pleases: of late it has been in the palace of Westminster, the lords and commons each in a distinct apartment. In the lords' house, the princes of the blood are placed in distinct seats; the great officers of state, dukes, marquises, and bishops, on benches, and the viscounts and barons on others across the house; all according to their order of creation, place, &c. The commons sit promiscuously, forty members constituting a house; only the Speaker has a chair at the upper end, and the clerk and his assistant sit at a table near him.

Each house of parliament has its Speaker. The Speaker of the house of lords, whose office it is to preside there, and manage the formality of business, is the lord chancellor, or keeper of the king's great seal, or any other appointed by the king's commission: and if none be so appointed, the house of lords (it is said) may elect. The Speaker of the house of commons is chosen by the house; but must be approved by the king. And herein the usage of the two houses differs, that the Speaker of the house of commons cannot give his opinion, or argue any question in the house, unless the house is in a committee; or when the house is equally divided, and the casting vote of the Speaker is requisite to determine a question; but the Speaker of the House of Lords, if a Lord of Parliament, may, in all cases speak and argue.

The salary of the Speaker of the House of Commons is now settled at 1500l. a-quarter, or 6000l. a-year, under stat. 30 Geo. III. c. 10. which prohibits his holding any office under the crown during pleasure. Forty members are requisite to make a house of commons for dispatch of business.

When a member of the house of commons speaks, he stands up uncovered, and directs his speech to the Speaker only. If what he says be answered by another, he is not allowed to reply the same day, unless personally alluded to: but when the commons, in order to have a greater freedom of debate, have resolved themselves into a committee of the whole house, every member may speak to a question as often as he thinks necessary.

In the house of lords they vote, beginning at the puisne or lowest baron, and so up orderly to the highest, every one answering, *Content* or *Not content*. In the house of commons they vote by *ayes* and *noes*; and, if it be dubious which are the greater number, the house divides. If the question be about bringing any thing into the house, the *ayes* go out; but, if it be about any thing the house already has, the *noes* go out. In all divisions the Speaker appoints four tellers, two of each opinion. In a committee of the whole house, they *divide* by changing sides, the *ayes* taking the right and the *noes* the left of the chair; and then there are but two tellers.

In the house of commons, the Speaker never votes (unless in committee), except when there is an equality without his casting vote, which in that case creates a majority of the house; but the Speaker of the house of lords has no casting vote, his vote being connected with the rest of the house; and, in the case of an equality, the *Non contents*, or negative voices, have the same effect and operation

operation as if they were in fact a majority. *Lords' Journ.* 25 June, 1661. Hence the order in putting the question, on appeals and writs of error, is this "Is it your lordships' pleasure, that this decree or judgment should be reversed?" for, if the votes are equal, the judgment of the court below is affirmed.

The Speaker of the house of commons is not allowed to persuade or dissuade in passing a bill, only to make a short narrative of it; opening the parts of the bill, so that all may understand it; if any question be upon the bill, he is to explain, but not enter into argument or dispute. When Mr. Speaker desires to speak, he is to be heard without interruption; and, when the Speaker stands up, the member standing up is to sit down: if two stand up to speak to a bill, he who would speak *against* the bill, if it be known, is to be first heard; otherwise he who was first up, which is to be determined by the Speaker.

To bring a bill into the house, if the relief sought by it is of a private nature, it is first necessary to prefer a petition; which must be presented by a member, and usually sets forth the grievance desired to be remedied. This petition (when founded on facts that may be in their nature disputed) is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alleged, and accordingly report it to the house; and then (or, otherwise, upon the mere petition) leave is given to bring in the bill. In public matters, the bill is brought in upon motion made to the house, without any petition at all. Formerly, all bills were drawn in the form of petitions, which were entered upon the parliament-rolls, with the king's answer thereunto subjoined; not in any settled form of words, but as the circumstances of the case required: and at the end of each parliament the judges drew them into the form of a statute, which was entered on the statute-rolls. In the reign of Henry V. to prevent mistakes and abuses, the statutes were drawn up by the judges before the end of the parliament; and, in the reign of Henry VI. bills in the form of acts, according to the modern custom, were first introduced.

Any member may move for a bill to be brought in, except it be for imposing a tax, which is to be done by order of the house; and, leave being granted, the person making the motion, and those who second it, are ordered to prepare and bring in the same.

Public bills, or acts of parliament, are commonly drawn, such as relate to taxes, or other matters of government, by the several public boards, according to their respective jurisdictions; others by such members of the house of commons as are most inclined to effect the good of the public, particularly in relation to the bill designed, taking advice thereupon; and acts for the revival, repeal, or continuance, of statutes, are penned by lawyers, members of the house, appointed for that purpose.

The persons directed to bring in the bill, present it in a competent time to the house, drawn out on paper, with a multitude of blanks, or void spaces, where any thing occurs that is dubious, or necessary to be settled by the parliament itself; (such, especially, as dates, the nature and quantity of penalties, or any sums of money to be raised;) being indeed only the skeleton of the bill. In the house of lords, if the bill begins there, it is (when of a private nature) referred to two of the judges; to examine and report the state of the facts alleged, to see that all necessary parties consent, and to settle all points of technical propriety. This is read a first time, and at a convenient distance a second time; and, after each reading, the Speaker opens to the house the substance of the bill, and puts the question whether it shall proceed any farther. The introducing of the bill may be originally opposed, as the bill itself may at either of the readings; and, if the opposition succeeds, the bill must be dropped for that session; as it must also, if opposed with success in any of the subsequent stages.

After the second reading, it is *committed*, that is, referred to a committee; which is either selected by the

house in matters of small importance, or else, upon a bill of consequence, the house resolves itself into a *committee of the whole house*. A committee of the whole house is composed of every member; and, to form it, the Speaker quits the chair; (another member being appointed chairman,) and may sit and debate as a private member. In these committees the bill is debated clause by clause, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and sometimes the bill entirely new-modelled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the house, with such amendments as the committee have made; and then the house re-considers the whole bill again, and the question is repeatedly put, upon every clause and amendment. When the house hath agreed or disagreed to the amendments of the committee, and sometimes added new amendments of its own, the bill is then ordered to be engrossed, or written in a strong gross hand, on one or more long rolls (or presses) of parchment, sewed together. When this is finished, it is read a third time, and amendments are sometimes then made to it; and, if a new clause be added, it is done by tacking a separate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a *rider*. The Speaker then again opens the contents; and, holding it up in his hands, puts the question, whether the bill shall pass. If this is agreed to, the title of it is then settled; which used in ancient times to be a general one for all the acts passed in the session: distinct titles for each chapter were not, it seems probable, introduced with much regularity before the time of Henry VII. After this, one of the members is directed to carry the bill to the lords, and desire their concurrence; who, attended by several more, carries it to the bar of the house of peers, and there delivers it to their Speaker, who comes down from his woolfack to receive it.

If it there passes through the same forms as in the other house, (except engrossing, which is already done;) and, if rejected, no more notice is taken, but it passes *sub silentio*, to prevent unbecoming alterations. But, if it is agreed to, the lords send a message by two masters in chancery, (or, upon matters of high dignity or importance, by two of the judges,) that they have agreed to the same: and the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment to it. But, if any *amendments* are made, such amendments are sent down with the bill to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the commons disagree to the amendments, a conference usually follows between members deputed from each house; these meet in the Painted Chamber and debate the matter, and for the most part settle and adjust the difference; but, if both houses remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. If the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is sent back to the lords by one of the members, with a message to acquaint them therewith. The same forms are observed, *mutatis mutandis*, when the bill begins in the house of lords. But, when an act of grace or pardon is passed, it is first signed by his majesty, and then read *once only* in each of the houses, without any new engrossing or amendment.

When both houses have done with any bill, it is always deposited in the house of peers to wait the royal assent; except in the case of a bill of supply, which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is sent back to the house of commons.

In cases of *private bills*, when the petition is read, and leave given to bring in the bill, the persons concerned and affected by it may be heard by themselves or counsel at the bar, or before the committee to whom such bill is referred; and, in case of a peer, he shall be admitted to come within the bar of the house of commons, and sit covered on a stool, whilst the same is debating. And after counsel are heard on both sides, and the house is satisfied with the contents of the bill, it goes through the several forms.

The *Royal Assent* may be given two ways: 1. In person; when the king comes to the house of peers, in his crown and royal robes, and, sending for the commons to

to the bar, the titles of all the bills that have passed both houses are read; and the king's answer is declared by the clerk of the parliament in Norman French. If the king consents to a public bill, the clerk usually declares, "*Le roy le veut*; The king wills it so to be." If to a private bill, "*Soit fait comme il est désiré*; Be it as it is desired." If the king refuses his assent, it is in the gentle language of "*Le roy s'aviserà*; The king will advise upon it." When a bill of supply is passed, it is carried up and presented to the king by the Speaker of the house of commons; and the royal assent is thus expressed: "*Le roy remercie ses loyals subjects, accepte leur benevolence, et ainsi le veut*"; The king thanks his loyal subjects, accepts their benevolence, and wills it so to be." In case of an act of grace, which originally proceeds from the crown, and has the royal assent in the first stage of it, the clerk of the parliament thus pronounces the gratitude of the subject; "*Les prelates, seigneurs, et commons, en ce présent parlement assemblés, au nom de tous vous autres subjects, remercient tres humblement votre majesté, et prient à Dieu vous donner en santé bonne vie et longue*"; The prelates, lords, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, in the name of all your other subjects, most humbly thank your majesty, and pray to God to grant you in health and wealth long to live."

By the stat. 33 Hen. VIII. c. 21. which was passed to attain queen Katharine of treason, it was enacted, that the king's assent by letters patent under his great seal, signed with his hand, and notified in his absence to both houses assembled together in the lords' house, ever was and should be of like force, as if given by the king in person.

When the bill has received the royal assent in either of these ways, it is then, and not before, a statute or act of parliament; and, being certified into chancery, is placed among the records of the kingdom; and, being printed by the king's printer, copies are distributed among the several courts of justice and magistracy throughout the kingdom at the public expense, and thus promulgated more effectually than heretofore by proclamation made thereof by the sheriffs of counties, &c.

An *act of parliament*, thus made, is the exercise of the highest authority that this kingdom acknowledges upon earth. It hath power to bind every subject in the land, and the dominions thereunto belonging; nay, even the king himself, if particularly named therein. And it cannot be altered, amended, dispensed with, suspended, or repealed, but in the same forms and by the same authority of parliament: for it is a maxim in law, that "it requires the same strength to dissolve as to create an obligation." It was formerly held, that the king might in many cases dispense with penal statutes. But now, by stat. 1 Will. & M. ft. 2. c. 2. it is declared, that the suspending or dispensing with laws by regal authority, without consent of parliament, is illegal.

An *adjournment* of parliament is a continuance of the sessions from one day to another, as the word itself signifies; and this is done by the authority of each house separately every day, and sometimes for a fortnight or month together. But the adjournment of one house is no adjournment of the other.

A *prorogation* is the continuance of the parliament from one session to another, as an adjournment is a continuation of the session from day to day. This is done by the royal authority, expressed either by the lord-chancellor in his majesty's presence, or by commission from the crown, or frequently by proclamation. At the beginning of a new parliament, when it is not intended that the parliament should meet at the return of the writ of summons, for dispatch of business, the practice is to prorogue it by a writ of prorogation.

Both houses are necessarily prorogued at the same time, it not being a prorogation of the house of lords or commons, but of the *parliament*. The session is never understood to be at an end until a prorogation. Formerly the

usage was, for the king to give the royal assent to all such bills as he approved, at the end of every session, and then to prorogue the parliament. Which custom obtained so strongly, that it once became a question, whether giving the royal assent to a single bill, did not, of course, put an end to the session. And, though it was then resolved in the negative, yet the notion was so deeply rooted, that the stat. 1 Car. I. c. 7, was passed to declare, that the king's assent to that and some other acts should not put an end to the session; and even so late as the reign of Charles II. we find a proviso frequently tacked to a bill, that his majesty's assent thereto should not determine the session of parliament.

By prorogation, all orders of parliament determine: and persons imprisoned by order of the parliament, after their prorogation may be discharged on an *habeas corpus*, as well as after a dissolution; but it was long since determined, that the dissolution of a parliament did not alter the state of impeachments, brought up by the commons in a preceding parliament. Cases of appeals and writs of error also shall continue, and are to be proceeded on, in *statu quo*, as they stood at the dissolution of the last parliament. *Raym.* 381.

A *dissolution* is the civil death of the parliament; and this may be effected three ways.

First, By the king's will expressed either in person or by representation. For, as the king has the sole right of convening the parliament, so also it is a branch of the royal prerogative, that he may (whenever he pleases) prorogue the parliament for a time, or put a final period to its existence.

Secondly, A parliament may be dissolved by the demise of the crown. This dissolution formerly happened immediately upon the death of the reigning sovereign: for, he being considered in law as the head of the parliament, that failing, the whole body was held to be extinct. But the calling a new parliament immediately on the inauguration of the successor, being found inconvenient, and dangers being apprehended from having no parliament in being, in case of a disputed succession, it was enacted by stat. 7 & 8 Will. III. c. 15, that the parliament in being should, if sitting, continue for six months after the demise of the crown, unless sooner dissolved, &c. by the successor; and, if not sitting, should meet on the day of prorogation; and that, in case no parliament was in being, the last preceding parliament should convene and sit.

Lastly, A parliament may be dissolved or expire by length of time; and, as our constitution now stands, the parliament must expire, or die a natural death, at the end of every seventh year, if not sooner dissolved by the royal prerogative, as it generally is in the course of every five or six years. See the article LONDON, vol. xiii. p. 320.

We shall conclude this part of the subject with giving a few curious specimens of the ancient orders of the house of commons. They are taken out of a small volume printed in the last century, under the title of "Essential and Fundamental Orders of the House of Commons, collected out of the Journals." To those who are only acquainted with the present practice of the house, and the late hours to which the public business is now protracted, these orders will show how tenacious our ancestors were of the dignity and decorum of parliament, and of enforcing the early and regular attendance of the members; though some of them perhaps may abate a little of the reverence due to the standing orders of the house of commons, which have hitherto been considered as paramount to the law of the land.

1614, May 17.—Ordered, That this house shall sit every day at seven o'clock in the morning, and enter into the great business at eight o'clock; and no new motion to be made after twelve.

1641.—Ordered, That all the members who shall come to the house after eight o'clock, shall pay one shilling; and that, if any member shall forbear to come for the whole day, he shall pay five shillings, to be disposed of as

the house shall think fit; and the serjeant is to gather in the money.

1642.—Ordered, That whosoever shall not be at prayers every morning, shall pay one shilling to the poor; a box to be prepared and set up at the door for this purpose, and the burgeses of Westminster are to take care that the money be duly paid.

1647.—Ordered, That so soon as the clock strikes twelve, Mr. Speaker do go out of the chair, and the house shall rise; and that going forth no member shall stir, until Mr. Speaker go before, and then all the rest shall follow. Whosoever shall go out of the house before Mr. Speaker, shall forfeit ten shillings; but that the reporters may go first.

Ordered, That while any stranger is in the house, no member to stir out of his place, or speak unto another; and, if any member shall whisper, or cross the house, or read any printed book in the house, he shall pay one shilling into the poor's box.

1693.—Ordered, That no member of the house do presume to smoke tobacco in the gallery, or at the table of the house, sitting at committees.

Ordered, That no papists do presume to come into Westminster Hall, the Court of Requests, or lobby of the house, during the sitting of parliament; and that the serjeant at arms do take into custody all such persons as shall offend against this order.

Ordered, That, if any member has a servant that is a popish recusant, or refuses to go to church and hear divine service, he shall presently discharge him, under the penalty of sequestration from the house.

OF PARLIAMENTARY REFORM.—With so deep veneration do we regard our glorious constitution of king, lords, and commons, that we should deem every sacrifice trivial for the restoration of it uncorrupted, and for the preservation of it inviolate. In its original form, it is almost divine: to such a degree, to use the language of sir William Jones, "that no state of Rome or Greece could ever boast one superior to it; nor could Plato, Aristotle, nor any legislator, even conceive a more perfect model of a state. The three parts which compose it are so harmoniously blended and incorporated, that neither the flute of Aristoxenus nor the lyre of Timotheus ever produced more perfect concord. What can be more difficult," he continues, "than to devise a constitution which, while it guards the dignity of the sovereign and liberty of the people from any encroachment by the influence and power of the nobility, preserves the force and majesty of the laws from violation by the popular liberty?" Such was the case formerly in our happy island, and we trust it will be so again: but, if the people of this country are indeed destined to become great and honourable in these latter ages, they must "cast off the old and wrinkled skin of corruption," and, waxing young again, "enter upon the glorious ways of truth, and prosperous virtue."

To perform its duty to the public, the house of commons ought to be so constituted as to give its members a common interest and fellow feeling with every part of the kingdom, and with every class and distinction of persons in the community. No one should be aggrieved or oppressed without finding a defender in that assembly. No interest, however small or local, should be overlooked or neglected for want of an advocate. No measure should be adopted, without weighing maturely, not only the general good it may produce, but the partial evil it may occasion. When conflicting interests are opposed, a fair hearing should be given to all, before any decision is formed. Where relief is wanted, or redress petitioned for, there should be some one present to recommend the one, or enforce the other.

Julius Cæsar acknowledges that the *Commune Concilium* of Britain chose Cassibelanus for their leader; and Pughe, the celebrated Welch antiquarian, has proved from the Tryads, or ancient records of the Britons, that the *Kyfr-y-then*

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of the ancient British was the *Commune Concilium* mentioned by Cæsar, afterwards called the *Witten Gemote* of the Saxons, and which assumed the name of *Parliament* in the reign of Edward the Confessor, who had received his education in France. That this was a representative assembly, elected by the people, is proved by the Saxon View of Frankpledge, so ably demonstrated by that learned and venerable patriot, the late Granville Sharp; and that not only the legislative body, but every executive officer, from the tythingman to the alderman, or chief magistrate of a county, was elected by the respective hundreds *annually assembled*.

The learned Selden also proves from Hoveden, that the Conqueror assembled a parliament in the year 1070, the fourth year of his reign, which was composed of twelve representatives returned out of every county; who confirmed the laws of Edward the Confessor, which the king bound himself to keep, but never adhered to his solemn engagement. Hence, the assembling of a parliament composed of four representatives from each county in the 49th Henry III. was what Carew calls "throwing off the yoke of the Conqueror, and the redemption of the people from slavery." It was the re-establishment of the ancient form of government which existed from the earliest times, but had been wrecked in the same tempest that had overturned the Saxon throne; and it is as absurd to suppose that we had no representative parliament antecedent to the forty-ninth of Henry III. as to assert that we had no king prior to the same period.

That the representation was *equal*, and the right of suffrage *general*, in the housekeepers paying taxes, or, as it is now termed, scot and lot, is proved from the statutes at large, and from the earliest history of every county, city, and borough, in the kingdom. The number of members in the parliament summoned by the conqueror, were twelve for each county, and four in that of the forty-ninth of Henry III. and the electors, till the eighth year of Henry VI. were all those bearing scot and lot. Even freeholders of forty shillings per annum were never known as possessing exclusive rights of election, till the enactment of the famous disfranchising statute of that year. The same right of election continues to this day in all those cities and boroughs where it has not been altered by the acceptance of charters, establishing exclusive privileges, as it is retained in Westminster, Lewes, and many other places, or where they have not been deprived of it by resolutions of committees of the house of commons, who have in general differed with each other in their determinations wherever this right has been disputed, and wherever they have once departed from the ancient letter of the constitution, which says that "Laws, to bind all, must be assented to by all."

The members for the fifty-two counties, as already noticed, are all elected by one uniform right. Except in certain cities and towns having peculiar jurisdictions, every man, throughout England and Wales, possessed of forty shillings per annum freehold, is entitled to vote for the county in which such freehold is situated.

With respect to the different cities, towns, and boroughs, they exercise a variety of separate and distinct privileges, scarcely capable of being classed in any methodical order, and still less of being ascertained by the application of any fixed principle. In the greater part of them, indeed, the right of voting appears to be vested in the freemen of bodies corporate; but, under this general term, an infinite diversity of peculiar customs is to be found. In some places, the number of votes is limited to a select body not exceeding ten; in others it is extended to eight or ten thousand. In some places, the freeman must be a resident inhabitant to entitle him to vote; in others his presence is required only at an election. The right to the freedom is also different in different boroughs; and may, according to peculiar usage, be obtained by birth, servitude, marriage, redemption, &c. &c.

The remaining rights of voting are of a still more complicated description. Burgageholds, leaseholds, and freeholds, foot-and-lot inhabitants, householders, inhabitants at large, potwallopers, and commonalty, each in different boroughs prevail, and create endless misunderstandings and litigation. This arises from the difficulty which is daily found in defining and settling the legal import of those numerous distinctions which, in some places, commit the choice of two members to as many inhabitants as every house can contain; in others, to the possessor of a spot of ground where neither houses nor inhabitants have been seen for years; and which, in many instances, have even baffled the wisdom of parliament to determine who are entitled to vote, or what constitutes their right.

Religious opinions create an incapacity to exercise the elective franchise. All catholics are excluded in England, but not in Ireland; and by the operation of the test-laws, protestant dissenters are deprived of a voice in the election of representatives in all those boroughs where the right of voting is confined to the corporate officers alone.

The representation of the kingdom of Scotland, which contains two millions of inhabitants, is confined to the tenants of the crown in the several counties, to a corporation of thirty-three individuals in the city of Edinburgh, and to sixty-five delegates from the same number of self-elected corporations of the royal burghs of Scotland. The whole number of electors in some of the shires does not exceed *nine*; and the whole constituent body of thirty-three counties is no more than 1368, a number greatly inferior to that of the freeholders in the smallest county of England; while the number of representatives is only *one* more than is furnished from the rotten boroughs of Cornwall. We shall forbear to make any comment where the external evidence of defective representation is so glaring as to set at defiance all sophistry, and impress conviction on the unprejudiced part of mankind; where the represented part of the community does not amount to a hundred in a hundred thousand; and where property, held in tenure from the crown and corporate bodies, deriving exclusive privileges from accident and intrigue, can alone exercise the rights of freemen.

"To restore the ancient right of election, as it was exercised in the tythings of the respective hundreds in each county by the householders in numerical divisions," says Mr. Oldfield, "would at once correct all the existing abuses, and establish a representation of the people perfectly fair and equal; it would extinguish all contentions about elective rights, and save millions of money wasted in expensive contests. The elective franchise ought to be common and personal; and, if not exercised *by all*, which, by the earliest writs of Edward the First, we find to have been the constitutional right of the people, the qualification should be so moderate, that there might be no condition in life in which it should not be in the power of every individual to acquire it by labour, by industry, or by talent.

"If, in the end, this should furnish an election, as we believe it would do, for the whole united kingdom, by nearly a million and half of heads of families, enough would be done to guard the rights of property on one hand, and to satisfy the national claims of personal representation on the other; and, if a constituent power so formed, so extended, and so limited, be not sufficient to create a free and independent house of commons, the case is desperate; the object can never be obtained.

"In support of *personal right* it is contended, that every one has what may be called property; every man has life, personal liberty, character, a right to his earnings, a right to his religious profession and worship according to his conscience, &c. Thus the poor are liable to be injured by the government in a variety of ways. According to the commonly-received doctrine, that servants and those who receive alms have no right to vote for mem-

bers of parliament, an immense multitude of people are deprived of all power to determine who shall be the protectors of their lives, their personal liberty, their little property, (which, though singly considered, is of small value, yet is, in the aggregate, a great object,) and the virtue of their wives and daughters. That which is peculiarly hard upon the poor in this case is that, though they have no share in determining who shall be the lawgivers of their country, they have a heavy share in raising the taxes which support its government. The taxes on malt, beer, leather, soap, candles, and other articles, which are paid chiefly by the poor who are allowed no vote for members of parliament, are equal in amount to a heavy land-tax. The landed interest would complain grievously if *they* had no power of electing representatives; and it is in free states an established maxim, that whoever contributes to the expenses of government, ought to be satisfied concerning the application of the money contributed by him, and consequently ought to have a share in electing those who have power over its application.

"That the collective body of qualified electors should be as numerous as possible is also desirable for many reasons; but principally because a great number of electors, by making each individual vote of no venal value, and hardly worth solicitation, is of itself a better security against corruption than the severest laws against bribery. The security which, on the other side, this would afford against violence and faction, depends on the personal circumstance, character, and situation, of the voters. To exclude the effect of influence and favour on human actions is impossible; but, when the elector has something to give and nothing to sell, it may reasonably be expected that his inclination and his judgment will go together, and determine him in favour of the worthiest candidate. A house of commons thus chosen by the combined operation of property and population, will be free and independent, if any thing can make it so. To maintain it free and independent of any influence or interest but that of its constituents, the choice of new representatives must frequently revert to the people.

"The advocates, however, for *limited right of suffrage* desire to restore the constitution to the state in which it existed from the earliest times to the passing the statute of the eighth of Henry the sixth; and to reinstate *every householder* in Great Britain, paying parish-taxes, in the right of voting for one member of parliament.

"The species of property which constitutes this qualification, has the advantage of being open, ostensible, and incapable of being disputed. It indicates a real residence, and implies a stationary interest in the place for which the vote is given and the representative chosen. But, besides the possession of a competent property, of which the occupation of a house paying taxes is a sufficient presumption, a householder has other qualities, which ought to recommend him to favourable distinction, and particularly to the trust in question. He is necessarily the master, and probably the father, of a family. In the first character, he has personal credit and respect to maintain; in the second, he has given actual hostages to society. He is the natural guardian and virtual representative, not only of his family and servants, but of all those who depend upon him for support, protection, or employment. Such a station deserves confidence, and should be made respectable, that all men may be prompted and encouraged to rise to it. The relations and duties that belong to it are antecedent to all positive institutions, and constitute at once the basis and the security of civil society.

"By the re-establishment of the hundreds and tythings in each county, the system of representation may be renovated, and a reform obtained upon either of these principles. Such a number of the hundreds as would have a right to choose one member of parliament, might be associated into a district for that purpose, and the poll be taken in each hundred before the constable on the same day and hour all over Great Britain and Ireland.

All

All disputes about the right of voting would thus be removed; every man would be known and recognised in his own hundred. All expense of carrying electors from one end of the kingdom to another would be prevented; and all the confusion, tumult, and riot, attending the present mode of election, would be avoided. No individual at present possessing the right of voting would be disqualified; and every man having a claim to that privilege would be restored to it."

Thus far Mr. Oldfield as to the elective franchise. Next as to the duration of parliament. And here, we believe, it must be conceded to the radical reformers, that *annual parliaments* was the ancient practice; i. e. that every parliament, in very early times, was a new parliament; for it no-where appears that prorogations or long adjournments were in use in those days. In a letter of king Edward I. to the pope, there is a testimony to the practice of parliament meeting twice in a year, which is well worthy of our observation. It relates to a yearly tribute of 1000 marks, which the popes, from the time of king John, exacted, and of which there were at this time some arrears. The king's excuse to the nuncio was, that from the pressure of business, and his own sickness, he had not come to any resolution in his parliament which he had accustomed to hold at Easter; but, by common advice, he would give him an answer in his Michaelmas Parliament; thus speaking of them both as customary. "Know for certain, pious Father and Lord, that in our other parliament, which we design to hold at the next feast of St. Michael, with God's permission, we and the prelates and peers aforesaid, in council had thereon, will, by their advice, give you an answer on the premises." (See Clause Rolls, 3 Ed. I. m. 9. Scedula. Prynne, p. 158.) This record is a complete proof that there were two parliaments in that year.

The sitting of parliaments was usually 40 days, so low as king Richard II. and, if they were longer detained, the subject of the wages of the knights and burgesses came into dispute; and Knyghton, p. 2682, has preserved a memorable record of this fact: *Dicunt etiam, &c.* "In short, they say, that they have an ancient statute, whereby, if the king wilfully absent himself from his parliament, not having any infirmity or other cause of necessity, but *per immoderatam voluntatem protervere, &c.* 40 days, and not caring for the vexation of his people and their heavy expense, it shall then be lawful for them all to withdraw from the *dominio regis*, and return to their own homes."

1 Rd. II. Petition was made, That a parliament may be yearly holden in convenient place, to redress delays in suits, and to end such cases as the judges doubt of. To which the king's answer was, "It shall be as it hath been used." And in 2 Rd. II. the reason for opening the parliament was stated to be, "for that it was enacted that a parliament should yearly be held."

This law remained for a space of 262 years, till 16 Car. I. when that king, having discontinued parliaments for 12 years, the nation found a necessity of having a cautionary parliament every third year, to secure their annual parliaments for the two years immediately foregoing. This is said to be the true reason of the act of 1640. This act was afterwards repealed by 16 Car. II. c. 1. which after having enacted, in § 2, the repeal, it proceeds, § 3, to declare the law to be, that because by the ancient laws and statutes of this realm "parliaments are to be held very often," that hereafter the sitting and holding of parliaments shall not be intermitted or discontinued above three years at the most; but that within three years from the determination of that parliament, and so from time to time within three years after the determination of any other parliament, or, if there be occasion, more often, the king and his successors should issue writs for calling, assembling, and holding, another parliament; to the end there may be a frequent calling, &c. once in three years at the least.

Thus the parliamentary law continued until 1694, 6 Will. and Mary, c. 2. when it was further declared, that no parliament whatsoever that should at any time thereafter be called, &c. should have any continuance longer than for three years only at the farthest from the day of meeting specified in the summons; and that that parliament should cease on 1 Nov. 1696, unless sooner dissolved. There was a dissolution, and a new parliament began on 22d of November, 1695, at Westminster. And by an act in 1696, c. 25, for regulating elections, the qualification of voters is, freehold lands or hereditaments of the yearly value of 40s.

The period of parliaments having thus crept on, continued 21 years upon the last statute, when in 1716, 1 Geo. I. it was further extended, ch. 38, to a term of seven years, not only for that but for all future parliaments, unless sooner dissolved. It is stated in the preamble, "that it had been found by experience that the triennial act had proved very grievous and burdensome, by occasioning much greater and more continued expenses in order to elections, and more violent and lasting heats and animosities amongst the subjects of the realm, than were ever known before; and that the provision, if it should continue, might probably at that juncture, when a restless and popish faction were designing and endeavouring to renew the rebellion within the kingdom, and an invasion from abroad, be destructive to the peace and security of the government." This bill originated with the duke of Devonshire in the house of lords, and was much opposed by the earls of Nottingham, Abingdon, and Paulet, on the grounds that frequent parliaments were required by the fundamental constitution of the kingdom, ascertained in the practice of many ages; and that the members of the lower house were chosen by the body of the nation for a certain term of years, at the expiration of which they could be no longer representatives of the people, who, by the parliament's protracting its own authority, would be deprived of the only remedy which they had against those who, through ignorance or corruption, betrayed the trust reposed in them; and that a long parliament would yield a greater temptation, as well as a better opportunity, to a vicious ministry, to corrupt the members, than they could possibly have when the parliaments were short and frequent. The bill passed in the upper house by a majority of 35, there being 96 in the affirmative, and 61 in the negative; and 30 lords entered a strong protest against it. In the house of commons, it encountered great opposition from Mr. Shippen and sir Robert (afterwards lord-chief-justice) Raymond, who declared that, "would the king establish his throne in the hearts of his subjects, the most sure and effectual way would be by frequent appeals to the people. A standing parliament and a standing army are convertible and fit instruments to support each other's power." Zeal and ability, however, were unavailing; and the septennial bill passed by 264 votes against 121.

From these testimonies it appears, that annual parliaments, and sometimes two parliaments within the year, were the custom of the realm; but that the legislature afterwards thought fit to extend their duration to three years; and the same high authority in later times further extended them to seven years. Various efforts have since been made to repeal this act. The first in 1734, when the eloquence of sir William Wyndham was conspicuous; the second in 1742, and the third in 1745, when very vigorous efforts to that effect were made by Mr. Carew and Mr. Sydenham. The former argued, that "the interests of the prince and people cannot really and truly differ; he can be great only in their greatness, and prosperous in their prosperity." The latter observed, "It is to the fatal introduction of long parliaments, that we are to ascribe the extension of ministerial corruption, and the deterioration of public morals. Nothing can so effectually remove this as the restoration of annual parliaments. They will demolish the market of corruption, for ministers

ters will not corrupt where it can be of no avail; and, though contests may occasionally take place, the magnitude of the object will not be such as to occasion either venality or violence." These are the recorded opinions of our great patriots and statesmen, who were the strenuous advocates for short parliaments; and it is curious to observe, that the latest of these speeches have been delivered more than seventy years; and to reflect, if the state of the representation was such as it was described by them so long ago, what it must necessarily be *now*, when corruption is so much more lavish of her rewards, and when the temptations to venality are so much more numerous.

The septennial act has always been considered as a most unconstitutional exercise of parliamentary authority; but was unfortunately supported, in the minds of the people, by the impression produced by the rebellion in Scotland during the preceding year. Now that the danger has long passed away, and that the family of the pretender is extinct, (since the king, while regent, (1816,) erected a monument to the memory of cardinal York, "the last of the Stuarts;") we think it would be very right and reasonable to restore triennial parliaments, as by the 6 W. & M. c. 2. anno 1694. This, with the extension of the elective franchise to housekeepers of a certain rank, would satisfy all reasonable men; for we believe that those who cry out the loudest upon the subject can never expect, or even wish, to restore annual parliaments, which certainly did once prevail, or to establish universal suffrage, which certainly never did.

The minister of the day has always opposed shortening the duration of parliaments, as well as every other species of reform. Yet we have the testimony of one, who longed for arbitrary power as much as any man, that short or new parliaments were in general most complying. The Irish parliament, which was dissolved by lord Strafford in April 1635, had been at first directed by the king (Charles I.) to be dismissed in January 1634. "My reasons," says his majesty, in a letter to the deputy, dated the 22d of January, 1634, "are grounded upon my experience of them [parliaments] here. They are of the nature of *cats*, they ever grow curst with age; so that, if ye will have good of them, put them off handsomely when they come to any age; for young ones are ever most tractable. And in earnest you will find, that nothing can more conduce to the good beginning of a new than the well ending of the former parliament; wherefore, now that we are well, let us content ourselves therewith."

And the Edinburgh Review (June 1816) says, "We doubt whether frequent elections would be favourable to the independence of the house of commons. We fear the tendency of short parliaments would be to increase the power of government, by breaking down and destroying all independent opposition. Let no one imagine that by penal laws, or other devices, he can prevent the expense of elections. While a seat in the house of commons is an object of desire, it will be an object of expense. But the pecuniary cost on such occasions is, in general, greatest on the side of opposition. The friends of ministry have the aid and influence of government-patronage in support of their pretensions; and the more frequently elections are repeated, the greater is the amount of this advantage over their opponents." Lord Lyttelton was of the same opinion near ninety years ago; (See *Perf. Lett.* lxvi.) And accordingly we know that the dissolution of parliament has been sometimes held forth as a threat, as was particularly the case in 1807; in allusion to which the same Edinburgh Review observes, "Short parliaments, it must be owned, would lessen the terrors of a dissolution, which, after the examples of 1784 and 1807, must have great effect in destroying the spirit and independence of the house of commons. The advisers of these two measures may be justly reckoned among the men who, in our times, have done the most irreparable injury to the consti-

tutional liberties of their country." Ed. Rev. vol. xxvi. No. 52, for June 1816.

But other and manifold are the complaints against parliaments, as at present constituted, besides their duration. With regard to *freedom of election*, the following facts demonstrate, that it has scarcely any existence, except in name:

1. In the Journals of the House of Commons (May 1793) it stands recorded, and uncontradicted, that 154 persons, chiefly peers of the realm, return 307 members, forming a decided majority of the members for Great Britain; and that evidence thereof was offered to be given at the bar of the house.

2. In Wakefield's Account of Ireland it is stated, that, of the hundred members for that country, seventy-one are returned, in like manner, by arbitrary control and undue influence.

3. In a recent case of bankruptcy, a seat in the house of commons was returned among the assets, as a commodity saleable, towards the satisfaction of the creditors.

4. A legacy of 5000*l.* was left by the late lord Vernon, towards the purchase of a seat in parliament, and entered upon the Records of Doctors' Commons in the following words: "I hereby declare this to be a codicil to my last will and testament; and I hereby give to my dear son-in-law, the Hon. Edward Harbord, one sum, not exceeding five thousand pounds, towards the purchase of a seat in parliament; as witness my hand, this 22d day of August, 1812. VERNON."

5. In a petition presented to the house, on the 9th of December, 1790, and entered on its Journals, it was averred, that "Seats therein were as notoriously rented and bought, as standings for cattle in a fair;" which assertion was then resented as scandalous and libellous: but when, on the 11th of May 1810, two of his majesty's ministers were accused of being concerned in the sale of a seat, they were screened from punishment, on the plea of the "extreme notoriety of the practice," which many of its members unblushingly justified.

6. A number of places having scarcely any inhabitants, as Dunwich, St. Mawes, Midhurst, Gatton, and Old Sarum, send respectively their two members to parliament; while great commercial towns, contributing immense sums to the national revenue, and containing from sixty to a hundred thousand inhabitants, as Birmingham, Manchester, Sheffield, Leeds, &c. do not possess the elective franchise, and are unrepresented.

7. Rutland the smallest, and Yorkshire the largest, county, return the same number of representatives. Cornwall returns as many members as the counties of York, Rutland, and Middlesex. And Cornwall and Wilts send more borough-members to parliament than Yorkshire, Lancashire, Warwickshire, Middlesex, Worcestershire, and Somersetshire, united.

8. The county of Cornwall contains a population of 216,000 inhabitants; that of Warwickshire, 218,000; while the former sends forty-four members to parliament, and the latter only six. Cornwall's sending forty-four members is in the proportion of one member to every 5000 of its inhabitants. Warwickshire's sending six members is in the proportion of one member to every 36,000 inhabitants. Cheshire sends four members, which is in the proportion of one member to every 56,000. Lancashire sends fourteen members, being in the proportion of one member to every 59,000. But Middlesex is the worst represented of all the counties of England; its proportion for each member being 120,000 persons.

A house of commons thus formed can hardly be considered as the proper guardian of the purses and liberties of the various classes of the British nation; and Rapin observes, "that there is nothing in which we may be more easily deceived, than in judging of the sentiments of the people by those of their representatives."

Various have been the plans of reform that have been successively brought forward in the house of commons; some

some of them, indeed, so wild as to defeat their own end, of which due advantage has always been taken by the enemies of all reform. But the most reasonable plans have hitherto always been negatived; of which we may instance those of sir Francis Burdett and of Mr. Brand; (see the article LONDON, vol. xiii. p. 211, 12. and 287, 8.) Not to attempt to render things more perfect, because they cannot be *quite perfect*, is as absurd as to resolve to be miserable, because no one can be perfectly happy. To the enemies of reform is offered for consideration a short extract from the speech of Mr. Pitt, when Chancellor of the Exchequer, in which, descanting on what the popular branch of the legislature should be, he says, it should be "an assembly freely elected, between whom and the mass of the people there must be the closest union, and most perfect sympathy. Such a house of commons it was the purpose of the constitution originally to erect; and such a house of commons it is the wish of every reformer now to establish." But at the outset of his parliamentary career, and before he got into power, he was a much more bold and decided reformer: "Without a parliamentary reform," said he, "the nation will be plunged into new wars; without a parliamentary reform, you cannot be safe against bad ministers, nor can good ministers be of use to you. *No honest man can, according to the present system, continue minister.*" (Pitt's Speech, 1782.) Mr. Pitt did, however, become minister very soon after; and did continue so, with little interruption, for twenty years.

It is remarked by a sensible barrister, Mr. Stephens, in his Life of Horne Tooke that, "According to the acknowledged principles of the English constitution, taxation and representation are terms relative and inseparable. This doctrine, which seems to be clearly interwoven with the texture of our ancient Gothic polity, is fully established by facts, as well as by analogy. It has been acted upon in two memorable instances, both of which have proved highly salutary and beneficial to the empire, the union with Scotland and Ireland. Soon after the annexation of Wales, that country also was empowered to send knights, citizens, and burgesses, to parliament; and there is a remarkable document still in existence that serves to demonstrate the universality of the position even when applied to *transmarine* dominions recently obtained by conquest; for a writ was issued during the first part of the reign of Edward VI. enjoining the inhabitants to return a member for the town of Calais!" (See the list, farther on.) And a departure from this maxim lost us the American colonies.

On the 31st of May, 1821, Mr. Bennet moved for leave to bring in a bill "for better securing the independence of parliament." Of 51 members of the house who filled places at pleasure under the crown, he proposed to exclude 29, who would vote for any minister or for any measure, and who were in truth retained only upon that condition; and he instanced the recent case of the earl of Fife, who had been dismissed from his situation as a lord of the bed-chamber, (Apr. 6.) in consequence of his having voted against the minister. We need not enter into a farther detail of the intended provisions of the bill (since leave even to bring it in was refused), nor of the arguments used in favour of it. But we shall act so unfairly as to give the reasons urged against it. The Hon. Mr. F. Robinson, the only one of his majesty's ministers who spoke upon the subject, said, that in all governments "there must be a certain degree of influence, for it was impossible that the business of parliaments could be carried on by mere abstract principles of right and wrong." The event justified Mr. Robinson's argument; for, upon a division, that well-disciplined phalanx of placemen, who are ready to vote for the minister of the day without any regard to the "mere abstract principles of right and wrong," left Mr. Bennet in a minority of 24, a smaller number than he had intended, by his bill, to lop off. The numbers were—for the motion 52, against it 76.

On the 8th of June, 1821, a bill passed for disfranchising

the borough of Grampound in Cornwall, in consequence of notorious acts of bribery, and for adding two members to the two now returned by the county of York. 2 Geo. IV. c. 47. It had been proposed to transfer the elective franchise to the unrepresented town of Leeds, and in that state the bill passed the commons, but was altered in the lords, the earl of Liverpool having given it as his opinion, that the creation of a new borough ought only to be done through the medium of the crown.

Mr. Oldfield's plan of reform is to cut off the decayed and rotten boroughs, and to restore those to their rights who have been at various times disfranchised for causes which do not at present exist. We shall therefore transcribe from his Appendix a list of those towns which sent members in different reigns, from that of Edward I. to the present time; describing the different periods at which they sent members, as is proved by the writs still extant; to which we shall also add, the dates of their discontinuance, or disfranchisement.

Counties.	Boroughs.	Summoned.	Discontinued.
Bedfordshire	Dunstable	4 Edw. II.	11 Edw. III.
	Newbury	30 Edw. I.	31 Edw. I.
	Ely	23 Edw. I.	27 Edw. III.
	Polurun	11 Edw. III.	12 Edw. III.
	Egremont	23 Edw. I.	24 Edw. I.
	Bradneham	6 Edw. II.	7 Edw. II.
	Crediton	35 Edw. I.	36 Edw. I.
	Exmouth	14 Edw. III.	15 Edw. III.
	Fremington	6 Edw. III.	7 Edw. III.
	Liddeford	28 Edw. I.	30 Edw. I.
Dorsetshire	Modbury	34 Edw. I.	35 Edw. I.
	South Moulton	30 Edw. I.	31 Edw. I.
	Teignmouth	14 Edw. III.	15 Edw. III.
	Torrington	23 Edw. I.	45 Edw. III.
	Blandford	23 Edw. I.	22 Edw. III.
	Sherborn	11 Edw. III.	12 Edw. III.
	Chelmsford	11 Edw. III.	12 Edw. III.
	Alresford	23 Edw. I.	35 Edw. I.
	Alton	23 Edw. I.	4 Edw. II.
	Basingstoke	23 Edw. I.	4 Edw. II.
Hampshire	Fareham	34 Edw. I.	36 Edw. I.
	Odiham	28 Edw. I.	36 Edw. I.
	Overton	23 Edw. I.	2 Edw. II.
	Bromyard	33 Edw. I.	34 Edw. I.
	Ledbury	23 Edw. I.	34 Edw. I.
	Rofs	33 Edw. I.	34 Edw. I.
	Berkhamstead	11 Edw. III.	15 Edw. III.
	Stortefort	4 Edw. II.	15 Edw. III.
	Greenwich	4 & 5 P. & M.	6 P. & M.
	Tunbridge	23 Edw. I.	24 Edw. I.
Leicestershire	Manchester	Com. wealth.	Restoration.
	Melton Mowbray	11 Edw. III.	12 Edw. III.
	Spalding	11 Edw. III.	12 Edw. III.
	Waynfleet	11 Edw. III.	12 Edw. III.
	Bamberg	23 Edw. I.	24 Edw. I.
	Corbigg	23 Edw. I.	24 Edw. I.
	Burford	34 Edw. I.	35 Edw. I.
	Chipping Norton	28 Edw. I.	34 Edw. I.
	Doddington	30 Edw. I.	34 Edw. I.
	Witney	33 Edw. I.	5 Edw. III.
Somerfetshire	Axbridge	23 Edw. I.	17 Edw. III.
	Chard	28 Edw. I.	3 Edw. III.
	Dunster	34 Edw. III.	35 Edw. III.
	Glastonbury	12 Edw. III.	13 Edw. III.
	Langport	33 Edw. I.	36 Edw. I.
	Montacute	33 Edw. I.	34 Edw. I.
	Stoke Curcy	34 Edw. III.	35 Edw. III.
	Watchet	30 Edw. I.	31 Edw. I.
	Were	34 Edw. I.	36 Edw. I.
	Yarmouth Parva	11 Edw. III.	12 Edw. III.
Suffolk	Farnham	4 Edw. II.	38 Hen. VI.
	Kingston	4 Edw. II.	47 Edw. III.
	Bradford	23 Edw. I.	24 Edw. I.
	Mere	23 Edw. I.	1 Edw. II.
	Highworth	26 Edw. I.	27 Edw. IV.
Surrey		7 T	Wor-

Counties.	Boroughs.	Summoned	Discontinued.
Worcestersh.	Bromsgrove	23 Edw. I.	24 Edw. I.
	Dudley	23 Edw. I.	24 Edw. I.
	Kidderminster	23 Edw. I.	24 Edw. I.
	Pershore	23 Edw. I.	24 Edw. I.
Yorkshire	Doncaster	23 Edw. I.	24 Edw. I.
	Jervale	23 Edw. I.	24 Edw. I.
	Pickering	23 Edw. I.	24 Edw. I.
	Ravenfer	33 Edw. I.	12 Edw. III.
	Tykhull	23 Edw. I.	24 Edw. I.
	Halifax	Com.-wea.	Restoration.
	Whitby	Com.-wea.	
	Leeds	Com.-wea.	
Calais in France		27 Hen. VIII.	3 Ph. & M.

In all sixty-eight boroughs which sent members to parliament in different reigns, and are now deprived of that right; besides which, we find ninety-seven other boroughs which have charters, and have most probably sent members at some former period since the reign of Edward I. but for which no summonses are to be found, though they were unquestionably parliamentary boroughs in the time of the Saxon monarchy, when every borough in England was represented, as well as the rural tythings, who chose their representatives in the county-courts.

In Berkshire.—Thatcham.

Cambridgeshire.—Wisbeach.

Chester.—Altringham, Congleton, Macclesfield, and Middlewich.

Cornwall.—Botreaux Castle, Crofthole, Kilkhampton, Milbrook, and Padstow.

Derby.—Bakewell, and Chesterfield.

Devonshire.—Biddiford, Bampton, Chadlington, Chalvey, Cholmley, Cornworthy, Denbery, Hartland, Ilford Combe, Keneford, Kingsbridge, Milverton, Newton-Abbas, Pepelford, Sampford Peverel, Seal, Twikebere, and Thalampton.

Dorsetshire.—Bere, Wimburnminster, and Milton.

Durham.—Barnard Castle, Hartlepool, Stockton, and Sunderland.

Essex.—Bradfield, Rawleigh, and Thaxted.

Gloucestershire.—Avening, Berkely, St. Berwald's, Chipping Campden, Cheltenham, Frampton, Letchlade, Newnham, Chipping Sodbury, Tetbury, Thornbury, and Wotton Under edge.

Hampshire.—Porchester, Rumsey, and Westover.

Herefordshire.—Ewias Lacy, Pembridge, and Wigmore.

Huntingdon.—Godmanchester.

Kent.—Deal.

Monmouthshire.—Abergavenny, Caerleon, Chepstow, Newport, and Uske.

Northamptonshire.—Daventry, and Rothwell.

Norfolk.—Bernay.

Northumberland.—Alnmouth, Alnwick, Harbottle, and Warrmouth.

Salop.—Clebury, Lidham, Oswestry, Wortham, and Worthing.

Somersetshire.—Somerton, Wellington, Wincanton, and Yeovill.

Staffordshire.—Betely, Burton-upon-Trent, Tutbury, and Walsall.

Suffolk.—Bungay, Budesdale, Clare, and Mendlesham.

Surrey.—Langhurst

Sussex.—Pevensey.

Warwick.—Birmingham, and Stratford-upon-Avon.

Westmoreland.—Kendall.

York.—Leeds, and Skelton.

Lambert, in his Perambulations of Kent, reckons near forty places in the Lath of St. Augustine, under the denomination of *boroughs*, which, being now villages, we omit, as Brown Willis does several corporations in that and other counties, because he does not meet with them under the style of ancient boroughs. It may be concluded that all corporations or boroughs had an inherent right to representation, if they had been desirous to have ex-

erted it; but, as that franchise was formerly expensive they no doubt industriously declined it.

As Agmondesham, Marlow, and Wendover, in the county of Buckingham, were restored upon petition to parliament, on the 4th May, 1624, to the privilege of sending representatives, after having lost that right from the 2d of Edward II. until the 21st of James I. a period of four hundred years; we conceive the above boroughs to have an equal claim to the same justice.

By the above tables it appears, that a hundred and sixty-four boroughs, exclusive of Calais in France, are now disfranchised; and that boroughs have been created and annihilated from the reign of Edward I. to that of Charles II. inclusive, at the caprice of each successive monarch. We may here be allowed to ask the enemies of reform, whether the constitution would receive a greater injury from the disfranchisement of Old Sarum, Gatton, Castle Rising, or Midhurst, than it has at present sustained from the disqualification of Leeds or Manchester? It surely becomes necessary to abolish the existing rotten boroughs; or, according to the argument of our opponents, to make the constitution complete, by restoring the hundred and sixty-four which have been discontinued. In the commonwealth-parliament, Sept. 3, 1654, all the rotten boroughs were omitted.

PARLIAMENT OF IRELAND.—It appears that, for the space of almost a century and a half after Henry II. had taken possession of Ireland, there was but one parliament for both kingdoms, the laws made in the parliament of England being transmitted to Ireland, under the great seal, to be proclaimed, enrolled, and executed, as the laws of Ireland. The first regular establishment of a parliament in Ireland seems to have been about the end of the reign of Edward II. for the meetings and consultations of the great lords before that period, although in old annals called parliaments, are not, in the proper sense of the word, entitled to that appellation. When Ireland was invaded by the Scots under Bruce, the English government found itself so much embarrassed, that, not being able to afford effectual assistance to its Irish subjects, they were authorized to hold a general council of the kingdom among themselves, in order that they might pursue speedier and more decisive measures for allaying the commotions with which the whole country was then agitated.

In the reign of Henry VII. the parliament of Ireland became, in some measure, dependent on that of England, by an act passed under the direction of sir Edward Poynings, the lord deputy, by which it was provided that "all the statutes lately made in England, of a public nature, should be held effectual and valid in Ireland." It has been erroneously supposed, that this act extended to the whole code of English statutes; for, in reality, it refers only to a certain number, which, however inaccurately stated, were under the eye of the Irish legislature. "From this regulation," says Professor Millar, it may be fairly inferred, that the Irish parliament was at this time understood to possess an independent legislative authority; for, if that assembly was capable of adopting the English laws, it must have possessed the power also of rejecting them: and, as this act of legislature sufficiently testifies the exertion of independence on the part of Ireland, the assent of the governor on the part of the king, leaves no doubt of his majesty's approbation and concurrence."

But to secure the dependence of the Irish parliament, Henry endeavoured to prevent debate, by putting a negative upon all their proceedings. With this intention, he caused another act to be passed, commonly known by the name of Poynings' Law, which declares, "that no parliament should be held in Ireland until the lord deputy and his council should make known to the king and council in England the causes for which the meeting was to be called, and the bills which were to be passed; and that,

that, unless the king's leave were previously obtained, the acts of any parliament should be void." In the reign of queen Mary this law was still further extended, by an act passed under the pretence of "explaining the true meaning and intent" of the former; in which it was enacted, "that no parliament should be held in Ireland until the chief governor and council had certified to the king and council of England not only the measures which were in contemplation at the time when the parliament was called, but those also which might become the subject of its future deliberation." Such was the act which finally established the usage of holding parliaments and enacting laws in Ireland, and by which the proceedings of its legislature were determined till the year 1782, when the Irish Parliament was declared independent of that of England.

Before the 33d year of Henry VIII. it appears that none were admitted into parliament but Englishmen by birth or the descendants of Englishmen, the Irish being entirely excluded, because their lands, being beyond the limits of counties, could send no knights; and, as they contained no cities or towns, they could send no burgesses. But it is not improbable that the chief reason was the jealousy of the English government, which, suspecting their fidelity, did not deem it prudent to suffer them to become members of the great national council.

Before the 34th year of the same sovereign, when Meath was divided into two shires, there were only 12 counties in Ireland, besides the liberty of Tipperary; the number of knights, therefore, must have been few, since there were only four ancient cities, and the boroughs which sent burgesses did not exceed thirty. Hence it appears, that their whole house of commons could not then amount to a hundred persons; and, although queen Mary added two shires, and queen Elizabeth seventeen more, to increase the number of knights, they did not all send members to parliament, for the remote shires of Ulster did not return any. Ireland, therefore, in the reign of king James, contained 33 counties; and, as some of them had no boroughs, it was found necessary to create 40 new ones, by which expedient the influence of the crown acquired a considerable accession of strength. Charles I. exercised this prerogative, but not to so great an extent; and queen Anne added one borough, which appears to have been the last.

In the year 1719, a private law-suit in Ireland, (Sherlock v. Annesley,) gave rise to a controversy about the right of appeal from the Irish tribunals to the house of lords in Britain; and the consequence was, an act of the British parliament, the express object of which seems to have been, to subject Ireland to a state of complete dependency on the crown of Great Britain. By this act it was declared, first, "that the king's majesty, by and with the consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and the commons, of Great Britain, in parliament assembled, had, hath, and ought to have, full power and authority to make statutes of sufficient force and validity to bind the people and kingdom of Ireland." Secondly, "That the house of lords of Ireland have not, nor of right ought to have, any jurisdiction to judge of, affirm, or reverse, any judgment, sentence, or decree, given or made in any court within the said kingdom."

But, notwithstanding the servile state in which the legislature of Ireland was held, it seems to have preserved its independence in taxation. No British parliament, it appears, ever assumed, or even claimed, the right of imposing taxes on that country; and several instances are recorded, in which it manifested its jealousy on this point with a spirit worthy of the national character. In 1690, the commons of Ireland rejected a money-bill because it had not originated in their house. In 1709, a money-bill was returned from England with alterations, and on this account it was rejected by the commons. A similar circumstance took place in 1768.

Notwithstanding these exertions of the Irish nation in favour of liberty and independence, their efforts were counteracted, and for the most part frustrated, by the indiscreet influence of the crown; and nothing contributed more to render it effectual than the duration of their parliament. According to the early constitution of parliament, both in England and in Ireland, these assemblies could be dissolved at the pleasure of the crown; but, when this prerogative was not exercised, they remained till the death of the king. In England, however, in the reign of William III. the nation becoming jealous of the power which the king had acquired over parliaments, their duration was limited (as we have seen) to three years; which period, in the reign of George I. was extended to seven. But, as no change of the same kind had been introduced into Ireland, the parliament there continued to exist, according to the old plan, with the life of the king, till the year 1768, when, in consequence of a bill brought in by Dr. Lucas, the member for Dublin, its duration was restricted to eight years.

Agreeably to the act of union of 1800, the representation of Ireland consists at present of 28 temporal peers, elected for life by the general body of Irish peers; 4 spiritual ones, consisting of bishops, who are replaced by the same number every two years in rotation; and 100 commoners. Catholics as well as Protestants vote for these members; and the qualification of an elector is the same in Ireland as in England, a clear forty-shillings interest for a life; but, as it is customary in Ireland to insert lives in all leases, freeholders are created without the actual possession of property being considered as necessary, and their votes are regarded as a right of the landlord. This system of creating votes in Ireland, is carried to an extent of which the people in England can have no idea. The passion for acquiring political influence prevails throughout the whole country; and it has an overwhelming influence upon the people. To divide and subdivide, for the purpose of making freeholders, is the great object of every owner of land; and Mr. Wakefield considers it as one of the most pernicious practices that has ever been introduced into the operations of political machinery. It reduces the elective franchise nearly to universal suffrage; to a population who, by the very instrument by which they are made free, are reduced to the most abject state of personal bondage. Mr. Wakefield has known freeholders registered among mountain-tenantry, whose yearly head-rent did not exceed 2s. 6d. but, living upon this half-crown tenure, were enabled to swear to a *derivation-interest* of forty shillings per annum. This right, instead of being an advantage to the freeholder, is an excessive burden, as he is obliged to attend elections at the command of the agent, often with great inconvenience; and is ordered to vote for the object of his landlord's choice, with as little ceremony as the Jamaica planter would direct his slave to the performance of the meanest offices. Of this we have a striking and recent instance, in the case of Mr. Alcock, member for the county of Wexford, who challenged Mr. Colcough. The cause of this unfortunate quarrel was, that the latter refused to relinquish the votes of the tenantry of a Mrs. Cholmondely, who had written to her agent to desire her tenants to vote for the former; but, notwithstanding this mandate, these poor people for once insisted on giving their suffrages to Sheridan and Colcough. Could Addison rise from his grave, what would be his opinion of such *freeholders*? Mr. Wakefield has alluded to the above lamentable transaction; to show what are the common feelings in Ireland on such occasions: and these ideas are not confined to the country where the fatal event took place to which he has alluded; they are universal throughout every part of the island. After this information, the reader will not be surprised to learn that many counties are overruled in their choice by the will of some great territorial possessor; and there are few in which

which a coalition of two or three of the principal landholders will not settle the election according to their own views.

For some farther particulars, omitted or but slightly noticed above, we refer the reader to the articles *ENGLAND*, vol. vi. p. 798. *GOVERNMENT*, vol. viii. p. 745. *KING*, vol. xi. p. 731. and *IRELAND*, vol. xi. p. 300 and 362. See also, Northmore's *Observations on the Natural and Civil Rights of Mankind*, 1781. and Oldfield's *Representative Hist. of Great Britain and Ireland*, 6 vols. 8vo. 1816.

PARLIAMENT-HEEL, *f.* (A sea term.) The situation of a ship when she is made to lean on one side in order to clean the other.

PARLIAMENT-HOUSE, *f.* The house in which the parliament usually meets:

Far be the thought of this from Henry's head,
To make a shambles of the *parliament-house*. *Shakespeare*.

PARLIAMENT-MAN, *f.* A member of parliament; one of the house of commons.—These are mob-readers: if Virgil and Martial stood for *parliament-men*, we know who would carry it. *Dryden*.

PARLIAMENTARIAN, or **PARLIAMENTEE'R**, *f.* One of those who embraced the cause of the parliament against the king, in the great rebellion.—The very *parliamentarians* revered him [bishop Sanderfon] for his learning and his virtue. *Aubrey* ii. 524.—Colonel Bragge, roving about the country very early with a troop of stout horsemen, met with a party of *parliamenters* or rebels, of at least 200, at Long Crendon. *A. Wood's Life of himself*, in 1645.

PARLIAMENTARIAN, *adj.* Serving the parliament in the time of the great rebellion.—He found Oxford empty as to scholars, but pretty well replenished with *parliamentarian* soldiers. *A. Wood's Life of himself*, in 1646.

PARLIAMENTARY, *adj.* Enacted by parliament; pertaining to parliament.—Many things, that obtain as common law, had their original by *parliamentary* acts or constitutions, made in writing by the king, lords, and commons. *Hale*.—Credit to run ten millions in debt, without *parliamentary* security, I think to be dangerous and illegal. *Swift*.

PAR'LIE, a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat: six miles south of Pernalla.

PAR'LOUR, *f.* [*parloir*, Fr. from *parler*, to talk, or converse.] A room in monasteries, where the religious are permitted to meet and converse with their friends.—A room in houses on the ground-floor, furnished for reception or entertainment; of less importance than the drawing-room or the dining-room.—Can we judge it a thing seemly for a man to go about the building of an house to the God of heaven, with no other appearance than if his end were to rear up a kitchen or a *parlour* for his own use? *Hooker*.—It would be infinitely more shameful, in the dress of the kitchen, to receive the entertainments of the *parlour*. *South*.

Back again fair Alma led them right,
And soon into a goodly *parlour* brought. *Spenser*.

Roof and sides were like a *parlour* made
A soft recess, and a cool summer shade. *Dryden*.

The first, forgive my verse if too diffuse,
Perform'd the kitchen's and the *parlour's* use;
The second, better bolted and immur'd,
From wolves his out-door family secur'd. *Harte*.

PAR'LOUS, *adj.* [this might seem to come from *parler*, Fr. to speak; but Junius derives it from *perilous*, for anciently it was written *parelous*, and used in the sense of dangerous; and from this primary sense, that of dangerous, by way of irony, seems to have been adopted.] Dangerous.—The more part of writers were wholly given to serve antichristes affectes in the *parelous* ages of the church. *Leland's New Year's Gift*.—Keen; threwd.—

Sure some pedagogue stood at your elbow, and made it itch with this *parelous* criticism! *Milton's Animadv. Rom. Defence*.

One must be trusted; and he thought her fit,
As passing prudent, and a *parelous* wit. *Dryden*.

PAR'LOUSNESS, *f.* Quickness; keenness of temper.

PAR'MA, or the **PARMESAN**. Under this name are included the duchy of Parma Proper, the duchy of Piacenza, and the duchy of Guastalla. This country is bounded on the north by the river Po, which separates it from the Cremonese and Lodofan, on the east by the duchy of Modena, on the south by Tuscany and Genoa, and on the west by Genoa and the Pavese; about forty miles from north to south, and from thirty to forty-eight east to west. The soil is fertile in corn, olives, chestnuts, and fruits of various kind. The pastures are excellent; the cheese and wool in great estimation. This country once formed a republic, which, being divided into factions, was the occasion of many battles; it was sometimes subject to the pope, sometimes to the emperors, and afterwards to the dukes of Milan, then to the French, and, when they were expelled out of Italy, it was re-united to the church. In the year 1345, Paul III. granted it to his natural son Peter Aloysius, or Farnese, from whom that family sprung. Elizabeth Farnese, the only heiress of the duke, becoming queen of Spain, contrived to obtain the duchies of Parma and Piacenza for her two sons; and so it was settled at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in the year 1748. Piacenza, which ought to have belonged to the king of Sardinia, and Parma, which had been conquered by the house of Austria, were ceded to the infant Don Philip; on condition, however, that in default of male heirs, the country should return to those by whom they had been abandoned. The pope, however, never consented to this, and every year protested against the investiture.

By the treaty of Luneville in 1801, the duke of Parma was nominated by the emperor and the French republic to the throne of Tuscany, with the title of King of Etruria; of which he soon after took possession. This *kingdom* was not fated to see a long line of princes either good or bad, being totally dissolved in the year 1808. See the articles *HETRURIA* and *ITALY*.

By the 4th article of the treaty of Paris, April 1814, these states were assigned to the empress Maria Louisa, and the right of succeeding to her was, by the same article, secured to her son. (See p. 500 of this volume.) But, after the second expulsion of Napoleon from France, the Act of Congress, (June 1815,) though it still (Art. 99.) recognized her right to the three duchies, yet paved the way for disinheriting the young Napoleon her son, by the following addition to that article: "The reversibility of these countries shall be determined by the common consent of the courts of Austria, Russia, France, Spain, England, and Prussia."

By the same Act of Congress the ex-queen of Etruria, who was an infanta of Spain, and whose original title was Duchess of Parma, was provided for as follows:

Art. 101. The principality of Lucca shall be possessed in full sovereignty by her majesty the infanta Maria Louisa, and her descendants, in the direct male line. This principality is erected into a duchy; and a rent of 500,000 francs is added to the revenue, to be paid regularly by the emperor of Austria and the grand duke of Tuscany, as long as circumstances shall prevent them from procuring for her majesty and her son, and her descendants, some other establishment.

102. The duchy of Lucca shall be revertible to the grand duke of Tuscany, in case of the death of her majesty the infanta Maria Louisa, of her son Don Carlos, and of their descendants; or in case the infanta Maria Louisa, or her direct heirs, shall obtain any other establishment.

Acting upon the spirit of these articles, it was determined

mined by a fresh treaty, in October 1818, that the reversion of the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, shall be taken from young Napoleon, and given to Don Carlos; and the reversion of Lucca goes, of course, at his mother's death, to the grand duke of Tuscany.

Don Carlos is married to a daughter of Victor Emanuel, king of Sardinia, who suddenly abdicated his dignity on the 12th of March, 1821. He will, in all probability, have some time to wait before he enjoys the fruits of this arrangement; as the empress Maria Louisa is only in the twenty-sixth year of her age, and is endowed with an excellent constitution.

There are now *three Princes of Parma*; Napoleon, Don Carlos, and Cambaceres, ex Arch-Chancellor of France!

PARMA, the capital of the above duchy, is divided by the river of the same name, which rises in the south part of the duchy, and runs into the Po near Viadana, in three branches that communicate with each other by two bridges. This city was founded by the Etrurians, taken by a tribe of Gauls called the Boii, and, at length, colonized by the Romans. It is said to have suffered much from the licentious cruelty of Antony; and its sufferings on this occasion are pathetically deplored and immortalized by Cicero, in his 14th Philippic, the last tribute which he paid to Rome and to liberty.

The city is large and populous, airy and clean, though it cannot boast of any very striking or regular buildings. It is surrounded by walls, flanked with bastions, and a ditch filled with water. On the south is the citadel, which is a regular pentagon, and reckoned the best in Italy. The streets are straight and broad, formed by well-built and painted houses, and meet in the centre, constituting a handsome square. The new palace was erected on the ruins of the old, and forms an irregular and huge mass of building. The theatre is represented as one of the most beautiful in Italy, and is said to contain upwards of 12,000 spectators, who, by the structure of the place, are capable of hearing the actor on the stage, without any elevation of voice. Here is also a smaller theatre for the accommodation of the inhabitants. This city is the see of a bishop, suffragan of Bologna. Its university was founded in 1599, and its academy of sciences was instituted in 1601. It has five collegiate and thirty parish churches, besides the cathedral, many of which contain pictures by Corregio and other eminent masters, and forty convents. The cathedral is Saxon, but lined in the interior with Roman architecture: its dome is much admired, on account of Corregio's paintings. The baptistery is an octagon, in the same style with the cathedral, cased with marble, and ornamented with various arches and galleries. The Steccata is the most regular church in Parma, in the form of a Greek cross. The church of the capuchins is only remarkable for being the burial-place of the celebrated Alexander Farneſe. The arts and sciences have by no means been neglected in Parma. An university, two academies, schools of painting, &c. announce the application; and a long catalogue of great names might be produced, to prove the success of the Parmians in every literary pursuit. The dukes have for many years assumed the character of Mæcenas; and, by their judicious encouragement, attracted men of talents, from other countries, to their territories. The public walks on its ramparts are very pleasing. The country round is well wooded; and the town and territory of Parma, on the whole, seemed to have been in a flourishing state till the entrance of the French army. Since that fatal period, its prosperity has been on the decline, its government unsettled, and its inhabitants impoverished and discontented. The contributions raised by the French amounted to five millions of French livres; a sum enormous for so small a territory, and equalling two years of its regular income. The chief trade of the place consists in stockings, and some other articles of silk manu-

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facture. The printing-press, established by Bodoni in 1765, has been distinguished for beautiful publications. The number of its inhabitants is not accurately ascertained; some reckoning them at 45,000, and others at 37,000. It is thirty-two miles south-west of Mantua. Lat. 44. 47. N. lon. 27. 52. E.

PAR'MA, *f.* among antiquaries, a kind of ancient buckler. Polybius describes the parma as very strong, round, three feet in diameter, and big enough to cover the whole body; yet Servius on the *Æneid*, and even Virgil himself, mentions it as a light piece of armour in comparison of the clypeus, though bigger than the pelta.

PAR'MA (Battista da), or *Parmensis*, an Italian engraver, was a native of Parma, born A.D. 1530. He studied at Rome, but under what master it is not known; and practised the art of engraving in a style somewhat resembling that of Cornelius Cort. The time of his death is not known.

PAR'MA (Jacobus), or *Parmensis*, another artist, probably of the same family, from whose hand we have a print executed in the style of Caraglio, of the Martyrdom of St. Peter and St. Paul, and a middling-sized print lengthways, from Parmigiano; it is executed with the graver, in a slight style, and has often been attributed to Caraglio, but the heads and other extremities are not so well drawn as we find them in the works of that artist. The time of his birth is not noted, nor that of his death.

PAR'MA (Julien da), a very distinguished historical painter, was born in 1736, of poor parents, at the village of Carigliana, near the little Swiss town of Locarno, upon the borders of the great lake. His genius surmounted all the obstacles which poverty threw before him in his road to the fine arts. For a considerable time nature was his only guide, because he had not the means to procure any other. At length he set out for Rome, which he reached by means of painting portraits in every town, to defray the expenses of travelling. In the capital, he studied the ancient and modern chef-d'œuvres for the space of twelve years, acquiring at the same time the art of speaking and writing in a masterly manner. It was in that city he first exhibited his picture of Jupiter sleeping in the arms of Juno; the engraving of which is to be seen in every print-shop; all the city of Rome, and every stranger residing there at the time, went to see the great work of Julien. On his arrival at Paris, he exposed the picture a second time, and there he also found a crowd of admirers. This picture, now in the cabinet of the celebrated sculptor Dejoux, his friend, is, above all, remarkable for the nobleness of style and beauty of colouring. There are some other valuable works of his, in the saloon of the hotel de Nivernois. Julien formed, both at Rome and Paris, several distinguished pupils. He died at Paris, June 28, 1799, at the age of 63, and in the greatest indigence.

PARMACITY, *f.* Corruptedly for *sperma ceti*:

Telling me, the sovereign'st thing on earth
Was *parmacity* for an inward bruise. *Shakespeare.*

PAR'MAK DAG'HI, a fortified mountain of Persia, in the province of Schirvan: thirty miles east-north-east of Scamachie.

PAR'MASENT, *f.* Parmesan cheese, or cheese of Parma. See PARMESAN.—My master said, he loved her almost as well as he loved *parmasent*. *Ford's 'Tis pity, she's a Whore.*

PARME'LIA, *f.* [from the Greek *παρμη*, a sort of small shield, and *ελεω*, to surround, inclose.] In botany, a genus of the class cryptogamia, order algae; and of a natural order instituted by Dr. Acharius, professor at Vadstena in Sweden, called *lichenes*. This natural order includes several genera, being allied, on the one hand, to the *Algæ*, in which it was included by Linnæus; and on the other to the *Fungi*, with many of which it nearly agrees

agrees in habit, and with some of them very strikingly in the character and situation of its seeds. Indeed it must include the whole of the Lichens, though under a different arrangement, the name of *LICHEN*, as a generic term, being abolished. See that article.

The genus *Parmelia* swallows up the greater part of this natural order: 204 species are defined in the *Methodus*, besides several in the *Supplementum*, of Acharius. This author is often in doubt to which genus some species belong, for want of knowing them in every state of growth. The true *Parmelia* have an accessory border of the colour and substance of the crust, but no proper border formed of the substance of the disk. The generic essential characters should therefore stand as follows: "Shields orbicular, horizontal, superficial, somewhat elevated, with a cartilaginous accessory border."

The *disk* is sometimes concave, oftener nearly flat, or indeed convex and hemispherical when far advanced in age, of a different substance and colour from the border, and without any border, or separate edge, of its own substance. The texture of the disk is tolerably firm, though occupied with innumerable vertical, parallel cells, each containing about eight minute seeds, placed one above the other. Its external colour is different in different species, most generally brown or reddish, but always totally unlike that of the border; internally it is paler. By age the disk in many species becomes loosened, falling out, and leaving its border in the shape of a small cup, or rather saucer.

The *border* is of the same colour and substance with the frond from which it proceeds, being elevated more or less above the level of that part, and very generally, at least in the more leafy species, attached merely by a central stalk, though its circumference is flat, and clapped, often very closely, to the surface. In the crustaceous kinds the union of the parts is more considerable; in the more filamentous or branched ones it is merely central, by an elongated and obvious stalk. The extreme part of the border is more or less tumid and thick, either smooth or powdery, entire or crenate, rarely fringed or leafy, while the very edge itself is inflexed and even.

The *frond* is various, and of many different shapes and appearances. When crustaceous, leprous, or tartareous, it is either uniform, and limited by a well-marked border, usually blackish; or it is loosely dispersed, without any distinct limitation, frequently in small portions or patches, and then, in many instances, finally disappears by age, leaving the bare and scattered shields, as if growing independently out of the stone or bark. In other cases the frond consists of lobed fragments, assuming a leafy imbricated aspect, and a cartilaginous texture; from which there is an insensible gradation to a truly leafy configuration, which is either membranous or coriaceous dilated and lobed, or narrow and repeatedly branched, round or compressed, erect, horizontal, or pendulous: in all cases it readily imbibes moisture, and by that means becomes instantly soft, flexible, and vegetative, however dry, contracted, and brittle, before. The colour of the frond is commonly very different in its moist and flourishing state to what it is when dry; being, in the latter condition, usually pale and greyish, but assuming a beautiful green when moistened. Yet there are some species always of the same grey hue, whether wet or dry, which by that very circumstance are well distinguished from others.

The male fructification of *Parmelia* is supposed, rather than known, to consist of scattered powdery warts, mostly of a lighter colour than the frond, on whose surface or segments they are situated, bursting, as it were, from under the cuticle. There is perhaps much reason to suppose such efflorescences to be of the nature of buds, or *gemmae*, by which the species may be increased. The great Hedwig however speaks of them as clearly anthers. They are by far most abundant when the shields, which are unquestionably the female parts of fructification, are

sparingly produced; which is rather in favour of their being buds. But the parts of the shield, at the period when impregnation, in whatever mode, must take place, are so minute, homogeneous, and obscure, that, if we still remain in total ignorance of the flowers of ferns, no wonder we are equally in the dark respecting lichens.

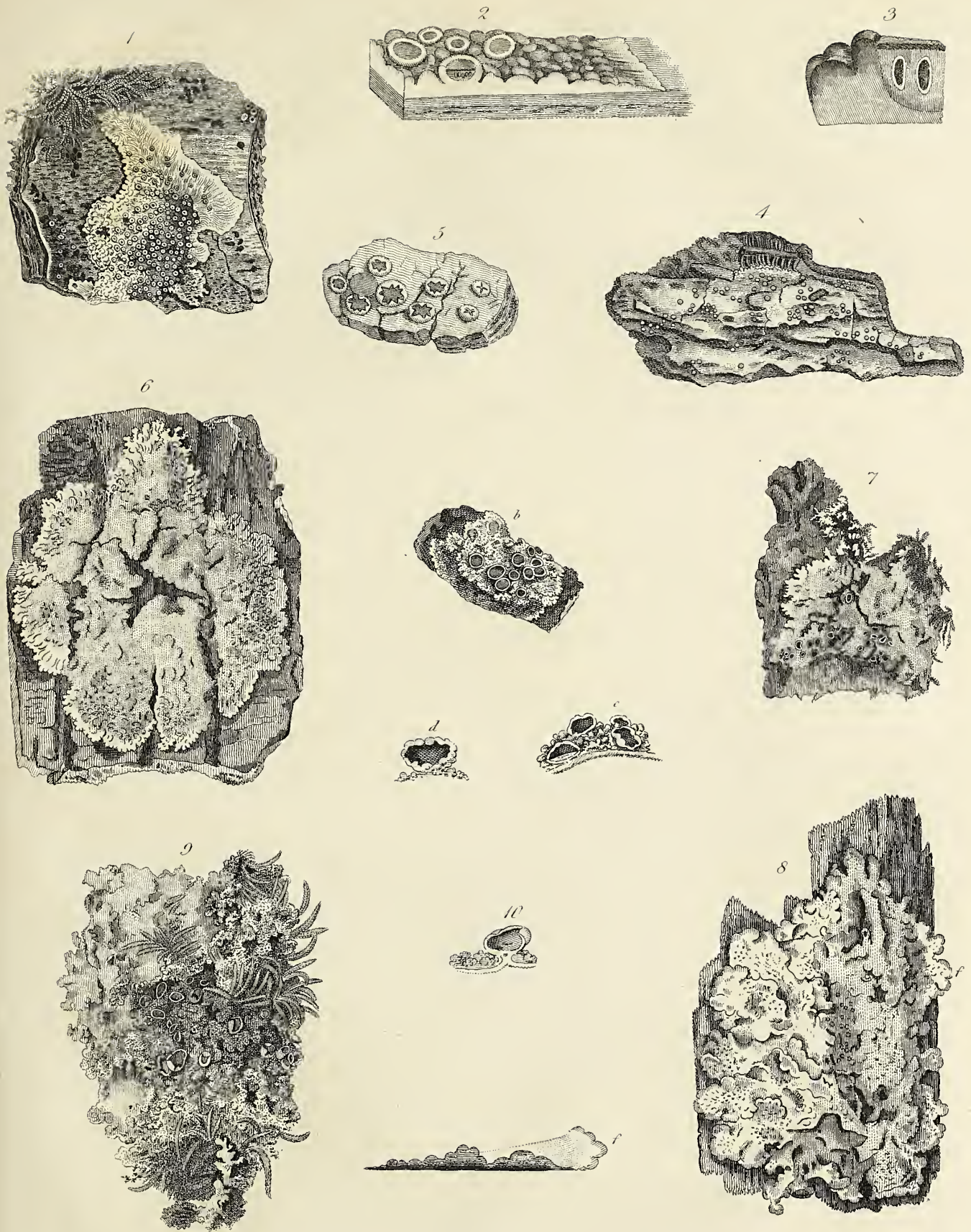
To enumerate the species of Acharius or of Hedwig would be, as already noticed, only to repeat our article *LICHEN* under a new arrangement. We shall therefore sufficiently elucidate this genus by a description and figures of four entirely-new species communicated to the Linnæan Society by Dawson Turner, esq. F. R. S. in the year 1806.

1. *Parmelia velata*, or veiled *Parmelia*: crust distinct, wartily membranaceous, wrinkled, and whitish; shields small and clustered; disk flat, of a whitish hue, and veiled or enwrapped in an albescent membrane. The alga, or frond, is arboraceous, irregularly orbicular. The diameter from two to six inches. The crust is limited within an uncommon sort of zone, very thin, smooth, in adult subjects; thicker towards the centre. The shields are so numerous as often to fill up the whole surface of the crust; conglomerated, hardly bigger than poppy-seed, but often of an angular shape, owing to mutual pressure; the margin of the same colour with the crust, thicker, and little if at all elevated. The disk is always flat; the membrane very thin, of the same substance with the margin, and as if originating from it; the inside of a beautiful fawn-tint. Found on ash-trees in Suffex; but rare. This species is exhibited on the annexed Plate, of the natural size, at fig. 1. magnified at fig. 2. a section at fig. 3.

2. *Parmelia carneo-lutea*, or pale flesh-coloured *parmelia*: crust membranaceous, very thin, white; shields flat, yellow, and in young subjects involved in a lacerated margin. The frond is arboresecent, crustaceous, largely and indeterminately diffused.

The crust of this lichen is so exceedingly thin, that its appearance at first sight is nothing more than that of an unusually bare and smooth part of the tree: nor can its fructification be discovered without attentive examination; for even the shields are by no means of a nature, either from their colour or size, to strike a cursory observer. Mr. Borrer therefore suspects, and, as it seems, not without reason, that the grey tinge frequently observable on the bark of old elms belongs in reality to this plant. The nature of the shields is so peculiar, that a few remarks with respect to these is all that it can be necessary to say for the purpose of effectually discriminating this lichen from its congeners. They are very different from those of any other *Parmelia*, and more resemble the *apothecia* of *Urceolaria exanthematica*, being almost wholly immersed in the crust, and in their first stage enveloped by the margin, which soon splits into different segments, though not with the regularity observable in that plant, disclosing the flat yellowish or flesh-coloured disk. In the older shields the margin becomes worn down, so as to be level with the disk, and is in this state thick, obtuse, uneven, and crenulated; it is also sometimes quite obliterated. Found on the bark of old elms about Lewes, Albourne, Steyning, Southwick, and Hastings, in Suffex. Some of this is shown, of the natural size, on a piece of wood, at fig. 4. and magnified at fig. 5.

3. *Parmelia Clementi*: stalk membranaceous and crusty, orbicular, whitish, with a lobated margin; the lobes dilated, short, multifid; shields of a dark livid tint, the margin white. The frond is arboresecent, two inches in diameter, the stalk adhering fast to the tree, undivided towards the centre, strewed over with white dust; the envelope leafy; the lobes flat, dilated, imbricated, and wrinkled; always white on both sides, whether wet or dry. The shields are by no means numerous; they arise from the middle of the *thallus*, or stalk; orbicular, first concave, with a half-closed margin; afterwards open, and flattish. The disk, when wet, is of a black-livid tint, and



1, 2, 3. *Parmelia velata*. 4, 5. *carneo-lutea*. 6, 7. *Clementi*. 8, 9. *Borreri*.

and ragged; when dry, and in the adult subject, it is black. The margin of the same colour with the crust, thin, inwardly inclined, and crenated, (notched.)

The usual abode of this beautiful species is on trees, and roofs of houses, in Suffex, where it is not uncommon; also about Tunbridge Wells, and Southampton. Mr. Turner received specimens of it collected upon the bark of the *Olea europæa*, near Cadiz, from Don Simon de Roxas Clémente, a most acute Spanish botanist, in honour of whom he named it. Dr. Acharius has also received it from France; and, the only places where it has yet been discovered in Britain being three of the most southern counties, it may fairly be presumed to be a native of the warmer climates; so conspicuous a species not being likely to be overlooked. It is only from the younger and barren plants, and especially from those which grow on flat smooth tiles, that any adequate idea of its elegance can be formed, the frond being in all other circumstances disfigured by the powder of the *foredia*, which sometimes wholly cover it. It is quite undivided, and has the appearance of a crustaceous lichen, except immediately at the circumference, never showing towards the centre the slightest tendency to become lobed. It is shown, of the natural size, at fig. 6. the Spanish specimen at fig. 7. parts of which are shown magnified at *b*, more magnified at *c*, and still more at *d*.

4. *Parmelia Borreri*: stalk membranaceous, stellated, greenish above, fawn-colour underneath, and villous; the *foredia* dispersed and white, the *laciniae* lobated and sinuous, subimbricated and rotundated at the margin; frond arboresecent, somewhat orbicular; diameter two or three inches. The *thallus*, or pedicle, is foliaceous, expanded in the form of a small rose, lobated, the lobes distinct, seldom touching each other, hardly divided in the centre; sinuated, expanded, and always rotundated at the margin. The stalk adheres firmly to the tree to which it belongs, (the margins only are free, and a little elevated;) smooth above, even, without reticulation or sinuosity; and, at all periods of its life, with small, white, orbicular *foredia*; bright underneath, and marked with unfrequent black scattered fibres. The colour of the recent thallus is above of a tender green hue, inclining to yellow; when dry, of an ash-coloured glaucescency; beneath dark brown. The shields, hardly perceptible, grow in the centre of the thallus, orbicular and sessile; of the bigness of the seed of the cultivated vetch; the disk brown: the margin of one colour with the thallus; inflexed in young subjects, crenulated in old ones.

This lichen, which, though sufficiently plentiful in many parts of Britain, does not appear to have been noticed by any author, was first pointed out by Mr. Borrer, a very particular friend of Mr. Turner, after whom he has named it. Mr. T. sent it to Dr. Acharius and Dr. Swartz, both of whom acknowledged it altogether new to them, and a very distinct species. Its appearance will be very well understood by an inspection of fig. 8. a magnified view is given at fig. 9. and a small piece more magnified at fig. 10. the edge of the alga, or frond, is shown at *f*.

PARMENALORE, a town of Hindoostan, in Coimbatore: 15 miles south-west of Errood.

PARMENIDES, a celebrated Greek philosopher of the Eleatic sect, flourished about the sixty-ninth olympiad, or the year 504 B. C. He was a native of Elea, who possessed a large patrimony, and lived in much splendour in his earlier years. He also distinguished himself in civil affairs; and is said to have drawn up for his fellow-citizens some excellent laws to which their magistrates obliged them to swear obedience. Having formed an intimacy with Diogenes, a Pythagorean, Parmenides was persuaded by him to withdraw from the concerns of public life, to the silence and leisure of the schools. Here he received the highest satisfaction from the study of philosophy; and he considered himself to be so much indebted to Diogenes, for first introducing him to it, that after his death he consecrated a temple to his memory.

Parmenides became the disciple and successor of Xenophanes, and is also said to have attended the instructions of Anaximander; but, if the latter statement be well-founded, it must have been while he was very young.

According to the testimony of Cebes, in his Allegorical Table, our philosopher was distinguished as an eminent pattern of virtue. He wrote the doctrine of his school in verses, of which a few mutilated fragments only have reached modern times, which were collected together by Henry Stephens, under the title of "*de Poesi Philosophica*," &c. Plato, in the Dialogue to which he gave the name of Parmenides, professed to represent his tenets, but confounded them with his own. The following abstract of his philosophy, as collected by Brucker from the scattered reports of the ancients, we give from Ensfield's abridgment of that author: "Philosophy is twofold; that which follows the report of the senses, and that which is according to reason and truth. The former treats of the appearances of sensible objects; the latter considers the abstract nature of things, and enquires into the constitution of the universe. Abstract philosophy teaches, that from nothing nothing can proceed. The universe is one, immovable, immutable, eternal, and of a spherical form. Whatever is not comprehended in the universe has no real existence. Nothing in nature is either produced or destroyed, but merely appears to be so to the senses. Physical philosophy teaches, that the principles of things are heat and cold, or fire and earth; of which the former is the efficient, the latter the material cause; that the earth is spherical, and placed in the centre, being exactly balanced by its distance from the heavens, so that there is no cause why it should move one way rather than another; that the first men were produced from mud, by the action of heat upon cold; that the frame of the world is liable to decay, but the universe itself remains the same; and that the chief seat of the soul is the heart." Parmenides adhered more closely to the Pythagorean doctrine than Xenophanes, the founder of the Eleatic sect; for, while the latter considered the universe as possessing within itself a divine force, the former supposed the Deity to be an informing principle, or intellectual fire, diffused throughout the universe, but more especially residing in the extreme sphere of the world; on which account he is metaphorically represented by this philosopher as a crown of light, inclosing within its circumference the celestial orb. *Ensfield's Hist. Phil.* b. ii.

PARMENIO, a distinguished Macedonian commander, arose to great reputation under king Philip, who is said to have pronounced him "the only general" he had ever met with. Alexander continued him in his service, and called him more particularly "his friend;" and Parmenio was more attached to his service as a man than as a monarch. He continued to distinguish himself as a general, and as a disinterested adviser of ALEXANDER, sometimes called the Great; and his name of course occurs under that article, and those of GREECE and MACEDON; but an account of the manner of his death has not, we believe, been given. Had Alexander been really Great, he would have cherished a friend who gave him the best advice; but this was not the case. Among other instances that might be mentioned, Parmenio displayed his good sense in endeavouring, though in vain, to divert Alexander from the frantic design of burning the royal palace of Persepolis. This and other interferences were displeasing to the conqueror, and caused Parmenio to be considered by him as envious of his glory. His ruin however, was occasioned by the indiscreet conduct of his own son Philotas. That youth wanted his father's moderation; and, elated by his prince's favour, affected a pomp and splendour which might render him suspected of ambitious views. His father, justly apprehensive of the consequences of this indiscretion, used to say to him "My son, make thyself less." The discontents of the army at the Persian manners assumed by Alexander after the

the death of Darius, having produced a conspiracy against his life, Philotas, on its detection, was involved in the guilt, or at least in the accusation, and was put to the rack. Unable to endure the torture, he named many accomplices, and among the rest his father. Philotas was put to death; but Parmenio, then commanding in Media, was not publicly declared a culprit. Alexander, however, who had now adopted the character and policy of an eastern despot, was resolved to remove the man of whom he stood in awe, and accordingly dispatched a trusty messenger with orders to some officers who served under Parmenio to assist in putting him to death. This was effected in a base and treacherous manner. Approaching the general as he was walking in his pleasure-grounds, they presented him with a letter from the king, and another in which the hand of Philotas was counterfeited; and, while he was intent upon reading them, they stabbed him with repeated wounds. His head was then cut off, and sent to Alexander; whilst the soldiers mournfully interred his remains. Parmenio was in the 70th year of his age, B.C. 330. He died in the greatest popularity; and it has been judiciously observed, that Parmenio obtained many victories without Alexander, but Alexander not one without Parmenio. *Plut. in Alex. Quintus Curtius.*

PARMENTIER (John), a scientific French navigator, was a native of Dieppe, where he was born in the year 1494. He was educated to the mercantile profession; but possessed a love of science, and a spirit of enterprise, by which he acquired celebrity among his contemporaries, and deserved to have his name transmitted with respect to posterity. He also wrote verses on different subjects; of which a collection was published in 1531, quarto, by the author's friend, Peter Crignon, under the title of "Description Nouvelle des Dignités de ce Monde, et de la Dignité de l'Homme, composée en Rithme François, et en Manière d'Exhortation, &c." This volume is extremely scarce, and highly prized by collectors of rare and curious books; but is chiefly valuable on account of the particulars concerning the author, prefixed to it by the editor, which deserve to be extracted. "From the year 1522," says Crignon, "he had applied himself to the science of cosmography, and the study of the wonderful fluctuations of the sea. On these subjects he became profoundly skilled, as he was likewise in the science of astrology. He drew several maps and charts, both spherical and plane, which were of essential service to navigators. He was a man worthy of the esteem of all men of learning, and capable, had his life been prolonged, of reflecting honour on his country by his great enterprises. He was the first pilot who conducted ships to the coast of Brazil, and the first Frenchman who discovered the Indies as far as the island of Samothra or Sumatra, called Trapobane by the ancient cosmographers. It was his intention to have proceeded as far as the Moluccas; and he frequently told me that he was determined, after he should have returned to France, to seek a northern passage, and from thence to pursue his discoveries towards the south." These designs, however, were unhappily frustrated by his death, which took place in 1530, at the island of Sumatra, when he was only thirty-six years of age. *Now. Dict. Hist. Dict. Bibl. Hist. & Crit.*

PARMENTIER (Antony-Augustine), a celebrated French chemist, was born at Montdidier in 1737, of a family long established in that city, various members of which had filled the highest municipal offices.

The premature death of his father, and the smallness of the fortune which he left to a widow and three children of tender years, confined M. Parmentier's early education to a slight knowledge of Latin, which his mother, a woman of spirit and education far above the common, gave him herself. In 1755 he entered upon his apprenticeship with an apothecary of Montdidier; and next year came to Paris to pursue the same business, with a relation who was settled there. Having shown intelligence and

habits of application, he obtained, in 1757, the employment of apothecary in the hospitals of the army of Hanover. The late M. Bayer, one of the most distinguished members of the Institute, then presided over this branch of the service. He was not less commendable for the elevation of his character than for his talents; and, having remarked the regular conduct of young Parmentier, he made him acquainted with M. de Chamousset, intendant-general of the hospitals.

It was from the conversation of these two excellent men, that Parmentier derived the ideas and sentiments which have since given such celebrity to his name. He learned from them two truths, equally despised by those whose duty it is to feel them; namely, the extent and variety of miseries which might be prevented, if the welfare of individuals were more studied; and the number and power of the resources which nature would present against so many scourges, if she was properly questioned and studied on the subject. Accordingly, when his duties fixed him in any town, he visited the manufactories least known in France, and requested permission to work in the laboratories of the most eminent chemists. While in the country, he observed the practice of the German farmers, and even noted down such objects of interest as struck him, when following the army. As it happened, no opportunity was wanting of his viewing all these various objects closely; for he was five times made prisoner, and conveyed to places which he never would have otherwise visited: hence he learned, from his own experience, to what length the horrors of famine were sometimes carried, a course of instruction necessary perhaps to kindle in him that fire of humanity with which he was inflamed during the rest of his long life.

It was prudent, however, that before making public the useful knowledge which he had acquired, or seeking to ameliorate the lot of nations, he should render his own means of existence a little less precarious. He returned therefore at the peace of 1763 to the capital, and resumed, in a more scientific order, the studies connected with his art. The lectures of Nolle, Rouelle, Antoine, and of Bernard de Jussieu, extended his ideas, and assisted him in giving them better method. He acquired in fact a varied and solid intimacy with all the physical sciences; and, the place of inferior apothecary being vacant in the Invalids in 1766, he obtained it after a severe struggle. Means of existence were thus secured to him; and, the administrators of the establishment, observing that his conduct fully justified his recommendations, advised the king in 1772 to make him chief apothecary; a recompence which an unexpected incident rendered more complete than he had even wished or expected. The pharmacy of the Invalids had been managed since the origin of the establishment by the sisters of La Charité; these good ladies, who had cherished young Parmentier so long as he was in a manner their servant, were highly offended when he was placed on a level with them. They teased the king so effectually, and set so many engines at work, that his majesty was obliged to give way; and, after two years controversy, the singular arrangement was made of allowing M. Parmentier to retain all the emoluments of his office, without discharging any of its duties.

This was giving him up entirely to his researches upon subjects of general utility, and from that moment they were uninterrupted. The first opportunity of publishing any results was afforded him in 1771 by the Academy of Besançon. The scarcity of 1769 had directed the attention of statesmen and philosophers to those vegetables which could best supply the place of the ordinary plants; and the Academy made this subject a prize-question, which Parmentier satisfactorily resolved. He endeavoured to prove in his dissertation, that the most useful nutritive substance in vegetables is *starch*; and showed how it might be extracted from the roots and seeds of several indigenous plants, and cleared of the acrid and poisonous principles which accompany it in some vegetables. He also pointed

pointed out the mixtures best calculated to make palatable bread of this starch; or at least a kind of biscuit, adapted for soups. Without doubt, great advantages might be derived from the processes which he suggests; but, as most of these plants are wild and rare, and would cost more than the dearest corn, an absolute famine could alone justify their use. Parmentier was aware that it was much more efficacious to regulate cultivation and domestic economy, so as to render a famine impossible; and with this view he took great pains to recommend the cultivation of the potato, and combated with perseverance the prejudices which opposed the propagation of that beneficial root.

Parmentier, who had become acquainted with the potato in the prisons of Germany, where he frequently had no other food, seconded the views of the ministry by a chemical examination of this root, in which he demonstrated that none of its principles were hurtful. He did more: in order to give the people a taste for it, he cultivated fields of it by the road-side, placing watchmen over them by the day only; thinking himself fortunate when the people were tempted to steal a few of them during the night. He could have wished that the king, as is related of the emperor of China, should have planted the first root in his field: but his majesty did almost as much, for he wore on a full court-day a nosegay of the flowers of the plant on his breast; and nothing more was requisite to induce several great landed proprietors to plant the root.

Wheat itself was the subject of long researches on the part of M. Parmentier; and perhaps he did not render less service by publishing his processes for baking, than by propagating the potato. Chemical analysis having taught him that the bran contains no principle capable of nourishing mankind, he was led to conclude, that to exclude it from bread was to effect a saving; he proved, by experiments, that, by grinding and sifting the flour in such a way as to keep out all the husks, a much whiter, more savoury, and more nutritive, bread was obtained. Previous to these discoveries, this mode of grinding and sifting flour was prohibited under heavy penalties, as being wasteful.

Parmentier studied with scrupulous attention every thing connected with bread; and, as books, he knew, were of little use to millers and bakers, who generally read but little, he prevailed on the government to establish a public baking-school, the pupils of which should propagate the best system in the provinces. He travelled himself, with M. Cadet de Vaux, into Brittany and Languedoc, to propagate his doctrines. He succeeded in dismissing the bran which was mixed with the bread of the army and navy; and, by thus procuring a more wholesome and more agreeable food, he put an end to the multiplicity of abuses of which this mixture was the source. In short, it has been calculated, that, from the progress made in France in the arts of grinding and baking, the quantity of flour now necessary for an individual may be reduced one-third.

Ardent as was Parmentier for the public utility, it may be supposed that he took an active part in the efforts occasioned by the last war to supply the place of colonial produce. It was he, in short, who brought the syrup of raisins to perfection; that preparation, which doubtless cannot be assimilated to sugar, but which nevertheless greatly reduced its consumption, gave a new value to the vineyards, and a new species of luxury to the poor.

These labours, purely agricultural or economical, did not detach Parmentier entirely from those connected more closely with his profession: he had published, in 1774, a translation, with notes, of the "Physical Recreations of Model," a work in which pharmaceutical preparations are more particularly the object; and in 1775 he published an edition of the "Hydraulic Chemistry of Lagaraye," which is merely a collection of receipts for obtaining the principles of medicinal substances without injuring them

by too much heat. Perhaps he would not have remained an indifferent spectator of the great revolution made in chemistry about this time, if the intrigues to which we have alluded had not deprived him of his laboratory at the Invalids; and yet we may venture to say, that the chemical examination of milk and of blood, in which he was assisted by M. Deyeux, is a model of the application of chemistry to the productions of organized bodies and their modifications. In the first of these works the authors compare with the milk of women that of the domestic animals; and in the second they examine the alterations produced in the blood by inflammatory and putrid diseases, and by scurvy; alterations frequently very imperceptible, and far from accounting for the disorders which they occasion, or which they at least accompany.

We have seen how Parmentier's progress was checked, in some measure, by his removal from the Invalids, but he was not forgotten by government; for, when, in 1788, a board of physicians and surgeons was organized for the army, it was wished to place Parmentier there as chief apothecary; but Bayen was still alive, and Parmentier refused to sit above his master. He was, therefore, appointed assistant to Bayen. This institution, like many others, was suppressed by those revolutionists who wished to see no subordination even in medicine: but necessity soon dictated its restoration under the name of the Council of Health for the Armies; and Parmentier, whom the reign of terror had driven from Paris, was recalled to become one of its members. He exhibited, in this career, the same zeal as in every other; and the hospitals of the army were under incalculable obligations to him. But his activity was not confined to the duties of his place: and every thing which was useful called him into action. At the period of the establishment of fire-engines, he assured the public of the perfect salubrity of the waters of the Seine, which has been called in question subsequently. He took an active part in recommending economical soups; he contributed greatly to the propagation of vaccination; it was chiefly he who produced, in the hospitals of Paris, that regularity which now prevails in the apothecary's department; he superintended the great bakehouse where all the bread for the hospitals is baked; the Hospice des Menages was also under his particular superintendence, and he paid the most scrupulous attention to every thing that could better the condition of 800 old persons of both sexes who fill it.

In a word, wherever much labour was wanted for no remuneration, and wherever good was to be done, Parmentier was the first to aid; and his time, his pen, and even his purse, were immediately at the service of the institution. This long and constant habit of watching over the welfare of mankind, actually impressed upon his exterior the character of Benevolence personified. A tall and erect figure, a look at once noble and placid, with locks as white as snow, made this respectable old man the image of goodness and virtue combined. His physiognomy was peculiarly pleasing from the sentiment of the good which he had done. Parmentier was never married: his sister, Madame Houzeau, constantly lived with him, and seconded him in all his labours of benevolence with the zeal of a philanthropist. She died at a period when her affectionate services would have been more necessary than ever to her brother, who began to be seized with a chronic affection of the chest. Grief for her loss aggravated the disorder of this excellent man, and rendered his latter days more painful, but without altering in the least his character or arresting his labours. He was finally removed from life on the 17th of December, 1813, in the 77th year of his age. *Cuvier's Eulogy*, delivered at the Institute. *Monthly Mag.* June 1815.

PARMESAN'. See PARMA.

PARMESAN', *f.* A native of Parma; an inhabitant of Parma.

PARMESAN', *adj.* The name given to a cheese much esteemed among the Italians, and made in that part of Italy

Italy called the Parmesan; the chief place of which is Parma; whence it is conveyed to various parts of Europe. The excellent pasture-grounds of this country are watered by the Po; and the cows, from whose milk this cheese is made, yield a great quantity of it. Of this cheese there are three sorts; the *fromaggio di forma*, about two palms in diameter, and seven or eight inches thick; and the *fromaggio di rabiale* and *di ribolini*, which are not so large. This cheese is of a saffron colour, and the best is kept three or four years.

PARMIGIANO, the usual appellation of FRANCESCO MAZZUOLI, a painter of great and deserved renown, born at Parma in 1505. He acquired the first rudiments of art under the tuition of his two uncles at Parma; and at the age of 16 surprised the partiality of relationship, and even astonished the existing taste of that part of Italy, by the production of a picture of St. John baptizing the Saviour in the River Jordan. But the fame of Raphael and Michael Angelo soon attracted him from his native city to Rome, where he then went; and, taking with him some of his productions, was introduced by their renown to pope Clement VII. who highly honoured and esteemed him. In Rome he attached himself to the study of Michael Angelo and Raphael; and exhibited the loftiness of his mind, by composing a style for himself from the high qualities of those two great men, in conjunction with what he had learned of Corregio. In Rome, and under the immediate influence of this newly-acquired gusto, he painted several pictures, and among them a very fine one which represents the Virgin seated in glory with a book in her hand, and the Infant standing on the clouds, and leaning against her knee; in front is a figure of St. John kneeling upon one knee, pointing with one hand to the Virgin, and turning his face to the observer; and in the background, asleep, is a figure of St. Jerome, who is supposed to have seen this vision, and from which the picture takes its name. Vafari makes especial mention of it; and says that Parmigiano painted it for Donna Maria Bufolino of Citta di Castello, who intended to place it in the church of St. Salvatore del Lauro, in a chapel near the door. In the execution of it, Parmigiano had nearly lost his life; for, notwithstanding the siege of Rome by the Colonnas, he continued working upon it; and some Germans, intent upon plunder, entered his room while he was so engaged. The splendour of the work, however, fortunately so astonished and delighted them, that, though they spared in no excess, but robbed the palaces and churches of every thing they thought worth having, yet they protected the painter, and honoured his abilities. He did not quite complete the picture, and soon after left the city; but not till the soldiers had obliged him to make for them a number of drawings in pen and ink. He was afterwards, in going to see some friends, made a prisoner by other soldiers, from whom he disengaged himself by paying money; and then his uncle, alarmed for his safety, removed him from Rome, and sent him back to Parma. This grand picture was safely lodged in the convent of the Frati della Pace, where it remained in the refectory many years, and was then carried by Julio Bufolino to its original destination, the church at Citta di Castello, where it remained till it was purchased, about the beginning of the present century, by the late marquis of Abercorn: he gave 1500*l.* for it; and sold it, in 1809, to Mr. Davis of Bristol, for 3000 guineas.

Parmigiano, in his return to his native place, stopped at Bologna; and there he painted several pictures, and made a great number of drawings. Among the pictures was a large one for the monks of St. Margaret, of the Virgin, with several saints, which was very highly esteemed by the Caracci, and by Guido was preferred to the St. Cecilia of Raphael. He there also painted a portrait of Charles V. with a figure of Fame crowning him with laurel, which he effected from memory, after seeing the emperor dining in public; and it so gratified his majesty, that he wished to have it; but, Parmigiano stating that it was

not finished, it remained with him, and afterwards passed to the possession of the duke of Mantua.

He at length returned to his native city; and was immediately engaged to paint, in fresco, the vaulted ceiling of the church of Sta. Maria della Steccato; and in the lower part executed six figures; a Moses, three Sibyls, and an Adam and Eve. Of which Mr. Barry, in a letter to Mr. Burke, says, "that they exhibit powers which, if fully displayed, might have exceeded either Raphael or M. Angelo." Unfortunately at this time, when Parmigiano ought to have pursued this great work, and have established his fame upon it, he turned aside to the alluring study of alchemy, and wasted his time and his fortune in vain attempts at transmutations; which only prevented him from exercising his abilities in a more certain mode of obtaining not only gold, but also glory. He died at the age of 35, in 1540.

The ruling features of his style are elegance of form, grace of countenance, contrast in attitude, enchanting chiaroscuro, and blandishment of colour. When these are pure, he is inimitable: but his elegance is often stretched to excessive slenderness, and his grace deformed to affectation. He was a learned designer: to his depth in design, we must ascribe that freedom of execution, those decided strokes of his pencil, which Albano calls divine, and which add grace to the finish of his pictures: they have not indeed all equal impasto of colour, nor equal effect, though some, for the amorè with which they are conducted, have been ascribed to Corregio: such is the Cupid scooping his bow, with the two infants at his feet, one laughing, the other crying, of which there are several repetitions. Such was the delight found in the study of the pictures of Parmigiano, that copies, and excellent ones too, are found all over Italy; and are not unfrequently sold here as originals. The one upon which we have dwelt so minutely above, the Dream of St. Jerome, is of so high a class, that it may rank with the Peter Martyr of Titian, the Transfiguration of Raphael, and the St. Jerome of Dominichino.

The great works of this master are in the churches of Parma, and other towns of Italy, and in the Vatican palace; but they are not numerous. A great number of prints have been engraved from his designs.

It has been stated by some writers, and is generally believed, that Parmigiano, if not the inventor of etching, was the first Italian who successfully practised that art. Strutt says of him, with great justice, that "in the etchings of this great master we discover the hand of the artist, working out a system, as it were, from his own imagination, and striving to produce the forms he wanted to express. We see the difficulty he laboured under; and cannot doubt, from the examination of the mechanical part of the execution of his works, that he had no instruction. It appears to be something entirely new to him, without the knowledge of any thing better. We know that he certainly was not the first inventor of etching, because it was practised in Germany before he was of an age to attempt it; yet it appears as if he had been unacquainted with the prior discovery, or only knew of it imperfectly by report; and in the latter case he might have been nearly as much at a loss as in the former. The spirit and genius which appear through the clouds are such as justly render his etchings exceedingly valuable; and on this account they have been often copied, and sometimes indifferently. The mechanical part of them is scratched in with the point, often badly corroded with the aquafortis, and retouched with the graver, without the least appearance of knowledge as an engraver. But, looking beyond these defects to the sweet characters of the heads, to the elegant turns of the figures, and to the beauty and simplicity of the composition of these rude sketches, what is wanting in the excellency of the mechanical part of the art is abundantly supplied to the judicious eye in the fire and animation of the master. The copies are always better than the originals, with respect

to the regularity of the workmanship; but even the best of them are exceedingly defective in style and spirit, so that they are easily distinguished upon comparison. Good impressions of the originals are very rare; such, I mean, as are not re-touched. From the foulness of the copper upon which he engraved, and the little skill he had in managing the aquafortis, his etchings are seldom clear or perfect in their appearance, though some indeed are greatly superior to others in this respect; and those perhaps he executed in the latter part of his life. It is also said he engraved many prints on wooden blocks in chiaroscuro; but it is much more likely, as Bafau justly observes, that he was only the designer and director of these works, and that they were executed by Ugo da Carpi, Andrea Andreani, and other masters."

Parmigiano's cousin and pupil Giralamo has been already noticed under his proper name MAZZUOLO, vol. xiv. p. 585.

PARMILLIEU', a town of France, in the department of the Isère: twenty-four miles east-north-east of Lyons.

PARMON'CA, a town of Peru, in the audience of Lima, near the sea: thirty-five miles north-north-west of Guaura.

PARNAPIACA'BA, a river of Brasil, which runs into the Atlantic in lat. 24. 12. S.

PARNAS'SA, a town of Hindoostan: fifteen miles south-south-east of Allahabad.

PARNAS'SIA, *f.* [altered by Tournefort from the old name of *Gramen Parnassi*, which has been appropriated to this most curious and elegant plant, because it appears really to be what Dioscorides terms the Grass of Parnassus. Not that it has any thing to do with the grasses, properly so called; but he describes it as "having ivy-like leaves, a white and pleasantly-scented flower, with small not ineffectual seed, five or six roots as thick as the finger, white and soft." This description sufficiently answers to our Parnassia, except that we know of no smell in the flowers.] In botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order tetragynia, natural order campanaceæ, *Lin. MSS.* (capparides, *Juss.*) Generic characters—Calyx: perianthium inferior, in five, deep, elliptic-oblong, spreading, permanent segments. Corolla: petals five, roundish, striated, concave, spreading; nectaries five, opposite to the petals, each a roundish or oblong fleshy scale, fringed with from three to thirteen erect marginal stalks, bearing every one a small globe, shorter than the petals. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, the length of the nectaries, separately inflexed for a time over the germen; antheræ incumbent, depressed. Pistillum: germen superior, ovate, large, sessile; style none, but an aperture in its place; stigmas four, obtuse, permanent, enlarged in the fruit. Pericarpium: capsule ovate, somewhat quadrangular, of one cell and four valves, the partitions from the centre of each valve, each bearing a furrowed parallel receptacle. Seeds several, oblong, ascending.—*Essential Character.* Calyx in five deep segments; petals five; nectaries five, fringed with stalked globules; capsule of four-valves, with many seeds. There are four species.

1. *Parnassia palustris*, common marsh-parnassia, or grass of Parnassus: leaves heart-shaped; petals sessile, emarginate; nectaries with numerous segments. Root perennial, small, whitish, fibrous; putting forth several stems and leaves in tufts. Stems erect, unbranched, somewhat twisted, having five sharp corners, a span high, slender, smooth, having only a single embracing leaf below the middle, and a single flower at the top. Root-leaves petioled, ovate, pointed, quite entire, bright green above, underneath cinereous, smooth, netted, nine lines long, six or seven lines wide. Petioles grooved above, and an inch and half long. Corolla near an inch in diameter: petals a little scalloped at the edges, slightly emarginate, white with semitransparent greyish veins. Nectaries green, the globules yellow, from ten to fifteen, generally thirteen. Stamens only half as long as the petals, at first not longer than the germen, but each in order becomes longer

than the rest, as it sheds its pollen on the orifice of the germen, which closes as soon as all the antheræ have shed their pollen. Linnaeus also observes, that, whilst this plant is in flower, the germen is open at the top, that the stamens lay their antheræ alternately upon the orifice, and, having discharged their pollen, recede to the petals. The elegant nectaries, terminated by threads, each tipped with a little yellow pellucid sphere, sufficiently distinguish this plant. Capsule ovate-globular, terminated by the four reflex stigmas, obsoletely four-grooved, one-celled or incompletely four-celled, four-valved. Receptacles four, spongy, oblong, narrow. Seeds irregular like saw-dust, with an oblong turgid nucleus in the middle, and surrounded with a membranaceous rim at the side, of a russet colour. The nectary of this plant has been shown on the BOTANY Plate VIII. fig. 25. and the fructification on Plate XI. fig. 18-22. of the same article, vol. iii.

Parnassia is a native of most parts of Europe, by the side of bogs and moors, and in wet meadows; flowering in July and August. Dr. Sibthorp gathered it on the Bithynian Olympus; and there is every reason to believe it may grow on Parnassus, and other Grecian hills; whereas *Convallaria bifolia*, which some botanists suppose to be what Dioscorides meant, is not known to be a Grecian plant, but is rather confined to the northern parts of Europe.

2. *Parnassia Caroliniana*, or Carolina grass of Parnassus: leaves almost orbicular; petals nearly sessile; nectaries deeply three-cleft. Discovered by M. Bosc on bogs in North Carolina. It was sent to Kew garden in 1802 (not 1782, as noted in Curtis 1459.) by the late Mr. Masson; and is hardy in our climate, flowering in autumn. This has altogether the habit of the preceding, but is somewhat larger. The leaves are more orbicular; petals more elliptical, entire, not emarginate, the lines green, and very numerous, the whole of the petals of a greenish cast. Nectaries remarkably different, being deeply divided into three awl-shaped segments only, with a yellow ball upon each point. Mr. Aiton mentions this species as flowering in May and June; Dr. Sims from July to September. It is represented at fig. 2. on the engraving with Herb PARIS, p. 443.

3. *Parnassia asarifolia*, or kidney-leaved grass of Parnassus: leaves kidney-shaped; petals with claws; nectaries oblong, with three terminal segments. Native of bogs in North America, flowering in the latter part of summer. M. Ventenat described it from the collection at Malmaison. This differs from both the foregoing in having shorter or kidney-shaped leaves; petals furnished with considerable claws; nectaries of an elongated and linear form, divided, at the upper part only, into three brittle-like segments, tipped with darker-coloured globules. The petals moreover seem to be smaller, and more rounded, than in the *Caroliniana*; entire, and not, as in the *palustris*, emarginate. We have not heard of this any more than the following, in the English gardens.

4. *Parnassia fimbriata*, or fringe-flowered grass of Parnassus: leaves kidney-shaped; petals fringed at the lower part, with entire claws; nectaries palmate, with numerous segments. Gathered by Mr. Archibald Menzies on mountains on the north-west coast of America. This species appears to agree with the last in habit, but the flowers are essentially different. The claws of the petals are smooth and entire, but the base of each petal itself is copiously fringed with fine long capillary segments. The nectaries are palmate, mostly resembling those of the first species, which they seem to approach in the number of their segments, but those segments are of a much shorter proportion. The stem-leaf is much nearer the flower than the root; the radical ones are remarkably hollowed out at their base, close to the lateral ribs, which are connected with one another by a common base, like the divisions of a pedate leaf, and have a very elegant appearance.

Propagation and Culture. The two first species may be taken up from the natural place of growth, with balls of

earth to the roots, planted in pots filled with pretty-strong fresh undunged earth, and placed in a shady situation, where, if they are constantly watered in dry weather, they will thrive very well, and flower every summer; but, if planted in the full ground, it should be in a very moist shady border, otherwise they will not live; and these should be as duly watered as those in the pots in dry weather, to make them produce strong flowers. They may be propagated by parting their roots, which should be done in March, before they put out new leaves; but the roots should not be divided too small, for that will prevent their flowering the following summer. These roots should always be planted in pretty strong fresh earth, for they will not thrive in a light rich soil. In the spring they must be constantly watered, if the season should prove dry, otherwise they will not flower; nor should they be parted oftener than every third year, to have them strong.

PARNASSIAN, *adj.* [from *Parnassus*.] Belonging to mount Parnassus.

PARNASSIDES, *f.* [from *Parnassus*.] The Muses.

PARNASSUS, in ancient geography and mythology, a mountain of Greece, in the Phocide, consecrated by the poets to the Muses, thence called Parnassides, and to Apollo and Bacchus. It was situated to the south-east of the Crisean gulf, and north-west of the river Cephissus; near Delphos, and the mounts Cithæron and Helicon. It had two tops (Ovid, Lucan); the one called *Cirrhæa*, sacred to Apollo; and the other *Nijæ*, sacred to Bacchus (Juvenal). It was covered with bay-trees (Virgil); and was originally called *Larnassus*, from Deucalion's *larnax*, or ark, thither conveyed by the flood (Stephanus on Apollonius); but after the flood *Parnassus*, from *Har Nahas*, changing the *h* into *p*, the Hill of Divination or Augury (Peucerus); the oracle of Delphos standing at its foot.

Chandler, who visited it about the middle of the last century, describes it as follows: Parnassus was the western boundary of Phocis; and, stretching northward from about Delphi towards the Oetæan mountains, separated the western Locri from those who possessed the sea-coast before Eubœa. It was a place of refuge to the Delphians in times of danger. In the deluge which happened under Deucalion, the natives were saved on it by following the cry of wolves. On the invasion by Xerxes, some transported their families over to Achaia; but many concealed themselves in the mountain, and in Corycium, a grotto of the Nymphs. All Parnassus was renowned for sanctity, but Corycium was the most noted among the hallowed caves and places. "On the way to the summit of Parnassus," says Pausanias, "as much as sixty stadia beyond Delphi, is a brazen image; and from thence the ascent to Corycium is easier for a man on foot, and for mules and horses. Of all the caves in which I have been, this appeared to me the best worth seeing. On the coasts, and by the sea-side, are more than can be numbered; but some are very famous both in Greece and in other countries. The Corycian cave exceeds in magnitude those I have mentioned, and for the most part may be passed through without a light. It is sufficiently high: and has water, some springing up, and yet more from the roof, which petrifies; so that the bottom of the whole cave is covered with sparry icicles. The inhabitants of Parnassus esteem it sacred to the Corycian Nymphs, and particularly to Pan. From the cave to reach the summits of the mountain is difficult even to a man on foot. The summits are above the clouds; and the women called *Thyades* madden on them in the rites of Bacchus and Apollo." Their frantic orgies were performed yearly. Wheler and his company ascended Parnassus from Delphi, some on horses, by a track between the stadium and the clefts of the mountain. Stairs were cut in the rock, with a strait channel, perhaps a water-duct. In a long hour, after many traverses, they gained the top; and, entering a plain, turned to the right towards the summits

of Castalia, which are divided by deep precipices. From this eminence they had a fine prospect of the gulf of Corinth, and of the coast; Mount Cirphis appearing beneath them as a plain, bounded on the east by the bay of Asprospitia, and on the west by that of Salona. A few shepherds had huts there. They returned to the way which they had quitted, and crossed a hill covered with pines and snow. On their left was a lake, and beyond it a peak, exceedingly high, white with snow. They travelled to the foot of it through a valley, four or five miles in compass; and rested by a plentiful fountain called Drosogio, the stream boiling up a foot in diameter, and nearly as much above the surface of the ground. It runs into the lake, which is about a quarter of a mile distant to the south-east. They did not discover Corycium, or proceed farther on; but, keeping the lake on the right, came again to the brink of the mountain, and descended by a deep and dangerous track to Racovi, a village four or five miles eastward from Delphi. It was the opinion of Wheler, that no mountain in Greece was higher than Parnassus; that it was not inferior to mount Cenis among the Alps; and that, if detached, it would be seen at a greater distance than even Mount Athos. The summits are perpetually increasing, every new fall of snow adding to the perennial heap, while the sun has only power to thaw the superficies. Castalis Pleistus and innumerable springs are fed, some invisibly, from the lakes and reservoirs, which, without these drains and subterraneous vents, would swell, especially after heavy rain and the melting of snow, so as to fill the valleys, and run over the tops of the rocks down upon Delphi, spreading wide an inundation, similar, as has been furnished, to the Deucalionian deluge. *Chandler's Travels in Greece*, 4to. 1776.

More recently this classical spot has been described by that active and enterprising traveller Mr. Galt.—"We left Livadia after breakfast; and, in the course of the afternoon, arrived at Castri, the ancient Delphi. Our ride, for nearly half the way, was through a valley, wild, romantic, and magnificent, till we reached Rakova, and its fertile environs of cotton-fields and vineyards. From Rakova to Castri, the road, ascending and descending, affords, at every turning, the finest views imaginable of savage scenery. Considering the impressions which the appearance of nature makes here, we could not but assent to the propriety of the ancients in regarding Parnassus as the peculiar region of the Muses.

"The ruins of Delphi consist of mutilated inscriptions, extensive terraces, and a few fragments of pillars. It seems no longer possible to discover the site of the great Temple of Apollo. It was, probably, where there is now a small monastery, in the midst of an olive-grove. In that neighbourhood the niches in the rocks, for votive offerings, are most numerous. It was also generally the custom, after the establishment of Christianity, to appropriate the old consecrated ground to the service of the new religion. The Castalian spring still flows; and we enjoyed a draught, but without any effectual inspiration. A square basin, excavated in the rock from which it issues, is still almost entire. Two wild fig-trees overhang the source, and a drapery of ivy falls over a niche, and partly conceals a small chapel constructed in a hollow of the precipice. In a chasm above the spring, the traces of the stairs remain, by which the priests performed their pantomimes, to overawe the pilgrim as he knelt at the fountain to drink.

"The scenery round Castri is solemn and grand. The village is overhung by lofty grey precipices; a reclusive valley is seen, verdant and rural, far in the hollow below; and the western prospect, diversified by the gulf of Salona, comprehends a long remote range of the mountains of the Morea. When we had reached the bottom of the valley, the sun was on the edge of the horizon; and the effect of his slanting light on the alpine features of Parnassus produced an awful and stupendous effect.

The

The mountain, towards Turco Cori, appears like a cairn, composed of hills instead of stones. The detached form of the *ten principal peaks* probably gave rise to the fable of the Muses and Apollo having made it their seat: and the solemnity produced on the mind, by the impression of the surrounding scenery, tended, no doubt, to sanction the fiction." *Galt's Voyages and Travels*, 4to. 1812.

The Corycian cave, in particular, has been described by other travellers, but no where more perspicuously, or with more felicity, than by Mr. Raikes. "The narrow and low entrance of the cave, spread at once into a chamber 330 feet long, by nearly 200 wide; the stalactites from the top hung in the most graceful forms, the whole length of the roof, and fell, like drapery, down the sides. The depth of the folds was so vast, and the masses thus suspended in the air was so great, that the relief and fullness of these natural hangings were as complete as the fancy could have wished. They were not like concretions or incrustations, mere coverings of the rock; they were the gradual growth of ages, disposed in the most simple and majestic forms, and so rich and large as to accord with the size and loftiness of the cavern. The stalagmites below and on the sides of the chamber were still more fantastic in their forms than the pendants above, and struck the eye with the fancied resemblance of vast human figures. At the end of this great vault, a narrow passage leads down a wet slope of rock; with some difficulty, from the slippery nature of the ground on which I trod, I went a considerable way on, until I came to a place where the descent grew very steep, and, my light being nearly exhausted, it seemed best to return. On my way back, I found, half buried in the clay, on one side of the passage, a small antique patera, of the common black-and-red ware. The incrustation of the grotto had begun to appear; but it was unbroken, and I was interested in finding this simple relic of the homage once paid to the Corycian nymphs by the ancient inhabitants of the country. The stalagmitic formations on the entrance of this second passage are wild as imagination can conceive, and of the most brilliant whiteness. It would not require a fancy, lively, like that of the ancient Greeks, to assign this beautiful grotto as a residence to the nymphs. The stillness which reigns through it, only broken by the gentle sound of the water, which drops from the point of the stalactites, the *υδαρ' αειροισα* of the grotto of the nymphs in the *Odyssey*, the dim light admitted by its narrow entrance, and reflected by the white ribs of the roof, with all the miraculous decorations of the interior, would impress the most insensible with feelings of awe, and lead him to attribute the influence of the scene to the presence of some supernatural being." *Walpole's Memoirs relating to Turkey*, 4to. 1819.

PARNASSUS was also a town of Asia, in Galatia, upon the route from Cæsarea to Ancyra, between Afsona and Nyssa, according to the Itinerary of Antonine.

PARN'DORF, a town of the duchy of Wurzburg: three miles south-west of Königshofen in der Grabfeld.

PARNE', a town of France, in the department of the Mayenne: six miles south-east of Laval.

PAR'NEL, a town of Hindoostan, in Dowlatabad: fifteen miles south-west of Amednagur.

PAR'NEL, *f.* [diminutive of *petronella*, Ital.] A punk; a slut. *Obsolete*.

PAR'NELL (Thomas), a pleasing English poet, was descended from an ancient family in Cheshire. His father, who had followed the parliamentary cause in the civil wars of Charles I. upon the Restoration went to Ireland, where he purchased an estate. His eldest son, Thomas, was born at Dublin in 1679, and received his school-education in that city, whence, at the age of thirteen, he was transferred to the college. Of his progress in that seminary, nothing particular is recorded; but his writings sufficiently show that he laid in a respectable store of classical learning. He was admitted to the degree of M.A. in 1700, took deacon's orders in the same year, Vol. XVIII. No. 1270.

and was ordained priest three years afterwards. In 1705 he was presented to the archdeaconry of Clogher, and about the same time married a lady of great beauty and merit. He now began to make those frequent excursions to England, in which the most desirable part of his life was thenceforth passed. His social qualities caused him to be universally well received; but his first connexions were principally with the Whigs, at that time in power; and he was familiar with their most distinguished men of letters, as Addison, Congreve, and Steele. Towards the latter part of queen Anne's reign, when the Tories were triumphant, Parnell, influenced, it is thought, by Swift, their zealous partisan, deserted his former friends, and joined in close union with that celebrated wit, and his associates, Pope, Gay, and Arbuthnot. Swift introduced him to lord-treasurer Harley; and, with the dictatorial air he was fond of assuming, insisted upon the treasurer's going with his staff in his hand into the anti-chamber, where Parnell was waiting, to welcome him. Yet Parnell could never claim any high rank in literature; nor was there much to be expected from his political services.

Though his biographer, Goldsmith, is disposed to throw all possible lustre on his character, he cannot raise it higher than that of a benevolent good-natured man, pleasant in company when in spirits, much attached to his particular friends, and so much addicted to society that he preferred what was indifferent to solitude. "Every year," it is said, "as soon as he had collected the rents of his estate, and the revenue of his benefices, he came over to England, and spent some months, living in an elegant style, and rather impairing than improving his fortune." He was at one time an assiduous preacher in the London pulpits, with a view of rising to notice; but the change of the ministry at queen Anne's death, destroyed his brilliant prospects in the church, and limited his future advancement to the favour of private friends. By means of Swift's recommendation to archbishop King, he obtained a prebend, and the valuable living of Finglafs. His domestic happiness received a severe shock in 1712, by the death of his beloved wife. The loss is said to have had such an effect upon his spirits, as to lead him into those habits of intemperance in wine which shortened his life; and Goldsmith indulgently represents him as "in some measure a martyr to conjugal fidelity;" but it can scarcely be doubted that his mode of life had already formed in him that convivial disposition which is with so much difficulty kept within bounds. After his wife's death, company grew still more necessary to him; and, when condemned to a retreat into the wilds of Ireland, he could not refrain from frequenting the society he found there, whilst it was the object of his contempt and ridicule in his letters to his English friends. He died at Chester, on his way to Ireland, in July 1717, in the thirty-eighth year of his age; and was buried, without any monumental record, in Trinity-church in that city.

Parnell was the author of several pieces, both in prose and verse. He wrote the *Life of Homer* prefixed to Pope's *Iliad*, which, however, on account of the stiffness of the style, cost that poet much labour in the correction. He likewise wrote a *Life of Zoilus*, meant as a satire against Theobald and Dennis; and some papers in the *Spectator* and *Guardian*. None of these are masterpieces, but they display learning and imagination. It is as a poet that he is now exclusively known and valued. After his death, Pope made a selection of such of his compositions as he thought worth preserving, and published them in one volume 8vo. 1721. They have ever since formed a part of the body of approved English poetry, and have been often reprinted. The characteristics of these pieces are ease, sprightliness, fancy, clearness of language, and melody of versification. Though not ranking among the noblest or most finished productions of the British muse, they claim a place among the most pleasing. Their sentiments are elegant, and their morality pure. Several of them are translations or imitations

tions happily executed. Another volume of posthumous pieces was printed at Dublin in 1758, and its contents have since been added to the former in the collections of English poets. In bulk they much exceed the first publication; but in merit they are so much inferior, that they are rather a drawback from Parnell's reputation than an accession to it. Dr. Johnson has thought it superfluous to enquire into their authenticity, or canvass their merits; and he expressly limits his commendations, which are by no means scanty, to the pieces published by Pope. Of these, the most admired is *The Hermit*; as to the origin of which story, see the *Monthly Magazine* for April 1813. See also Goldsmith's *Life of Parnell*, and Johnson's *Lives of the Poets*.

PAR'NES, in ancient geography, a mountain of Greece, in Attica, on which were a statue of Jupiter Parnetianus in bronze; another of Jupiter and Semelé; and another altar on which the adjacent inhabitants sacrificed to Jupiter, under the appellations of the Beneficent and Rainy, or *Pluvius*. This mountain abounded with bears and wild boars.

PAR'NIPA, a river of Brasil, which runs into the Atlantic in lat. 18. 10. S.

PAR'NON, in ancient geography, a lofty mountain of the Argolide, on which were placed the Hermæan statues of Mercury, which, in the time of Pausanias, indicated the limits of Laconia, and of the territory of the Tagetes, a people of Arcadia.

PAR'NOT, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Marne: five miles north-west of Bourbonne.

PA'RO, a small island near the coast of Nicaragua, in Salinas Bay. Lat. 10. 3. N. lon. 85. 36. W.

PA'RO, or PAROGONG', a town of Bootan, (Thibet,) and capital of a district, with a castle situated at the base of a lofty mountain, in which the governor resides; celebrated for its manufacture of idols, and arms; particularly swords, daggers, and the bars of arrows: twelve miles south-west of Tassafudon. Lat. 27. 43. N. lon. 89. 32. E.

PA'RO HO'TUN, a town of Chinese Tartary: 288 miles north-north-east of Pekin. Lat. 44. 2. N. lon. 118. 47. E.

PARO'CHE, [*parochia*, barb. Lat.] A parish.—Saint Peter is patron of the *parochie* and dedication of Westminster. *Spelman*.

PARO'CHIAL, *adj.* [*parochialis*, from *parochia*, low Lat.] Belonging to a parish.—Every church is either cathedral, conventual, or *parochial*. Cathedral is that, where there is a bishop seated, so called *à cathedra*; conventual consists of regular clerks, professing some order of religion, or of a dean and chapter, or other college of spiritual men; *parochial* is that which is instituted for saying divine service, and administering the holy sacraments to the people, dwelling within a certain compass of ground near unto it. *Cowel*.—The married state of *parochial* pastors hath given them the opportunity of setting a more exact and universal pattern of holy living to the people committed to their charge. *Atterbury*.

PAROCHIALITY, *f.* State of being parochial.—For this especial reason the second rate should be quashed, because in confirming the second rate it would be for the justices to take upon themselves in effect to determine the *parochiality* of colleges. *Dr. Marriott on the Rights of both the Univ.* 1769.

PARO'CHIALLY, *adv.* In a parish; by parishes.—The bishop was to visit his whole diocese, *parochially*, every year. *Bp. Stillingfleet.* 1690.

PARO'CHIAN, *adj.* Belonging to a parish.—A computation is taken of all the *parochian* churches. *Bacon's Confid. on the Ch. of England*.

PARO'CHIAN, *f.* A parishioner.—[They] have incited their *parochians* and their auditories to conceive erroneous opinions. *Strype's Life of Abp. Parker*.

PARO'CHUS, *f.* Among the Romans, one who provided mules, tents, and carriages, with all other necessities, for the provincial magistrates in their journeys, as

also for ambassadors; for, in the early times of the republic, they had their charges borne by the public, that the allies or provincials might not be burdened.

PAROD'IC, or PARODICAL, *adj.* [from the Gr. *παρὰ*, through, and *ὁδός*, a way.] In algebra, regularly ascending or descending; as the indices of the unknown quantity in affected equations.

PAROD'ICAL, *adj.* [from *parody*.] Copying after the manner of parody.—This version is very paraphrastic, and sometimes *parodical*. *Warton's Hist. E. P.*

PAR'ODY, *f.* [*parodie*, Fr. *παρῳδία*, Gr.] A kind of writing, in which the words of an author or his thoughts are taken, and by a slight change adapted to some new purpose.—They were satirick poems, full of *parodies*; that is, of verses patched up from great poets, and turned into another sense than their author intended them. *Dryden's Orig. and Progr. of Satire*.—The imitations of the ancients are added, together with some of the *parodies* and allusions to the most excellent of the moderns. *Pope's Dunciad*.

The parody was first set on foot by the Greeks; from whom we borrow the name. It comes near to what some of our late writers call *travesty*. Others have more accurately distinguished between a parody and burlesque: and they observe, that the change of a single word may parody a verse, or of a single letter a word. Thus, in the last case, Cato exposed the inconstant disposition of Marcus Fulvius Nobilior, by calling him *Mobilior*.

Another kind of parody consists in the mere application of some known verse, or part of a verse, of a writer, without making any change in it, with a view to a different understanding of it. A fourth instance is that of writing verses in the taste and style of authors little approved.

The rules of parody regard the choice of a subject, and the manner of treating it. The subject should be a known and celebrated work: as to the manner, it should be by an exact imitation, and an intermixture of good-natured pleasantry. *Mem. de l'Acad. des Belles Lettres*, tom. viii.

The French term it *parodying an instrumental air* when it is made vocal, by writing or adjusting words to it. In good compositions, the melody is made for the words; but, in parodying an air, the words are set to the melody. In ballads, and songs of many stanzas to the same air, Rousseau observes, that all but the first are parodies, which is easily discovered by the liberties taken with the rhythm by the fingers, and the want of musical knowledge in the poet.

To PAR'ODY, *v. a.* To copy by way of parody.—I have translated, or rather *parodied*, a poem of Horace, in which I introduce you advising me. *Pope*.

PARO'L, *adj.* [from *parole*, Fr.] By word of mouth.—Proofs (to which in common speech the name of evidence is usually confined) are either written or *parol*, that is, by word of mouth. *Blackstone*.—He is tenant by custom to the planets, of whom he holds the twelve houses by lease *parol*. *Overbury's Charact.*

PAROL CONVEYANCES, such as were formerly, in many instances, made by *parol*, or word of mouth only, without writing; but, this occasioning a variety of frauds, the stat. 29 Car. II. c. 3. enacts, that no lease, estate, or interest in lands, tenements, or hereditaments, made by livery of seisin, or by *parol* only, (except leases not exceeding three years from the making, and whereon the reserved rent is at least two thirds of the real value,) shall be looked upon as of greater force than a lease or estate at will: nor shall any assignment, grant, or surrender, of any interest in any freehold hereditaments, be valid; unless in both cases the same be put in writing, and signed by the party granting, or his agent lawfully authorized, in writing.

PARO'LE, *f.* [French, contracted from *parabola*, Lat. *παράβολη*, Gr. whence the Span. *palabra*, and the Ital. *parola*; and from the verb *parabolare*, first the old Fr. *paroler*,

roler, and then *parler*. See *Menage*.] Word given as an assurance; promise given by a prisoner not to go away. —Be very tender of your honour, and not fall in love: because I have a scruple whether you can keep your *parole*, if you become a prisoner to the ladies. *Swift*.

Love's votaries enthral each other's soul,
Till both of them live but upon *parole*. *Cleaveland*.

PAROLE, in a military sense, the promise made by a prisoner of war, when he has leave to go any-where, of returning at a time appointed, or not to take up arms till exchanged. A breach of parole in European armies has always been held to be infamous. A person who has once been guilty of it, has no right to be treated as an officer; or to expect quarter should he again fall into the hands of the enemy.

PAROLE means also a word given out every day in orders by the commanding officer, both in camp and garrison, for the purpose of knowing friends from enemies.

PAROLE *fur* **PAROLE**. A military phrase among the French, meaning the mutual word which is given by two persons who come to a parley, though opposed to one another in the war, whereby they promise not to attack, or take any advantage during the intercourse. *James's Mil. Dict.*

PARONE, a town of Hindoostan, in the country of the Nays: thirty-two miles south of Calicut.

PARONOMA'SIA, *f.* [Gr. formed from *παρ*, near, and *ονομα*, name; q. d. proximity or resemblance of two names.] A pun, or figure, whereby words nearly alike in sound, but of very different senses, are affectedly or designedly used. As, Not *friends* but *fiends* were here. So Tully to Antony, *Cum in gremio mimarum mentem & mentum deponeres*; and to Atticus, *Consil ipse parvo animo & pravo, facie magis quam facetiis ridiculus*. And that of P. Chrysológus, *Monochorum cellula jam non eremiticæ sed aromaticæ*. And, in another place, *Hoc agant in cellis quod angeli in cœlis*. Among the Greeks the paronomasia was very familiar. Thus Herodotus, *Παθημασιν, μαθημασιν, quæ nocent, docent*. And thus that inscription of Apollodorus, a celebrated painter, on one of his pieces: *Μορησείαι τις μάλλον, η μιμησείαι*; "It will be easier to deride than to imitate."

PARONOMASTICAL, *adj.* Belonging to a paronomasy.—*Paronomastical* allusion is sufficient; and Thyatira of itself sounds near enough to Thygatira. *More on the Sev. Churches*.

PARONYCH'IA, [from the Gr. *παρ* and *ονυξ*, the nail.] An abscess towards the extremity of the finger, more commonly known by the name of whitlow.

PARONYCH'IA, *f.* in botany, a name that has been applied to several plants, according as commentators were pleased to conjecture one or other of them to be the *παρωνυχια* of Dioscorides, a point which nobody could ascertain. He describes it as "a diminutive shrub, growing in stony places, and resembling purslane, but of more humble growth, though the leaves are larger. The whole plant bruised is a remedy for whitlows and scald heads." Certain species of the following genera have by different botanists been supposed to be the true paronychchia: *Achyranthes*, *Asplenium*, *Celofia*, *Draba*, *Houstonia*, *Ilcebrum*, *Mollugo*, and *Saxifraga*. Of these, the *Draba verna*, in particular, has most commonly obtained the name of whitlow-grafs.

PARON'YMA, *f.* in grammar, are words which have some affinity in their etymology.

PARON'YMOUS, *adj.* Resembling another word.—Shew your critical learning in the etymology of terms, the synonymous and the *paronymous* or kindred names. *Watts*.

PAROPAM'ISUS, in ancient geography, a province of India, the eastern limit of which, in Alexander's arrangement of boundaries, was the river Cophenes. According to the ideas of Ptolemy, it lay between the countries which the moderns name Khorasan and Cabul; and

answers to the tract between Herat and Cabul. Alexandria was regarded as the capital. This province was separated from Bactria by the chain of mountains called Paropamisus.

PAR'OPAL, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; fourteen miles north-west of Volconda.

PAR'OPUS, in ancient geography, a town at the north of Sicily. Now *Colifano*.

PAROQUET', *f.* [*perroquet*, Fr.] A small species of parrot. See **PSITTACUS**.—The great, red, and blue, are parrots; the middlemost, called popinjays; and the lesser *paroquets*: in all above twenty sorts. *Grew*.

I would not give my *paroquet*
For all the doves that ever flew.

Prior.

PARORCHID'IUM, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρ*, and *ορχις*, testicle.] A case in which the testicles do not descend into the scrotum, but remain within the ring of the external oblique muscle, or pass no farther than the groin. A little before birth, these bodies usually descend into the scrotum; but it sometimes happens that this occurrence is retarded by causes with which we are not satisfactorily acquainted, and, in particular individuals, the testicles even continue within the abdomen during life. Mr. Pott remarks, that he knows not of any particular inconvenience arising from the detention of a testicle within the cavity of the belly; but its lodging in the groin exposes it to be hurt by accidents. When hurt, it may be mistaken for a different disease, and occasion very improper treatment. See **SURGERY**.

PA'ROS, an island in the Grecian archipelago, and one of those anciently called *Cyclades*; situated south of Delos, north of Ios and Sicinos, west of Naxos and very near it, and east of Olios or Antiparos, from which latter it is separated by a narrow channel. It was known by various names among the ancients; it was called *Minos*, because it was conquered by Minos, the renowned king of Crete; before that time, it was denominated *Paëtia*; and since it has repeatedly changed its name, till it took, and at last retained, that of Paros, either from the name of the son of Jason the argonaut, or of a certain Arcadian, son of Parrhasius. Although it was of small extent, not exceeding 36 miles in circumference, it formerly prided itself on its power and riches, which gave it great influence on the condition of the neighbouring islands. For these it was indebted to the activity of its commerce, and the culture of the arts; its excellent harbours were favourable to navigation and trade; and its quarries of beautiful marble inspired a taste for the arts, of which Phidias and Praxiteles, who were born in this island, eminently availed themselves. We may add that the valour of its inhabitants for a long time maintained its security and its liberty. The Parians, in the time of their prosperity, joined Darius in his expedition against Greece, and assisted him with a considerable squadron; but, after the victory of Miltiades and Marathon, they were reduced to great straits by that general. After the battle of Salamis, Themistocles subjected them to Athens, and exacted from them large contributions by way of punishment for the succours they had given to the Persians. From the dominion of the Ptolemies of Egypt, to which the Cyclades were constrained to submit, Paros reverted to that of the Athenians, till their conquerors were expelled by Mithridates the Great. But, when this prince was forced to submit to Sylla, Lucullus, and Pompey, Paros and the other Cyclades were reduced into a province by the Romans, together with Lydia, Phrygia, and Caria.

Its population was considerable when it was subjected to the Ottoman empire by Barbarossa; but since that epoch it has suffered so much by the pillage of the Turks, by the despotism of the government, and by the stay which the squadron of the captain-pacha makes there every year, that its inhabitants have imperceptibly disappeared, and that at this day it presents scarcely any thing

thing but uncultivated fields and villages partly destroyed. Its quarries of beautiful marble are abandoned, and partly filled up with rubbish; so that the descendants of its celebrated artists, whom misery and slavery have degraded, are no longer acquainted with an art which constituted the glory of their country. At the beginning of the last century, the number of its inhabitants was estimated at 6000; but at the present day they are supposed not to exceed 2000. The European consuls have long since withdrawn from it; the Catholics have fled; and the Greeks, who remain, idle and wretched, find themselves exposed every year to the oppression of the officers of the captain-pacha's Squadron, to the sword of the sailors, and to the rapacity of all. Although its extent is not so considerable as that of Naxos, it has in proportion a much greater quantity of land fit for culture. Its mountains are less elevated, its rising grounds less arid, and its plains would be as fertile, if they were as well watered.

The city of Paros, which was the metropolis of the island, is styled by Stephanus a potent city, and one of the largest in the Archipelago. Paros, or, as the natives call it, *Parechia*, is supposed to have been built upon its ruins; the neighbouring country abounding with valuable monuments of antiquity; the very walls of the present city are built with columns, architraves, and pedestals, mingled with pieces of ancient marble of a surprising bigness. Every one knows that Paros was formerly famous for its fine marble; which was of an extraordinary whiteness, and in such request among the ancients, that the best statues used no other. See *MARMOR micans*, vol. xiv. p. 389. It is also known that the Arundelian or Oxford Marbles, more properly called the Parian Chronicle, were written and preserved here. See vol. ii. p. 245. Pliny tells us, that the Parian marble, and no other, was made use of in adorning the frontispiece of the celebrated Labyrinth in Egypt, which was counted one of the wonders of the world. The best quarries were those of Marpetus, or Marpeffus, mentioned by Virgil, and his interpreter Servius. In this mountain are still to be seen caverns of an extraordinary depth, which the modern inhabitants and travellers take to be the ancient quarries. According to Pliny, these quarries were so uncommonly deep, that in the clearest weather the workmen were obliged to use lamps, from which circumstance the Greeks have called the marble *Lychnites*, "worked by the light of lamps." In one of the quarries, distant about four miles from the present city of Parechia, is still to be seen a basso relievo, cut in the rock, and containing 29 figures of nymphs and satyrs, dancing a kind of brawl. This was done, as appears from the inscription, by one Adamas Odryse, in honour of the nymphs. *Stewart's and Revett's Antiq. of Athens*. vol. iv.

The island is provided with several capacious and safe harbours. It is well cultivated; feeds a great number of sheep; and yields wheat, barley, fruit, legumes, and cotton. Before the war of Candi, the inhabitants made a great deal of oil; but, while the army of the Venetians remained on the island, they burnt all the olive-trees. Paros is likewise famous for the fine cattle which it produces, and for its partridges, and wild pigeons. Archilochus, the inventor of the Iambic verse, was a native of Paros. In this island, besides a great number of churches and chapels, are several considerable villages. A large fleet may lie conveniently and securely in the harbour of St. Maria; but the common anchoring-place for the Turkish navy is Drio, on the west side of the island. Lat. 37.4. N. lon. 25.18. E.

PAR'OTID, *adj.* [from the Greek *παρά*, by, and *ωρα*, the ears.] Salivary; so named because near the ears.—Beasts and birds, having one common use of spittle, are furnished with the *parotid* glands, which help to supply the mouth with it. *Grew*.

PAROTID GLAND, the largest of the salivary glands, situated in front of the ear.

PAROTIS, *f.* [Greek.] One of the glandules com-

monly called the almonds of the ears. A tumour in one of those glandules.

PAR'OXYSM, *f.* [from the Greek *παρά*, by, and *οξύω*, to sharpen.] A fit; periodical exacerbation of a disease.—The greater distance of time there is between the *paroxysms*, the fever is less dangerous, but more obstinate. *Arbuthnot*.

PARPAJAH, a town on the north-east coast of the island of Sumatra, on the river Camfer. Lat. 0. 15. N. lon. 102. 45. W.

PARPASARAT', an island in the straits of Malacca, near the coast of Sumatra, about fifty miles in circumference. Lat. 1. 21. N. lon. 102. 15. E.

PARPOO'LY, a town of Hindoostan, in Concan: twenty-eight miles north-north-east of Goa.

PARPOU'R, a town of Bengal: seventy miles north-west of Midnapour.

PARPOU'R, a town of Bengal: eight miles north of Curruckpoor.

PARPUNCTUM, *f.* An ancient coat of mail; a kind of doublet.

PARR, a town of England, in Lancashire, with 1183 inhabitants, including 431 employed in trade and manufactures: five miles north-west of Warrington.

PARR (Catharine), queen of England, was the eldest daughter of Sir Thomas Parr of Kendall. She was first married to John Nevil, lord Latimer; after whose death, by her marriage with Henry VIII. she was raised to the throne. The royal nuptials were solemnized at Hampton-court on the 12th of July, 1543. Being religiously disposed, she was, in the early part of her life, a zealous observer of the Romish rites and ceremonies; but, in the dawning of the Reformation, she became as zealous a promoter of the Lutheran doctrine; yet with such prudence and circumspection as her perilous situation required. Nevertheless, we are told that she was in great danger of falling a sacrifice to the popish faction, the chief of whom was Bishop Gardiner: he drew up articles against her, and prevailed on the king to sign a warrant to commit her to the Tower. This warrant was, however, accidentally dropped, and immediately conveyed to her majesty. What her apprehensions must have been on this occasion may be easily imagined. She knew the monarch; and she could not help recollecting the fate of his former queens. A sudden illness was the natural consequence. The news of her indisposition brought the king to her apartment. He was lavish in expressions of affection, and sent her a physician. His majesty being soon after also somewhat indisposed, she prudently returned the visit; with which the king seemed pleased, and began to talk with her on religious subjects, proposing certain questions, concerning what he wanted her opinion. She answered, that such profound speculations were not suited to her sex; that it belonged to the husband to choose principles for his wife; the wife's duty was, in all cases, to adopt implicitly the sentiments of her husband: and, as to herself, it was doubly her duty, being blessed with a husband who was qualified, by his judgment and learning, not only to choose principles for his own family, but for the most wise and knowing of every nation. "Not so, by St. Mary," replied the king; "you are now become a doctor, Kate, and better fitted to give than receive instruction." She meekly replied, that she was sensible how little she was entitled to these praises; that, though she usually declined not any conversation, however sublime, when proposed by his majesty, she well knew that her conceptions could serve to no other purpose than to give him a little momentary amusement; that she found the conversation a little apt to languish when not revived by some opposition, and she had ventured sometimes to feign a contrariety of sentiment, in order to give him the pleasure of refuting her; and that she also proposed, by this innocent artifice, to engage him into topics whence she had observed, by frequent experience, that she reaped profit and instruction. "And is it



OLD PARR.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1728.

it so, sweetheart?" replied the king; "then we are friends again!" He embraced her with great affection, and sent her away with assurances of his protection and kindness.

The time being now come when she was to be sent to the Tower, the king, walking in the garden, sent for the queen, and met her with great good humour; when, lo, the chancellor, with forty of the guards, approached. He fell upon his knees, and spoke softly with the king, who called him "knave, arrant knave, beast, fool," and commanded him instantly to depart. Henry then returned to the queen, who ventured to intercede for the chancellor: "Ah poor soul," said the king, "thou little knowest how evil he deserveth this grace at thy hands. Of my word, sweetheart, he hath been toward thee an arrant knave: and so let him go." These particulars are but slightly hinted at under the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 640, 1. The king died in January 1547, just three years and a half after his marriage with this second Catharine: who in a short time was again espoused to Sir Thomas Seymour, lord-admiral of England; and in September 1548 she died in childbed. The historians of this period generally insinuate that she was poisoned by her husband, to make way for a projected marriage with the lady (afterwards queen) Elizabeth.

That Catharine Parr was beautiful is beyond a doubt: that she was pious and learned is evident from her writings: and that her prudence and sagacity were not inferior to her other accomplishments, may be concluded from her holding up the passion of a capricious tyrant as a shield against her enemies; and that at the latter end of his days, when his passions were enfeebled by age, and his peevish austerity increased by disease. She wrote, 1. *Queen Catharine Parr's Lamentations of a Sinner*, bewailing the ignorance of her blind life; Lond. 8vo. 1548, 1563. 2. *Prayers or Meditations*, wherein the mynd is stirred patiently to suffer all afflictions here, to set at nought the vaine prosperitee of this worlde, and always to long for the everlastynge felicittee. Collected out of holy workes, by the most virtuous and gracious princeesse Katherine, Queen of Englande, France, and Irelande. Printed by John Wayland, 1545, 4to. 1561, 12mo. 3. *Other Meditations, Prayers, Letters, &c.* unpublished.

PARR (Thomas), or OLD PARR, a remarkable Englishman, who lived in the reigns of ten kings and queens; married a second wife when he was 120, and had a child by her. He was the son of John Parr, a husbandman, of Winnington, in the parish of Alderbury, in the county of Salop, where he was born in the year 1483. Though he lived to the vast age of upwards of 152 years, yet the tenor of his life admitted but of little variety; nor can the detail of it be considered of importance, further than what will arise from the gratification of that curiosity which naturally inquires after the mode of living which could lengthen life to such extreme old age. Following the profession of his father, he laboured hard, and lived on coarse fare. Taylor the water-poet says of him:

Good wholefome labour was his exercise;
Down with the lamb, and with the lark would rise;
In mire and toiling sweat he spent the day,
And to his team he whistled time away:
The cock his night-clock; and, till day was done,
His watch and chief sun-dial was the fun.
He was of old Pythagoras' opinion,
That green cheefe was most wholefome with an onion;
Coarse messin-bread; and, for his daily swig,
Milk, butter-milk, and water, whey and whig:
Sometimes metheglin; and, by fortune happy,
He sometimes sipp'd a cup of ale most nappy;
Cyder or perry, when he did repair
T'a Whisfun-ale, wake, wedding, or a fair,
Or when in Christmas-time he was a guest
At his good landlord's house among the rest:
Else he had little leisure time to waste,
Or at the ale-house huff-cap ale to taste.

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Nor did he ever hunt a tavern-fox;
Ne'er knew a coach, tobacco, or the ———.
His physick was good butter, which the foile
Of Salop yields, more sweet than Candy oil;
And garlic he esteem'd above the rate
Of Venice treacle, or best mithridate.
He entertained no gout, no ache he felt:
The air was good and temperate where he dwelt;
While mavises and sweet-tongu'd nightingales
Did chant him roundelays and madrigals.
Thus living within bounds of Nature's laws,
Of his long lasting life may be some cause.

And the same writer describes him in the two following lines:

From head to heel, his body had all over
A quick-set thick-set natural hairy cover.

The manner of his being conducted to London is also noticed in the following terms: "The right honourable Thomas earl of Arundel and Surrey, earl marshal of England, on being lately in Shropshire to visit some lands and manors which his lordship holds in that county, or for some other occasions, the report of this aged man was signified to his honour, who hearing of so remarkable a piece of antiquity, his lordship was pleased to see him; and in his innate, noble, and Christian, piety, he took him into his charitable tuition and protection, commanding a litter and two horses (for the more easy carriage of a man so feeble and worn with age) to be provided for him; also, that a daughter of his, named Lucy, should likewise attend him, and have a horse for her own riding with him; and, to cheer up the old man, and make him merry, there was an antique-faced fellow, with a high and mighty no-beard, that had also a horse for his carriage. These were all to be brought out of the country to London by easy journeys, the charge being allowed by his lordship; likewise one of his lordship's own servants, named Bryan Kelly, to ride on horseback with them, and to attend and defray all manner of reckonings and expences. All which was done accordingly as follows: Winnington is a parish of Alderbury, near a place called the Welch Pool, eight miles from Shrewsbury; from whence he was carried to Wem, a town of the earl afore-said; and the next day to Shiffnall, a manor-house of his lordship's, where they likewise stayed one night: from Shiffnall they came to Wolverhampton, and the next day to Birmingham, and from thence to Coventry. The next day they passed to Daintree, to Stony Stratford, to Radburne, and so to London; where he was well entertained and accommodated with all things, having all the afore-said attendance at the sole charge and cost of his lordship." When brought before the king, his majesty, with more acuteness than good manners, said to him, "You have lived longer than other men, what have you done more than other men?" He answered, "I did penance when I was a hundred years old."

This journey, however, proved fatal to him; owing to the alteration in his diet, to the change of the air, and his general mode of life, he lived but a very short time, dying the 5th of November 1635, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. After his death, his body was opened; and an account was drawn up by the celebrated Dr. Harvey, part of which we shall lay before our readers. "He had a large breast; lungs not fungous, but sticking to his ribs, and distended with blood; a lividness in his face, as he had a difficulty of breathing a little before his death, and a long lasting warmth in his armpits and breast after it; which sign, together with others, were so evident in his body as they use to be on those that die by suffocation. His heart was great, thick, fibrous, and fat. The blood in the heart blackish and diluted. The cartilages of the sternum not more bony than in others, but flexible and soft. His viscera were found and strong, especially the stomach; and it was observed of him, that

7 Z he

he used to eat often by night and day, though contented with old cheese, milk, coarse bread, small beer, and whey; and, which is more remarkable, that he ate at midnight a little before he died. His kidneys were covered with fat, and pretty sound; not the least appearance there was of any stony matter either in the kidneys or bladder. His bowels were also sound. His spleen very little, hardly equalling the bigness of one kidney. In short, all his inward parts appeared so healthy, that, if he had not changed his diet and air, he might perhaps have lived a good while longer. The cause of his death was imputed chiefly to the change of food and air; forasmuch as, coming out of a clear thin and free air, he came into the thick air of London; and, after a constant plain and homely country diet, he was taken into a splendid family, where he fed high, and drank plentifully of the best wines, whereupon the natural functions of the parts of his body were overcharged, his lungs obstructed, and the habit of the whole body quite disordered; upon which there could not but ensue a dissolution. His brain was found, entire, and firm; and, though he had not the use of his eyes, nor much of his memory, several years before he died, yet he had his hearing and apprehension very well; and was able, even to the 130th year of his age, to do any husbandman's work, even thrashing of corn."

The following summary of his life is copied from Oldys's MS. notes on Fuller's Worthies: Old Parr was born 1483; lived at home until 1500, æt. 17, when he went out to service. 1518, æt. 35, returned home from his master. 1522, æt. 39, spent four years on the remainder of his father's lease. 1543, æt. 60, ended the first lease he renewed of Mr. Lewis Porter. 1563, æt. 80, married Jane, daughter of John Taylor, a maiden; by whom he had a son and a daughter, who both died very young. 1564, æt. 81, ended the second lease which he renewed of Mr. John Porter. 1585, æt. 102, ended the third lease he had renewed of Mr. Hugh Porter. 1588, æt. 105, did penance in Alderbury church, for lying with Katharine Milton, and getting her with child. 1595, æt. 112, he buried his wife Jane, after they had lived 32 years together. 1605, æt. 122, having lived ten years a widower, he married Jane, widow of Anthony Adda, daughter of John Lloyd of Giffells, in Montgomeryshire, who survived him. 1635, æt. 152, he died; after they had lived together 30 years, and after fifty years possession of his last lease.

PARR's POINT, a cape on the north-east coast of the island of St. Christopher.

PAR'RA, a town of Persia, in the province of Segestan: sixty miles north of Zareg.

PAR'RA, *f.* the JACANA; in ornithology, a genus of birds of the order grallæ. Generic characters—Bill tapering, somewhat obtuse; nostrils oval, in the middle of the bill; front covered with lobate caruncles; the wings are spinous, or spurred. Sixteen species are enumerated by Gmelin, which are as follow.

1. Parra Dominica, the St. Domingo jacana; so called from its being found in that island, as also in the island whence it derives its specific name, and in almost all the warm parts of America. Specific character, claw moderate, legs yellow. The bill is yellow; the caruncle lax, and of a pale-yellow colour; the head and body above are of a pale-yellow, beneath it is ochry, inclining to rosy.

2. Parra Ludoviciana, the Louisiana jacana: bill and caruncle tawny; crown black; body above grey-brown, beneath ochry. It is about eleven inches long, and is found in the country whence it takes its name. The quill-feathers are black, mixed with a little grey; the tail is of a pale yellow, tipped with black; the legs are red; claws black.

3. Parra Cayanensis, the Cayenne jacana: legs reddish; hind-head brown, with a blackish crest. It inhabits Cayenne, feeds on insects, and is about eight inches and a half in length. The bill is red, tipped with black; front

and chin black; middle of the crown cinereous; breast with a broad black band; belly and vent white; back greenish-purple; wings white without; tail from the base to the middle white, the rest black, the tip edged with white.

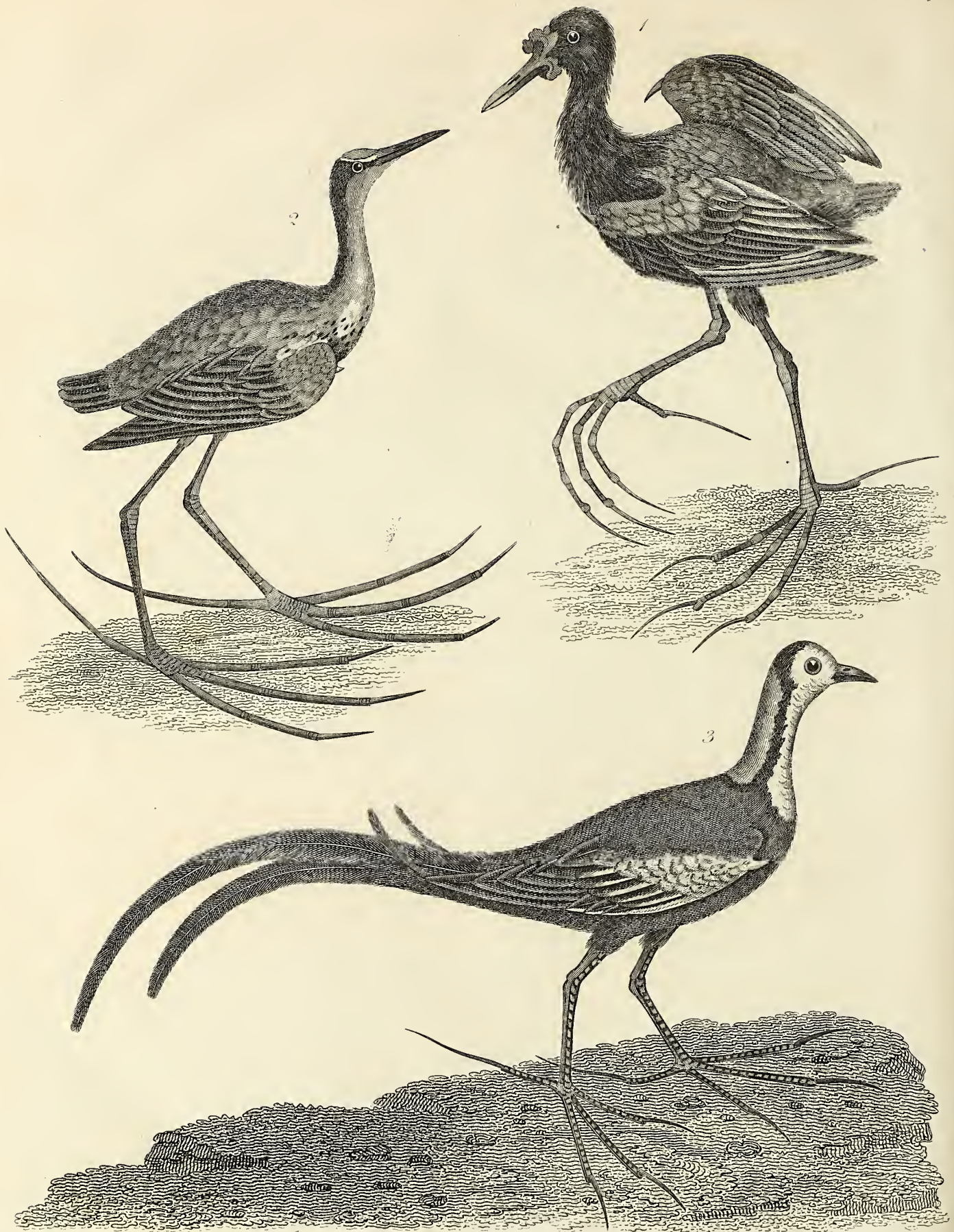
4. Parra Goensis, the Goa jacana: caruncle red; legs yellow; head, neck, wings, and middle of the tail, black; body beneath white. It is found in or near Goa; and is about thirteen inches long. The bill is dusky; from the hind part of the eye a black streak runs through the sides of the neck as far as the breast; the back and wing-coverts reddish-brown, the greater ones white; the tail is white at the base, and tipped with brown.

5. Parra Senegalla, the Senegal jacana: claws moderately long, legs red. It is found, as its name imports, near Senegal; and is twelve inches long. The bill is of a yellowish-green, tipped with black; the front is white; caruncle lax, and of a pale yellow: chin and throat black; lower part of the belly, tail-coverts, and greater wing-coverts, whitish; quill-feathers black, tipped with white. At the bend of the wings is a black spur: the tail, from the base to the middle, is whitish; the rest black, tipped with reddish; the rest of the body and head is of a grey-brown.

6. Parra Chilensis, the Chilian jacana: claws moderately long; legs brown; hind-head sub-crested. It inhabits Chili; and is the size of a jay, but with longer legs. It feeds on worms and insects, is noisy, and defends itself by the spurs on its wings; it builds in the grass, and lays four tawny eggs, which are speckled with black. The bill is conical, and about two inches long, a little curved at the tip; the irides are yellowish; caruncle two-lobed and red; the neck, back, and fore part of the wings, are violet; throat and breast black; wings and a short tail brown; spurs on the wings yellowish, conical, bony, and about half an inch long. It is a handsome species.

7. Parra jacana, the chefnut jacana: hind claws very long; legs greenish. This beautiful bird has spurs on the shoulders, and shreds of membranes on the fore-side of the head; its toes and nails are extremely long; all the nails are straight, round, and drawn out like needles; and from this circumstance probably it received at St. Domingo the appellation of *furceon*. The species is common in all the marshes of Brasil; and also in Guiana, and St. Domingo. We may presume that it is likewise found in all the tropical parts of America, both on the continent and in the islands, as far as New Spain; though Fernandez seems to speak of it only from report, since he makes it come from the north, whereas it is really a native of the south. The head, the neck, and the fore-side of the body, of this bird, are black, tinged with violet; the great quills of the wings are greenish; the rest of the upper surface is fine red chefnut, with a purplish or ferruginous cast: each wing is armed with a pointed spur inserted in the shoulder, exactly like the spines of the craped ray-fish; a membrane, taking its origin at the root of the bill, spreads on the front, and divides into three portions, leaving also a barbel on each side. The bill is straight, inflated somewhat at the point, and of a fine yellow jonquil, like the spurs; the tail is very short, and this character, as well as the form of the bill, the tail, the toes, and the height of the legs, of which the half is covered with feathers, belongs more or less to all the species of jacanas. Total length about ten inches: they are always found lean; yet it is said their flesh is palatable and good.

These birds go commonly in pairs; and, when separated by some accident, they call each other incessantly till they join again; a very striking instance of conjugal affection. They are generally very wild, and the sportsman cannot approach them but by wiles, covering himself with leaves, or running behind the bushes or the reeds. They are seen regularly in St. Domingo during the rainy months of May and November, or shortly after; yet a few are seen at other times, which would show that



1. The Chestnut Jacana. 2. the African. 3. the Chinese.

the places of their habitual abode are not very remote. But they are never found except in marshes, or at the sides of pools and brooks. The flight of these birds is not lofty, but pretty rapid: in rising they vent a shrill cry, which is heard far, and seems to bear some resemblance to that of the white owl. The poultry are alarmed, taking it for the scream of a bird of prey, though the jacana is very remote from that tribe. Nature we might suppose has armed it for war, yet we know not any foe which it combats. It is represented on the annexed Plate, at fig. 1.

8. *Parra nigra*, the black jacana: hind claws very long; legs cinereous; head, neck, tail, and body above, black. It inhabits Brasil, and is about the same size as the last. The bill is of a saffron-colour; the front is rufous; the breast, belly, and vent, brown; quill-feathers green, tipped with brown; the wing-spurs are yellow.

9. *Parra Brasiliensis*, the Brazilian jacana: hind claws very long; body greenish-black. It inhabits Brasil and Guiana. The Brasilians call it *aguu-pecaca*. The name *porphyrio*, which Barrere has given it, seems intended to denote its red feet. The same author says that it is common in Guiana, where it inhabits the pools of fresh water, and the meres; it is usually seen in pairs, though sometimes twenty or thirty flock together. There are always some in summer seen round the town of Cayenne; and in the rainy season they appear even in the open parts of the town; they lurk among the rushes, and live on fish and water-insects. In Guiana, as well as in Brasil, there are four or five varieties of this species, which are known under different names. They sit on the broad leaves of the water-lily; and the natives give them the appellation of *hinkin*, expressive of their shrill note.

10. *Parra viridis*, the green jacana: hind-claws long, yellow; legs yellowish-green; body blackish-green. It inhabits Brasil; and is of the size of a pigeon. The bill is partly red, and partly yellow; the front is red; the head, neck, and breast, are of a glossy-violet; the toes are very long.

11. *Parra variabilis*, the variable jacana: hind-claws long; legs bluish. This is also denominated "the spur-winged water-hen," and is about nine inches long. The colour of the bill is of an orange-yellow. On the forehead is a flap of red skin; the crown of the head is brown, marked with spots of a darker colour; the hind part of the neck is much the same, but of a deeper dye. On the fore part of the wing is a yellow spur. The legs and claws are of a bluish ash. This species inhabits Brasil; and is said to be pretty common about Carthagera, and in other parts of South America.

12. *Parra Luzoniensis*, the Luzonian jacana: beneath white; toes long; legs black. This species is found in the marshy and maritime parts of the Manilla islands; and is about the size of the lapwing. Bill of a greyish colour, straight, and a little enlarged at the end: top of the head deep brown; over the eye a stripe of white, passing down on each side the neck; and changing into pale-yellow behind the eye: through the eye another stripe of an ash-colour accompanies the first quite down to the wing; the back is brown; the under parts, from chin to vent, white, except a large spot of brown on the breast; at the bend of the wing is a sharp spur; the smaller wing-coverts are white, the others pale brown, transversely barred with black; the second quills white; the prime ones black; from the three last of these arise three naked shafts, two inches long, and ending in a lance-shaped feathered point; they spring from the middle of the shaft of the feather to which they belong, the shaft appearing as divided or branching into two at that part; the toes and claws are very long, as in the others, and of a dusky-black.

13. *Parra Africana*, the African jacana: colour pale cinnamon; toes long; legs greenish-black. Length nine inches and a half. Bill dusky, of a pale brownish

horn-colour at the tip; forehead bare. The upper parts of the plumage of a very-pale cinnamon-colour; chin and throat white; breast of a tawny yellow, mottled and barred on the sides of it and the neck with black; the under parts like the back, but darker; greater quills black; on the inner part of the bend of the wing a short blunt spur; through the eye, passing to the hind part of the neck, quite to the back, black; legs greenish black; hind claw an inch and a half in length. Inhabits Africa; represented at fig. 2.

14. *Parra Sinensis*, the Chinese jacana: toes very long; legs greenish; body claret-colour. This species is much larger than the last, approaching nearly to the size of the golden pheasant; and is in length, including the tail, twenty-one inches. Bill dusky blue; crown of the head, forehead, and all beneath, as far as the breast, pale cinereous cream-colour; back part of the head black, of the neck yellow, divided from the white before by a line of black on each side; the body vinaceous red; wing-coverts white, quills black; tail very long. It is supposed to inhabit China, having been seen among some fine drawings done in that country. It also inhabits the East-Indies. See fig. 3.

15. *Parra chavaria*, the faithful jacana: crested; toes long, legs tawny. This is the largest of the genus; and stands a foot and a half from the ground. The bill is conic, a little bent, and of dirty-white colour; the upper mandible as in the cock; nostrils oblong, pervious; on both sides, at the base of the bill, is a red membrane, which extends to the temples; in the middle of this are placed the eyes; the irides are brown. The hind head is furnished with about a dozen blackish feathers, three inches in length, which form a crest; these hang downwards; the rest of the neck, which is pretty long, is covered with a thick black down, but under the bill and temples it is of a pure white. The body is brown; the wings and tail blackish, clouded with grey; tail short; on the bend of the wing appear two or three spurs half an inch in length; belly black, but less deep; the thighs are half-way bare of feathers; knee-joints thick and swelling; legs very long, strong, and of a yellowish-red colour.

This bird inhabits the lakes, &c. near the river Cinu, about thirty leagues from Carthagera, in South America, and is said to feed on vegetables. Its gait is solemn and slow; but it flies easily and swiftly. It cannot run, unless assisted by the wings at the same time. When any part of the skin is touched by the hand, a crackling is felt, though it is very downy beneath the feathers; and indeed this down adheres so closely as to enable the bird at times to swim. The voice is clear and loud, but far from agreeable. The natives, who keep poultry in great numbers, have one of these tame, which goes along with the flock about the neighbourhood to feed during the day, when this faithful shepherd defends them against birds of prey; being able, by means of the spurs upon the wings, to drive off birds as big as the carrion-vulture, and even that bird itself. It is so far of the greatest use, as it never deserts the charge committed to its care, bringing them all home safe at night. It is so tame as to suffer itself to be handled by a grown person; but will not permit children to touch it. For this account we are indebted to Linnæus, who seems to be the only ornithologist that has given any account of this singular bird.

16. *Parra Indica*, the Indian jacana: blackish-blue; back and wings brown; eye-brows white; a red spot at the gape of the mouth. It is found in many parts of India, among the marshes, and builds a floating nest. The bill is yellow, the base above is bluish; the legs are of a yellowish-brown.

PAR'RAL, a town of Mexico, in the province of New Biscay, on a river which runs into the Conchos: 230 miles north of Durango, and 550 north of Mexico. Lat. 28. 10. N. lon. 105. 12. W.

PARRAMATTA, a settlement founded in New South Wales, near Port Jackson: ten miles west of Sydney Cove.

PARRAMPORE, one of the small islands in the Atlantic ocean, which line the east coast of Northampton county, Virginia.

PARRAS, a town of Mexico, in the province of Zacatecas: ninety miles north of Zacatecas.

PARRECEY, a town of France, in the department of the Jura: three miles south of Dôle, and four north-north-east of Chauslin.

PARREL, *f.* [a naval word.] A frame or machine to fasten the yards to the mast, so as to raise or lower them.

PARRENNIN (Dominic), a distinguished Jesuit missionary, was born in 1665, at le Russey, in Franche-Comté. He entered among the Jesuits at Avignon in 1682; and, feeling a strong inclination to engage in the missions of the society, he was sent to China in 1698. The emperor Cam-hi, who reigned at that time, was favourable to the Christian missionaries, on account of the scientific improvements which they introduced into his dominions; and father Parrennin had masters assigned him for the Chinese and Manthoo-Tartar languages, in which he acquired a proficiency beyond that of any preceding European. The emperor, who was a thoughtful and learned man, frequently conversed with him on the history, manners, and politics, of Europe, and on different sciences with which he was desirous of becoming acquainted; and the missionary was obliged to study hard, to satisfy the curiosity of the Chinese monarch. He translated into the Tartarian language every thing which he found new and curious in geometry, astronomy, and anatomy, in the Memoirs of the French Academy of Sciences, and in other works. During the space of twenty years he followed this emperor in his progresses through the different provinces of the empire; and for a still longer time he acted as interpreter for all European missionaries and ambassadors who came into China, and as mediator in the disputes between the courts of Moscow and Peking. He drew up many books in the Chinese and Tartarian languages, as well for the information of the emperor as the instruction of the proselytes. He wrote a vast number of letters to correspondents in Europe, relative to the business of his mission, and to the manners, customs, sciences, and occurrences, of China, which were printed in Du Halde's Collection. Of these the most valuable are his letters to De Mairan. From the labours of this zealous missionary proceeded the maps of all the provinces of China, and of the Chinese Tartary, with which Du Halde's description of that empire is illustrated. Parrennin died at Peking in 1741, and was honoured by the emperor Kien-Long with a public funeral.

PARREO, a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: twenty-three miles west-south-west of Patna.

PARRET, a river of England, which has its source, and derives its name, from South Perrot, a small village about four miles south of Crewkerne, in Somersetshire, on the borders of Dorsetshire, where it rises from a small spring, and passes through a fine valley to Haselbury, South Petherton, Langport (where it first becomes navigable), Bridgewater, &c. and runs into the Bristol Channel about ten miles below the last town. *Wilkes's British Directory*, vol. ii.

PARRHASIA, in ancient geography, a town of the Peloponnesus, in Arcadia: it is mentioned by Homer and Pliny; but not noticed by Pausanias nor Strabo. It was supposed to be founded by Parrhasius, the son of Jupiter. The Arcadians are sometimes called *Parrhasians*, and *Arcus Parrhasis*.

PARRHASIUS, a famous painter of antiquity, was a native of Ephesus. His father, Evenor, was also a painter, and flourished in the ninetieth olympiad, or B.C. 420. The son may be placed twenty-five years later, which will correspond with the age of Zeuxis, with whom he is related to have had a competition. According to the re-

presentation of Pliny, Parrhasius first gave symmetry to painting, first threw a sprightly expression into the countenance, made the hair to flow with elegance, and infused grace into the features; and, by the general consent of artists, excelled all painters in the contour or outline. As an instance of his powers in expressing the complications of character and sentiment, the same writer mentions that he painted the Genius of the Athenian state, fickle and inconstant, at once mild and passionate, clement and cruel, just and unjust, proud and humble, in short, a medley of inconsistencies. How he contrived to represent these contradictory qualities in one subject, we are not told, nor is it easy to conceive. Some of his other celebrated pieces were a picture of Theseus, which appears to have procured him the citizenship of Athens, and was afterwards placed in the Capitol of Rome; Meleager, Hercules, and Perseus, in one piece; a Cretan nurse, with a child in her arms; Bacchus, with Virtue standing by; two admirable figures, one of a man running a race in armour and seeming to sweat under the weight; the other pulling off his armour and appearing to pant with the past exertion. He likewise painted fancied portraits of many of the heroes of antiquity; and was not less distinguished for the fertility than the powers of his pencil. His high reputation rendered him singularly vain and arrogant. He assumed lofty titles, and affected a splendor in his dress beyond the condition of a private citizen. This might perhaps be the cause of the preference given above him to Timanthes, when they painted in concurrence the contest of Ajax with Ulysses for the armour of Achilles. Parrhasius is said to have relaxed from his greater exertions by small performances of a lascivious character. A story which, if true, would render his memory detestable, is the subject of one of the controversial declamations of Seneca the rhetorician; who says, that this painter, having to represent Prometheus tortured, purchased an old Olynthian captive, and caused him to die in torments by way of a model. But this is probably a mere fiction; for Olynthus was not taken till Parrhasius must have been, if living, in extreme old age. It is certain that he was in high esteem among his contemporaries; and Xenophon makes him an interlocutor with Socrates in a dialogue on the pictorial art. A work of his is the subject of an elegant epigram in the Greek Anthology; and there are several passages in the poets alluding to his celebrity. See farther under the article PAINTING, p. 210 of this volume.

PARRHASIUS (Aulus-Janus), the assumed name of GIANPAOLO PARISIO, an eminent philologist, born in 1470. He was originally from Cosenza; and his father, Tommaso Parisio, was a counsellor in the Neapolitan senate. Having imbibed in his youth a decided taste for polite literature, he displeased his father by declining the study of the law, and was deprived of further assistance in his education. The wars in the kingdom of Naples occasioned his removal to Rome, where his life was brought into danger through his intimacy with two cardinals who incurred the displeasure of pope Alexander VI. He made his escape to Milan, where he married a daughter of Demetrius Chalcondylas, and was appointed professor of eloquence in the university. He was in this situation in 1500, when he first published his Commentaries upon Claudian's Rape of Proserpine. Such was the reputation he acquired by his learned lectures, that he had sometimes the famous general Trivulzi for an auditor. He had also among his scholars the celebrated Andrea Alciati, who, however, afterwards brought a charge of imposture against his master, as citing books which never existed. The cause of his quitting Milan, was an accusation of an infamous nature brought against him; which perhaps, had no other foundation than the envy of his rivals. He retired to Vicenza, where he was elected to the chair of eloquence with a liberal salary. The wars consequent upon the league of Cambray obliged him to quit that country; and he returned to his native place, where

where he laid the foundation of the Cosentine Academy, which afterwards became famous. Some domestic difficulties caused him to accept an invitation from Leo X. to occupy the chair of eloquence at Rome. The gout, however, to which he was a martyr, would not permit him long to fulfil the duties of this office; and he returned to Cosenza, where, after passing many years in continual suffering, he was released by death in 1534. Parrhasius ranks among the many unfortunate men of letters; having been a wanderer during great part of his life; subject to frequent losses, among which was that of his children, and of his library, which was five times pillaged; and a victim to indigence and disease.

The works of Parrhasius were published conjunctively by Henry Stephens in 1567, 8vo. The principal of these is entitled, "*Liber de Rebus per Epistolam quæsitis*," and consists of a number of letters written to different learned men, containing explanations of passages in the ancient writers, and elucidations of points of antiquity, and displaying much erudition, but not equal felicity of style. There are, besides, Illustrations of Ovid's Heroical Epistles, of Horace's Art of Poetry, of Cicero's Oration for Milo, and various other tracts on classical subjects. The whole collection was reprinted in the first volume of Gruter's *Thesaurus Criticus*. A new edition of the book *De Quæsitis*, with additions from the author's manuscript, was given at Naples in 1771. *Tiraboschi*.

PARRHESIA, *f.* [Greek.] In rhetoric, a figure in which a person admonishes or reproves another with art and address, and in such circumstances as render it difficult to displease. See *Rev.* ii. 2—5.

PARRIAH, a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: 35 miles north of Durbungah. Lat. 26. 41. N. lon. 85. 52. E.

PARRICIDAL, or **PARRICIDIOUS**, *adj.* [from *parricide*.] Relating to parricide; committing parricide.—He is now paid in his own way, the *parricidious* animal; and punishment of murderers is upon him. *Brown*.

On brothers' and on fathers' empty beds
The killers lay their *parricidal* heads. *May's Lucan*.

PARRICIDE, *f.* [*parricide*, Fr. *parricide*, Lat.] One who destroys his father:

I told him the revenging gods
Gainst *parricides* did all their thunder bend;
Spoke with how manifold and strong a bond,
The child was bound to the father. *Shakespeare*.

One who destroys or invades any to whom he owes particular reverence: as his country or patron. The crime of murdering a father.—*Parricide* is not distinguished in the British law from any other case of murder; except where the child is also the servant of the parent, when it is punishable as petty treason. *Jacob's Law Dict.*

Morat was always bloody, now he's base;
And has so far in usurpation gone,
He will by *parricide* secure the throne. *Dryden*.

Murder of any one to whom reverence is due.—Although he were a prince in military virtue approved, and likewise a good law-maker; yet his cruelties and *parricides* weighed down his virtues. *Bacon*.

PARRICIDE, *Parricida*, or *Patricida*, in strictness, denotes the murder or murderer of a father; as *matricide* does of a mother: though the word parricide is ordinarily extended to both. The Romans, for a long time, had no law against parricides; which was also the case at Athens; from an opinion that nobody could be so wicked as to kill a parent. The Persians, according to Herodotus, entertained the same notion, when they adjudged all persons who had killed their reputed parents to be accounted bastards. L. Ostius was the first who killed his father, five hundred years after Numa's death; and then the Pompeian law was made, which ordained, that the person convicted of this crime, after he had been first scourged till the blood came, should be tied up in a

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leathern sack, together with a dog, an ape, a cock, and a viper, and so thrown into the sea, or the next river.

PARRIDA, a small island in the Pacific Ocean, near the coast of Veragua. Lat. 7. 16 N.

PARRIER, a town of Hindoostan, in Oude: thirty-five miles south-west of Lucknow.

PARROAH, a town of the island of Ceylon: fifty miles west-south-west of Trincomalee, and thirty-six north of Candy. Lat. 8. 17. N. lon. 80. 34. E.

PARROCEL (Joseph), an eminent battle-painter, was born in 1648, at Brignoles in Provence. He learned the rudiments of his art under his father Bartholomew, a painter, and his brother Louis, who practised in the same profession in Languedoc. At the age of twenty he went to Rome, where he entered the school of Courtois, named *Bourgoigne*, a famous painter of battles. He imbibed from that master a taste for the same branch of composition, and acquired a great degree of excellence. For further improvement he travelled to the other principal towns of Italy, and resided a considerable time at Venice to study the eminent colourists of that school. On his return to France, he fixed himself at Paris, where he married, and was received into the Academy of Painting. The victories of Louis XIV. furnished subjects to his pencil which could not fail of pleasing that monarch: and, notwithstanding the ill-offices of Mansard, superintendent of the royal buildings, whom he offended by an action for debt, the king heard of his picture of the Passage of the Rhine, and, upon inspection, approved it so much, that he ordered several pieces of him for the palace of Versailles. He was very industrious, and worked with great facility, drawing all his ideas from the fund of his own fancy, for he never was a witness of scenes similar to those he painted. His colouring was extremely fresh and lively, his touch light, and his compositions full of spirit and movement. Few have surpassed him in fire and animation, and in the variety of characteristic attitudes and expressions. Although battles, marches, and huntings, were his favourite subjects, he did not confine himself to them, but occasionally painted portrait and history. He had a taste for letters, and was well acquainted with sacred and profane history; a series of his own etchings of the Life of Christ, presented to the academy, did him great credit, as well for the design as the excellent management of the lights and shades. Parrocel was a man of very respectable private character, regular in his conduct, sincere, pious, and charitable. He died of an apoplexy in 1704, at the age of fifty-seven. His principal works are at Paris, in the church of Notre Dame, Versailles, the Invalids, and various hotels.

PARROCEL (Charles), son of the preceding, born at Paris in 1688, was brought up first under his father, and then in the school of La Fosse. He studied at Rome and Venice; and, following his father's line of the art, he served some years in the cavalry, in order to obtain exact ideas of military operations. On his return to France he painted several great works, by which he acquired a high reputation. He particularly excelled in representing horses, to which he gave singular animation, with the greatest variety and truth of figure and action. In 1744 and 1745 he accompanied Louis XV. into Flanders for the purpose of recording his victories by his pencil. He made ten designs from these subjects, but only finished that of the Battle of Fontenoy, in which he introduced a number of portraits. His health was injured by his campaigns; and he died of a dropy of the chest in 1752. Although his pictures have much merit, he was never able to attain his father's brilliancy and truth of colouring. Many of his battle and history pieces, and his cavalry-studies, are dispersed in the hotels and cabinets of Paris; and a number of his designs have been engraved.

There have been several other painters of this name and family; of whom *Ignatius Parrocel*, son of Louis,

and nephew and pupil of Joseph, is reckoned to have approached nearest to the manner of his uncle in his battle-pieces. He worked much in Italy and at Vienna; and died in 1722. *D'Argenville*.

PAR'ROCK, *f.* (the diminutive of park.) A paddock, a small inclosure. *Scott*.

PARROQUET', or PAROQUET. See PSITTACUS.

PARROT, *f.* [*perroquet*, Fr.] A party-coloured bird with a hooked bill, remarkable for the exact imitation of the human voice. See PSITTACUS.—Who taught the parrot human notes to try? *Dryden*.

Some will evermore peep through their eyes,
And laugh like parrots at a bag-piper. *Shakespeare*.

PARROT-FISH, *f.* A fish of the Pacific Ocean. See SCARUS.—The other sorts were chiefly parrot-fish. *Cook and King's Voyage*.

PARROT ISLANDS, a cluster of islands in Dusky Bay, New Zealand; three miles south-west of Facile Harbour.

PARROT'S KEY, a small island in the Spanish Main, near the Mosquito shore. Lat. 12. 7. N. lon. 82. 56. W.

PAR'ROTED, *adj.* [from *parrot*.] Taught to speak by rote like a parrot. *Ash*.

PAR'RY (Richard), a learned divine, was educated at Oxford, and in 1604 was made bishop of St. Asaph. He revised the first edition of the Welch Bible, which was published in 1620. Before his elevation to the episcopal dignity, he was master of Ruthin school, Denbighshire.

PAR'RY (John), generally known by the appellation of the celebrated *blind harper*. He was the first among his contemporaries who played either a lesson or a concerto on the treble Welch harp, an instrument which had been long lost to the world, and owed its revival to the genius and diligence of this great performer. He died at Rhubon, in Denbighshire, in 1782, about which time the pedal harp seems to have superseded all other harps on the continent as well as in our island, so that it appears as if its resuscitation was for a very short period.

To PAR'RY, *v. n.* [*parer*, Fr.] To put by thrusts; to fence.—A man of courage, who cannot fence, and will put all upon one thrust, and not stand *parrying*, has the odds against a moderate fencer. *Locke*.—Good fencers push and *parry* at the same time. The Spaniards *parry* with the poniard. The ancients *parried* with their bucklers. *Chambers*.

With learned skill, now push, now *parry*,
From Darii to Bocardo vary.

Prior.

To PAR'RY, *v. a.* To turn aside.—It enables him to put by, and *parry*, some subjects of conversation, which might possibly lay him under difficulties both what to say and how to look. *Ld. Chesterfield*.

Vice *parries* wide

The undreaded volley with a sword of straw. *Cowper's Task*.

PAR'RYING, *f.* The action of defending a man's self, or of staying off the thrusts, strokes, &c. offered him by another. See FENCING.

PAR'SBERG, a town of Bavaria, in the principality of Neuburg: nine miles north-east of Dietfurt, and eighteen north-west of Ratibon.

PARSCHINA, a town of Russia, in the government of Tobolsk, on the Nisnei Tunguska: 560 miles south-east of Turuchansk. Lat. 60. 40. N. lon. 106. 54. E.

PARSCHWITZ. See PARCHWITZ.

To PAR'SE, *v. a.* [from *pars*, Lat. a part.] To resolve a sentence into the elements or parts of speech. It is a word only used in grammar-schools.—Let him construe the letter into English, and *parse* it over perfectly. *Afcham's Schoolmaster*.—Let scholars reduce the words to their originals, to the first case of nouns, or first tense of verbs, and give an account of their formations and changes, their syntax and dependencies; which is called *parsing*. *Watts on the Mind*.

PAR'SEE. See PERSEE.

PARSHANDA'THA, *f.* [Heb. revelation of corporeal impurities.] A man's name. *Ejther*.

PARSHEPATNAM', a town of Hindoostan, in Marawar, on the coast: six miles north of Tondy.

PAR'SHORE. See PERSHORE.

PARSIMO'NIOUS, *adj.* [from *parsimony*.] Covetous; frugal; sparing. It is sometimes of a good, sometimes of a bad, sense.—Extraordinary funds for one campaign may spare us the expence of many years, whereas a long *parsimonious* war will drain us of more men and money. *Addison*.

PARSIMO'NIOUSLY, *adv.* Covetously; frugally; sparingly.—Our ancestors acted *parsimoniously*, because they only spent their own treasure for the good of their posterity; whereas we squandered away the treasures of our posterity. *Swift*.

PARSIMO'NIOUSNESS, *f.* A disposition to spare and save.—To view the Moors in their private roofs, I find them without *parsimoniousness*, and placing no character of good housekeeping in abundance of viands. *L. Addison's W. Barbary*.

PAR'SIMONY, *f.* [*parsimonia*, Lat.] Frugality; covetousness; niggardiness; saving temper.—The ways to enrich are many: *parsimony* is one of the best, and yet is not innocent; for it withholdeth men from works of liberality. *Bacon*.

PAR'SING, *f.* The act or exercise of resolving a sentence into the parts of speech, and accounting for the construction.

PAR'SLEY, *f.* [*perfil*, Fr. *perfil*, Welsh. *Johnson*.—Anciently and rightly our word was *perfeley*, from the Greek *περφολελλον*, growing on rocks. *Todd*.] An herb. See APIUM, vol. i.—Green beds of *parsley* near the river grow. *Dryden*.

PAR'SLEY, Macedonian. See BUBON.

——— Mountain. See ATHAMANTA.

——— Piert. See APHANES.

——— Stone. See ATHAMANTA.

——— Wild. See CARDIOSPERMUM.

PAR'SLEY-BED, *f.* That part of a garden where *parsley* is planted.—Sempronia dug Titus out of the *parsley-bed*, as they use to tell children; and thereby became his mother. *Locke*.

PAR'SNEP, *f.* See PASTINACA.—November is drawn in a garment of changeable green, and bunches of *parsneps* and turneps in his right hand. *Peacham on Blazoning*.

COW-PARSNEP. See HERACLEUM.

PRICKLY PARSNEP. See ECHINOPHORA.

WATER-PARSNEP. See SIUM.

PAR'SON, *f.* [derived either from *persona*, because the *parson* "omnium personam in ecclesia sustinet;" or from *parochianus*, the parish-priest. *Johnson*.—It is from *persona*, "ecclesiae persona;" and so anciently *parson* was written *persone*. *Todd*.] The rector or incumbent of a parish; one that has a parochial charge or cure of souls.—Abbot was preferred by king James to the bishopric of Coventry and Litchfield, before he had been *parson*, vicar, or curate, of any parish-church. *Clarendon*.—A clergyman:

Sometimes comes she with a tithe-pig's tail,

Tickling the *parson* as he lies asleep;

Then dreams he of another benefice. *Shakespeare*.

The ancient and honourable appellation of PARSON is synonymous with the modern term *rector*, i. e. director or governor of a parish. He is called *parson*, *persona*, because, by his person the church, which is an invisible body, is represented; and he is in himself a body-corporate, in order to protect and defend the rights of the church (which he personates) by a perpetual succession. 1 *Inst.* 300. It has been also said, that he is called *parson*, because he is bound, by virtue of his office, *in propria persona servire Deum*, to administer the sacraments, and officiate at the holy altar, in *person*. *Fleta*, l. 9. c. 18.

Though a parson has, during his life, the freehold in himself

himself of the parsonage-house, the glebe, the tithes, and other dues; yet these are sometimes *appropriated*; that is to say, the benefice is perpetually annexed to some spiritual corporation, either sole or aggregate, being the patron of the living; whom the law esteems equally capable of providing for the service of the church as any single private clergyman. See APPROPRIATION, vol. i.

The appropriating corporations, or religious houses, were wont to depute one of their own body to perform divine service, and administer the sacraments, in those parishes of which the *society* was thus the *parson*. This officiating minister was in reality no more than a curate, deputy, or viceregent of the appropriator, and therefore called *vicarius*, or vicar. His stipend was at the discretion of the appropriator, who was, however, bound of common right to find somebody, *qui illi de temporalibus, episcopo de spiritualibus, debeat respondere*. But this was done in so scandalous a manner, and the parishes suffered so much by the neglect of the appropriators, that the legislature was forced to interpose: and accordingly it is enacted, by stat. 15 Rich. II. c. 6. that in all appropriations of churches the diocesan bishop shall ordain (in proportion to the value of the church) a competent sum to be distributed among the poor parishioners annually; and that the vicarage shall be sufficiently endowed. It seems the parish were frequently sufferers, not only by the want of divine service, but also by withholding those alms for which, among other purposes, the payment of tithes was originally imposed: and therefore in this act a pension is directed to be distributed among the poor parochians, as well as a sufficient stipend to the vicar. But he, being liable to be removed at the pleasure of the appropriator, was not likely to insist too rigidly on the legal sufficiency of the stipend; and therefore, by statute 4 Hen. IV. c. 12. it is ordained, that the vicar shall be a secular person, not a member of any religious house; that he shall be vicar perpetual, not removeable at the caprice of the monastery; and that he shall be canonically instituted and inducted, and be sufficiently endowed, at the discretion of the ordinary; for these three express purposes, to do divine service, to inform the people, and to keep hospitality.

From this statute we may date the origin of the present vicarages; for, before this time, the vicar was nothing more than a temporary curate. All the tithes or dues of the church of common right belong to the rector; or to the appropriator or impropriator, who have the same rights as the rector; and the vicar is entitled only to that portion which is expressed in his endowment; or what his predecessors have immemorially enjoyed by prescription, which is equivalent to a grant or endowment. These endowments frequently invest the vicar with some part of the great tithes; therefore the words *rectorial* and *vicarial* tithes have no definite signification: but *great* and *small* tithes are technical terms; and which are, or ought to be, accurately defined and distinguished by the law. 1 Comm. c. 11. in n.

The distinction therefore of a parson and vicar is this: the parson, or *rector*, has for the most part the whole right to all the ecclesiastical dues in his parish; but a *vicar* has generally an appropriator over him, entitled to the best part of the profits, to whom he is in effect perpetual curate, with a standing salary; though in some places the vicarage has been considerably augmented by a large share of the great tithes; which augmentations were greatly assisted by stat. 29 Car. II. c. 8, enacted in favour of poor vicars and curates; which rendered such temporary augmentations (when made by the appropriators) perpetual.

The method of becoming a parson and a vicar is much the same. To both there are four requisites necessary: holy orders; presentation; institution; and induction. The method of conferring the holy orders of deacon and priest, according to the liturgy and canons, is foreign to the present purpose, any farther than as they are necessary requisites to make a complete parson or vicar. See the

article ORDINATION, vol. xvii. and Cookson's Common Prayer, p. 611.

By stat. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 4, no person is capable to be admitted to any benefice, unless he hath been first ordained a priest; and then he is, in the language of the law, a *clerk in orders*. But, if he obtains orders, or a license to preach, by money or corrupt practices, (which seems to be the true though not the common notion of simony,) the person giving such orders forfeits 40l. and the person receiving 10l. and is incapable of any ecclesiastical preferment for seven years afterwards. 31 Eliz. c. 6.

Any clerk may be presented to a parsonage or vicarage; that is, the patron, to whom he advowson of the church belongs, may offer his clerk to the bishop of the diocese to be instituted. A layman also may be presented; but he must take priest's orders before his admission. As to *advowsons*, or the right of presentation, which are a species of private property, see the article ADVOWSON, vol. i.

But, when a clerk is presented, the bishop may refuse him upon many accounts. As, if the patron is excommunicated, and remains in contempt forty days. 2 Rol. Abr. 355. Or if the clerk be unfit: *Glanvil*, l. 13. c. 20. First, with regard to his person; as if he be a bastard; (though that incapacity seems now exploded, see BASTARD;) an outlaw, an excommunicate, an alien, under age, or the like. 2 Rol. Abr. 356. 2 Infl. 632. Stats. 3 Ric. II. c. 3. 7 Ric. II. c. 12. Next, with regard to his faith or morals; as for any particular heresy, or vice that is *malum in se*. Or, lastly, the clerk may be unfit to discharge the pastoral office, for want of learning. In any of which cases the bishop may refuse the clerk.

If an action at law be brought by the patron against the bishop for refusing his clerk, the bishop must assign the cause. If the cause be of a temporal nature, and the fact admitted, (as, for instance, outlawry,) the judges of the king's courts must determine its validity, or whether it be a sufficient cause of refusal: but, if the fact be denied, it must be determined by a jury. If the cause be of a *spiritual* nature, (as heresy, particularly alleged,) the fact, if denied, shall also be determined by a jury: and, if the fact be admitted or found, the court, upon consultation and advice of learned divines, shall decide its sufficiency. If the cause be want of learning, the bishop need not specify in what points the clerk is deficient, but only allege that he is deficient; for the statute 9 Edw. II. ft. 1. c. 13. is express, that the examination of the fitness of a person presented to a benefice belongs to the ecclesiastical judge. But, if the bishop return the clerk to be *minus sufficiens in literatura*, the court shall write to the metropolitan to re-examine him, and certify his qualifications; which certificate of the archbishop is final.

If the bishop hath no objections, but admits the patron's presentation, the clerk so admitted is next to be *instituted* by him; which is a kind of investiture of the spiritual part of the benefice; for by institution, the care of the souls of the parish is committed to the charge of the clerk. When a *vicar* is instituted, he (besides the usual forms) takes, if required by the bishop, an oath of perpetual residence; for the maxim of law is, that *vicarius non habet vicarium*: and, as the non-residence of the appropriators was the cause of the perpetual establishment of vicarages, the law judges it very improper for them to defeat the end of their constitution, and by absence to create the very mischief which they were appointed to remedy; especially as, if any profits are to arise from putting in a curate and living at a distance from the parish, the appropriator, who is the real parson, has undoubtedly the elder title to them.

When the ordinary is also the patron, and confers the living, the presentation and institution are one and the same act, and are called a *collation to a benefice*. By institution or collation the church is full, so that there can be no fresh presentation till another vacancy, at least in the

the case of a common patron; but the church is not full against the king till induction: nay, even if a clerk is instituted upon the king's presentation, the crown may revoke it before induction, and present another clerk. Upon institution also the clerk may enter on the parsonage house and glebe, and take the tithes: but he cannot grant or let them, or bring an action for them, till induction.

Induction is performed by a mandate from the bishop to the archdeacon, who usually issues out a precept to other clergymen to perform it for him. It is done by giving the clerk corporal possession of the church, as by holding the ring of the door, tolling a bell, or the like; and is a form required by law, with intent to give all the parishioners due notice, and sufficient certainty of their new minister, to whom their tithes are to be paid. See further under *INDUCTION*, vol. xi. And when a clerk is thus presented, instituted, and inducted into a rectory, he is then, and not before, in full and complete possession. *Co. Lit.* 300.

For the *rights* of a parson or vicar, in his tithes and ecclesiastical dues, see *TITHES*. As to his *duties*, they are so numerous, that it is impracticable to recite them here with any tolerable preciseness or accuracy; but the reader who has occasion may consult Bishop Gibson's *Codex*, Johnson's *Clergyman's Vade Mecum*, and Burn's *Ecclesiastical Law*. We shall therefore only just mention the article of *residence*, upon the supposition of which the law doth style every parochial minister an *incumbent*. By stat. 21 Hen. VIII. c. 13. parsons willingly absenting themselves from their benefices, for one month together, or two months in the year, incur a penalty of 5l. to the king, and 5l. to any person that will sue for the same; except chaplains to the king, or others therein mentioned, during their attendance in the household of such as retain them; and also except all heads of houses, magistrates, and professors in the universities, and all students under forty years of age residing there, *bona fide*, for study. Legal residence is not only in the parish, but also in the parsonage-house; for it hath been resolved, that the statute intended residence, not only for serving the cure and for hospitality, but also for maintaining the house, that the successor also may keep hospitality there.

For the more effectual promotion of this important duty of residence, a provision is made, by stats. 17 Geo. III. c. 53. 21 Geo. III. c. 66. for raising money upon ecclesiastical benefices, and to be expended in rebuilding, or repairing, the houses belonging to such benefices. By 43 Geo. III. c. 107. the governors of queen Anne's bounty are empowered to build parsonage-houses on livings augmented by that fund; and by 43 Geo. III. c. 108. persons, possessed in their own right, may by deed enrolled, or by will executed, three months before their decease, give lands not exceeding five acres, or personal property not exceeding 500l. for building parsonages (or churches), &c. Various acts have been passed for the effectuating of the like beneficent purposes in Ireland; viz. 43 Geo. III. c. 106. 46 Geo. III. c. 60. 48 Geo. III. c. 65.

Although there is but one way whereby one may become a parson or vicar; there are many circumstances, besides death, by which one may cease to be so. As, 1. By *cessum*, in taking another benefice. For, by stat. 21 Hen. VIII. c. 13. if any one, having a benefice of 8l. per ann. or upwards, (according to the present valuation in the king's books, *Cro. Car.* 456.) accepts any other, the first shall be adjudged void, unless he obtains a dispensation; which no one is entitled to have but the chaplains of the king and others therein mentioned; the brethren and sons of lords and knights, (but not of baronets, as that dignity did not exist at the time of the stat. 21 Hen. VIII.) and doctors and bachelors of divinity and law, admitted by the universities of this realm.

2. By *consecration*; for, when a clerk is promoted to a bishopric, all his other preferments are void the instant

that he is consecrated. But there is a method, by the favour of the crown, of holding such livings *in commendam*. *Commenda*, or *ecclesia commendata*, is a living commended, or recommended, by the crown to the care of a clerk, to hold till a proper pastor is provided for it. This may be temporary, for one, two, or three, years; or perpetual; being a kind of dispensation to avoid the vacancy of the living, and is called a *commenda retinere*. There is also a *commenda recipere*, which is to take a benefice *de novo*, in the bishop's own gift, or the gift of some other patron consenting to the same; and this is the same to him as institution and induction are to another clerk.

3. By *resignation*. But this is of no avail, till accepted by the ordinary; into whose hands the resignation must be made.

4. By *deprivation*; either, first, by sentence declaratory in the ecclesiastical courts, for fit and sufficient causes allowed by the common law; or conviction of other infamous crime in the king's courts; for heresy, gross immorality, and the like; or secondly, in pursuance of divers penal statutes, which declare the benefice void, for some *non-feasance* or neglect, or else some *mal-feasance* or crime. As, for simony; by stats. 31 Eliz. c. 6. 12 Ann. st. 2. c. 12. for maintaining any doctrine in derogation of the king's supremacy, or of the thirty-nine articles, or of the Book of Common Prayer; by stats. 1 Eliz. c. 1. 2. 13 Eliz. c. 12. for neglecting, after institution, to read the Liturgy and Articles in the church, or make the declarations against popery, or take the abjuration-oath; 13 Eliz. c. 12. for using any other form of prayer than the Liturgy of the Church of England; 1 Eliz. c. 2. in all which and similar cases the benefice is *ipso facto* void, without any formal sentence of deprivation. 6 Rep. 29, 30. 1 Comm. c. 11.

Though the parson is the chief person in a parish, yet the church-wardens have great power also: they are called *ecclesie guardiani*, guardians or keepers of the church. See vol. iv. 576-80. And, as the politics of the church-wardens and of the minister are often very much at variance, disputes frequently arise between them as to their respective rights and privileges in and about the church. The two following cases happened, both of them, during the last year, 1820; and both, we believe, arose out of a difference of opinion relating to her majesty the queen.

1. One of the church-wardens, and the ringers, of Charlton Mackrel, Somerset, having denied the right of the rector (the Rev. Mr. Sharpe) to control the ringing of the church-bells, the latter consulted Dr. Lushington on the subject, and the following is the substance of the doctor's opinion on the questions put to him by the rector: "That the consent of the minister (whether incumbent or curate) is necessary to authorize the ringing of bells in the church; the consent of the minister and one church-warden would be sufficient; but the consent of the minister against both church-wardens would not justify the ringing; and that no person has a right without the consent of the minister to place flags, garlands, or any thing else, either in or upon the church, or in the church-yard.

2. A cause of great importance was brought on before the spiritual court at Blandford, in December 1820. The rector of Wyke Regis and Weymouth, in the county of Dorset, was one day informed by his clerk, that Mr. Friend, the church-warden, had taken the key of the church from him, declaring that the rector had no right to the possession of it; that, as church-warden, it ought to be in his custody, and that, whenever the rector had any occasion for it, he might have it; but that he should first acquaint him with the particular purpose for which it was wanted, and with the nature of the duty to be performed. In such a case he would grant the key. The rector clearly saw, that, as the key had always been left with the clerk for the accommodation of both parties, this claim was set up merely to insult him; and he immediately ordered his proctor to cite Friend before the spiritual

ritual court, and to take Dr. Lushington's opinion upon the case, of which the following is a copy: "I am of opinion that the rector is entitled to the custody of the key of the church, he allowing the church-warden the use of it upon proper and necessary occasions. It is the duty of the church-warden to apply to the rector for the key when he wants it for lawful purposes; and he has no right to retain the general custody, and thereby put the rector to the inconvenience of sending to him for it. If the church-warden persists in retaining the possession of the key after demand made, I think he may be articled against in the ecclesiastical court having local jurisdiction, and punished by its authority. S. LUSHINGTON."—The defendant Friend, when the business came before the court, prudently followed the advice of his counsel; and, quite satisfied with the expenses which had already been incurred, instructed his proctor to confess the articles, and put an end to the suit by admitting the rector's exclusive right to the custody of the key. This affair, it seems, had been much canvassed among the advocates at Doctors' Commons. As the case is rather of a novel kind, they were at first somewhat divided in their opinions; but they are now unanimously agreed, that the key of the church is under the sole authority of the rector or vicar.

PARSON MORTAL. The rector of a church, instituted and inducted for his own life, was called *persona mortalis*; and any collegiate or conventional body, to whom the church was for ever appropriated, was termed *persona immortalis*. For further matter relating to parsons, see the articles CHURCH, CLERGY, CURATE, TITHES, &c.

PAR'SON'S FIE'LD, a town of Massachusetts, in the province of Maine: thirty-six miles north-west of Portland.

PAR'SON'S I'SLAND, a small island near the coast of Maine. Lat. 44. 36. N. lon. 67. 25. W.

PAR'SON'S TOWN, a town of the state of North-Carolina: thirty miles north-east of Salisbury.

PAR'SONAGE, *f.* The benefice of a parish.—I have given him the *parsonage* of the parish. *Addison*.—The house appropriated to the residence of the incumbent.—Dined by two o'clock at the Queen's Head, and then fraggled out alone to the *parsonage*. *Gray's Letters*.

PAR'SONS (Robert), an English Jesuit, was born of mean parentage at Nether Stowey in Somersetshire, in 1546. The quick parts which he displayed from infancy, caused him to be noticed by the vicar of the parish, who instructed him in Latin, and in 1563 procured him admission into Baliol college, Oxford. He soon acquired distinction as an acute disputant; and, having obtained a fellowship in his college, was made chaplain, and entered into holy orders. He took pupils, and became the most eminent tutor in that seminary. At this period he was so zealous a Protestant, that he gave admission to the writings of several authors of that persuasion into the college-library, exchanging for them many old books and manuscripts. In 1572 he succeeded to the office of burfar, and in the following year proceeded M. A. At this period a storm arose against him which was the occasion of his quitting the university, and the cause of which is differently stated. It appears that his harsh and disputatious temper had made him many enemies; and there seems sufficient authority for crediting a charge brought against him of falsifying his burfar's accounts, and thereby defrauding the society. More, a brother-jesuit, indeed affirms that his open declaration of an attachment to the Roman-catholic religion was the cause of measures being taken to compel him to resign; but there is good evidence that he continued to profess himself a Protestant as long as he remained in college.

His resignation took place in February 1573-4, and in that year he left England and went to Flanders. He spent some time in the Jesuits' college at Louvain, and then proceeded to Italy, with the intention of studying physic or law. Instead of pursuing either of these professions, he entered the society of Jesuits, in June 1575,

at Rome; and, completing his course of theological studies, became a chief penitentiary, and a director of the English seminary in that capital. On the recommendation of father (afterwards cardinal) Allen, he was appointed in 1580, together with Edmund Campion, to the dangerous mission of England, the object of which was not only to propagate the Catholic religion, but to excite disturbances against the government of Elizabeth. Parsons landed at Dover, disguised in a military habit, and proceeded to London, where he was joined by his companion. He entered with great zeal into the business of his mission, and loudly condemned those compliances with the existing authority in which many of the catholic laity thought themselves justified. He particularly opposed the occasional conformity of the papists in going to church, and wrote a discourse containing reasons against this practice. The vigilance of the queen's ministers rendered his office very hazardous; and, on the apprehension of Campion, the danger appeared so urgent, that he crossed the sea and withdrew to Rouen. He there employed himself in printing several books for the support of the cause, which he procured to be privately dispersed in England. One of these, entitled "A Christian Directory or Exercise," is highly extolled by the writers of his communion, and is said to have been very successful. In 1583 Parsons returned to Rome, where the management of the English mission was confided to him; and in 1586 the students in the English seminary at Rome chose him for their rector. In 1588, the year of the armada, he was sent by the general of the order into Spain, where he employed every engine to promote Philip's designs for the conquest of England. Among other expedients, he planted several English seminaries, the members of which he obliged to subscribe to the infant's title to the crown of England.

After the failure of this great project, when there were no longer any hopes of effecting the deposition of Elizabeth, he turned his thoughts to the defeating of king James's succession to the crown; and for this purpose, under the assumed name of *Doleman*, published in 1594 a famous treatise, entitled "A Conference about the next Succession to the Crown of England." This work is supposed to have been drawn up by Parsons from materials suggested in a society to which he belonged with cardinal Allen, sir Francis Inglesfield, and other English Catholics. Its object is twofold: first, to show upon what grounds kings may be deposed or set aside, of which one of the principal is argued to be difference of religion: this topic had been amply discussed, especially by the Jesuits, in the case of Henry IV. of France, and is here urged with so much force, that the book was afterwards reprinted, under very different circumstances, in support of the national rights in the disposal of the crown. The other object was to invalidate James's hereditary title to the English crown, by exhibiting the many other claims that might plausibly be adduced from different stocks of royalty. On this account the work was popularly called the "Book of Titles;" there were, however, several mistakes or misrepresentations in the genealogies, as was shown by Camden.

Parsons continued two years longer in Spain; and in 1596, after the death of Allen, he went to Rome, with the hope, it is thought, of succeeding him in the cardinalate. He was, however, not only disappointed in this expectation; but, upon several complaints against him from the English secular priests on the ground of his meddling and factious conduct, found the pope so ill disposed towards him, that he thought proper to retire to Naples, where he remained till the death of that pontiff, (Clement VIII.) In 1606 he returned to Rome, having assiduously employed himself during this interval, as he did afterwards, in executing the office of superintendant of the English mission, and writing a number of books for the advantage of his religion and order. It is allowed that he acquitted himself with equal vigour and fidelity in the

discharge of his trust, inflexible in the rigorous principles with which he commenced his catholic warfare. Of this he gave an example, by procuring the removal of the arch-priest of England for taking the oath of supremacy to king James; and by obtaining a brief from Paul V. for the deprivation of all the priests who took it. In April 1610 he was attacked with a fever, and soon appeared past recovery. In this state he dictated three letters relative to his office; and, having been indulged in all the ceremonial belonging to cardinals on their death-bed, he expired, and was interred in the chapel of the college of which he was rector. Father Parsons was undoubtedly a man of considerable abilities, and great industry; but his bigoted zeal led him to employ his talents to the injury of his native country, whilst his busy and domineering temper involved him in frequent quarrels with those of his own persuasion.

PARSONS (James), a physician, anatomist, and antiquarian, was born at Barnstable in 1705. Soon after birth he was taken to Ireland by his father, who was made a barrack-master in that country, and he received the early part of his education at Dublin. Being destined to the profession of physic, he went to Paris, where he attended the lectures of all the most eminent teachers in the different branches of medical science. He took the degree of M. D. at Rheims in 1736, and came to London, where he was employed as an anatomical assistant by Dr. James Douglas. He soon after commenced practice, and married. His residence was for many years in Red-lion-square, and the branch of the profession in which he was principally engaged was the obstetrical. In 1740 he was admitted a fellow of the Royal Society, with the most learned members of which he maintained an intimate connexion. He was likewise a member of the Antiquarian Society, and that of Arts and Manufactures; and he maintained a correspondence with some of the most eminent men of science abroad. Respectable for his morals, attainments, and usefulness, he died, much regretted, in 1770.

Dr. Parsons left the following works. 1. A Mechanical and Critical Enquiry into the Nature of Hermaphrodites, 8vo. 1741. which was principally a compilation. 2. A Description of the Urinary Human Bladder, and the Parts belonging to it, with Figures, 1742. which was intended to disprove the reported utility of Mrs. Stephens's medicines for the stone. 3. Philosophical Observations on the Analogy between the Propagation of Animals and that of Vegetables, 8vo. 1752. As an antiquary, Dr. Parsons distinguished himself by an elaborate publication, entitled, 4. Remains of Japhet; being historical enquiries into the affinity and origin of the European languages, 4to. 1767. This is a performance of great erudition and research; but the author, like most of the speculators upon these topics, is induced, by his zeal for establishing a system, to place too much confidence in fabulous traditions and dubious remains. He finds, in the inhabitants of the British isles, the lineal descendants of Gomer and Magog, with the vestiges of their primitive language. Besides these separate publications, Dr. Parsons was the author of several papers, printed in the Philosophical Transactions; viz. Croonian Lectures on Muscular Motion, 1745, in which he considers the muscular fibres as tubes. Human Physiognomy explained, in the Appendix to the Phil. Trans. for 1746; and several other papers on anatomical and physiological subjects, especially an account of the dissection of a rhinoceros, which is valuable, and illustrated by good figures. *Nichols's Anecdotes of Bowyer.*

PARSONS' TOWN. See BIRR, vol. iii.

PARSON'SIA, *f.* in botany, a genus of plants received that appellation from Mr. R. Brown, in memory of Dr. James Parsons. (See his article.) Dr. P. Browne, in his History of Jamaica, had already dedicated a plant to the same purpose; but that is *LYTHRUM PARSONIA* of Linnæus. As to the present genus, the three first of its

seven species are taken from the genus *ECHITES*, and have been already described under that article. The fourth is the *PERIPLOCA capularis*; while the three last, and indeed the whole genus, as the author himself remarks, are but too nearly related to *LYONSIA*. See, therefore, the articles referred to.

PART, *f.* [*pars*, Lat.] Something less than the whole; a portion; a quantity taken from a larger quantity.—The people stood at the nether *part* of the mount. *Exodus*.—This law wanted not *parts* of prudent and deep foresight; for it took away occasion to pry into the king's title. *Bacon*.—The citizens were for the most *part* slain or taken. *Knolles*.—These conclude that to happen often, which happeneth but sometimes; that never, which happeneth but seldom; and that always, which happeneth for the most *part*. *Brown*.—Our ideas of extension and number, do they not contain a secret relation of the *parts*? *Locke*.

Hele's cheeks, but not her heart;
Atalanta's better *part*.

Shakespeare.

Member.—He fully possessed the revelation he had received from God; all the *parts* were formed, in his mind, into one harmonious body. *Locke*.—Particular; distinct species.—Eusebia brings them up to all kinds of labour that are proper for women, as sowing, knitting, spinning, and all other *parts* of housewifery. *Law*.—Ingredient in a mingled mass.—Many irregular and degenerate *parts*, by the defective œconomy of nature, continue complicated with the blood. *Blackmore*.—That which, in division, falls to each.—My *part* was nothing but the shame. *Dryden*.

Go not without thy wife, but let me bear
My *part* of danger with an equal share.

Dryden.

Proportional quantity:

It was so strong, that never any fill'd
A cup, where that was but by drops inflill'd,
And drunke it off; but 'twas before allaid
With twenty *parts* in water.

Chapman.

Share; concern.—Sheba said, We have no *part* in David, neither have we inheritance in the son of Jesse. 2 *Sam.* xx. 1.—Agamemnon provokes Apollo, whom he was willing to appease afterwards at the cost of Achilles, who had no *part* in his fault. *Pope*.—Side; party; interest; faction. To take *part*, is to act in favour of another.—Call up their eyes, and fix them on your example; that so natural ambition might take *part* with reason and their interest to encourage imitation. *Glanville*.

Michael Caffio,

When I have spoken of you dispraisingly,
Hath ta'en your *part*.

Shakespeare.

Something relating or belonging.—For Zelmane's *part*, she would have been glad of the fall, which made her bear the sweet burden of Philoclea, but that she feared she might receive some hurt. *Sidney*.—For my *part*, I have no servile end in my labour, which may restrain or enslave the freedom of my judgement. *Wotton*.

For your *part*, it not appears to me,
That you should have an inch of any ground
To build a grief upon.

Shakespeare's Hen. IV.

Particular office or character.—The pneumatical part, which is in all tangible bodies, and hath some affinity with the air, performeth the *parts* of the air: as, when you knock upon an empty barrel, the sound is, in part, created by the air on the outside, and, in part, by the air in the inside. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

Accuse not nature; she hath done her *part*;
Do thou but thine.

Milton's P. L.

Character appropriated in a play.—That *part* was aptly fitted, naturally performed. *Shakespeare*.—Have you the lion's *part* written? give it me, for I am slow of study. *Shakespeare's Mid. Night's Dream*.—God is the master of the

the scenes : we must not chuse which *part* we shall act ; it concerns us only to be careful, that we do it well. *Bp. Taylor's Holy Living*.—Business ; duty.—Let them be so furnished and instructed for the military *part*, as they may defend themselves. *Bacon*.—Action ; conduct :

Find him, my lord,
And chide him hither strait : this *part* of his
Conjoins with my disease. *Shakespeare*.

Relation reciprocal.—The scripture tells us the terms of this covenant on God's *part* and our's ; namely, that he will be our God, and we shall be his people. *Tillotson*.

It might be deem'd, on our historian's *part*,
Or too much negligence or want of art,
If he forgot the vast magnificence
Of royal Thebesus. *Dryden*.

In good *PART* ; in ill *PART* : as well done ; as ill done.—God accepteth it in good *part*, at the hands of faithful men. *Hooker*.—[In the plural.] Qualities ; powers ; faculties, or accomplishments.—Any employment of our talents, whether of our *parts*, our time or money, that is not strictly according to the will of God, that is not for such ends as are suitable to his glory, are as great absurdities and failings. *Law*.

I conjure thee, by all the *parts* of man,
Which honour does acknowledge. *Shakespeare*.

Quarters ; regions ; districts.—Although no man was, in our *parts*, spoken of, but he, for his manhood ; yet, as though therein he excelled himself, he was called the courteous Amphialus. *Sidney*.—When he had gone over those *parts*, he came into Greece. *Æt* ii. 2.

All *parts* resound with tumults, plaint, and fears ;
And grisly death, in sundry shapes, appears. *Dryden*.

For the most *PART*. Commonly ; oftener than otherwise.—Of a plain and honest nature, for the most *part*, they were found to be. *Heylin*.

PART, *adv*. Partly ; in some measure :

For the fair kindness you have shew'd me,
And *part* being prompted, by your present trouble,
I'll lend you something. *Shakespeare's Tw. Night*.

To *PART*, *v. a*. To divide ; to share ; to distribute.—All that believed, sold their goods, and *parted* them to all men, as every man had need. *Acts* ii. 45.

Jove himself no less content wou'd be
To *part* his throne, and share his heaven with thee. *Pope*.

To separate ; to disunite.—Nought but death shall *part* thee and me. *Ruth* i. 17.

All the world,
As 'twere the business of mankind to *part* us,
Is arm'd against my love. *Dryden*.

To break into pieces.—*Part* it in pieces, and pour oil thereon, *Levit*. ii. 6.—To keep afunder :

In the narrow seas that *part*
The French and English, there miscarried
A vessel of our country. *Shakespeare*.

To separate combatants.—The stumbling night did *part* our weary powers. *Shakespeare*.

Jove did both hosts survey,
And, when he pleas'd to thunder, *part* the fray. *Waller*.
To discern :

The liver minds his own affair,
And *parts* and strains the vital juices. *Prior*.

To *PART*, *v. n*. To be separated.—Powerful hands will not *part* easily from possession. *Milton*.

'Twas for him much easier to subdue
Those foes he fought with, than to *part* from you. *Dryden*.

To quit each other.—He wrung Bassanio's hand, and so they *parted*. *Shakespeare*.—If it pleases God to restore

me to my health, I shall make a third journey ; if not, we must *part*, as all human creatures have *parted*. *Swift*.

What ! *part*, for ever *part* ? unkind Ismena ;
Oh ! can you think, that death is half so dreadful,
As it would be to live without thee. *Smith*.

To take farewell.—Upon his removal, they *parted* from him with tears in their eyes. *Swift*.

Ere I could
Give him that *parting* kiss, which I had set
Betwixt two charming words, comes in my father. *Shakef*.

Nuptial bower ! by me adorn'd, from thee
How shall I *part*, and whither wander ? *Milton's P. L*.

To have share.—As his *part* is that goeth down to the battle, so shall his *part* be that tarrieth by the stuff ; they shall *part* alike. 1 *Sam*. xxx. 24.—[*Partir*, Fr.] To go away ; to set out ;

So *parted* they ; the angel up to heaven
From the thick shade, and Adam to his bower. *Milton*.

To *PART WITH*. To quit ; to resign ; to lose ; to be separated from.—The ideas of hunger and warmth are some of the first that children have, and which they scarce ever *part with*. *Locke*.—What a despicable figure must mock-patriots make, who venture to be hanged for the ruin of those civil rights, which their ancestors, rather than *part with*, chose to be cut to pieces in the field of battle ? *Addison's Freeholder*.—The good things of this world so delight in, as remember, that we are to *part with* them, to exchange them for more durable enjoyments. *Atterbury*.—As for riches and power, our Saviour plainly determines, that the best way to make them blessings, is to *part with* them. *Swift's Miscell*.

Celia, for thy sake, I *part*
With all that grew so near my heart ;
And, that I may successful prove,
Transform myself to what you love. *Waller*.

Thou marble hew'rt, ere long to *part with* breath ;
And houses rear'rt, unmindful of thy death. *Sandys*.

PARTABLE, *adj*. Divisible ; such as may be parted.—His hot love was *partable* among three other of his mistresses. *Camden's Remains*.

PARTABPOUR, a town of Bengal : twenty-five miles east of Midnapour. Lat. 22. 21. N. lon. 87. 50. E.

PARTABPOUR, a town of Hindoostan, in Oude : ten miles east of Fyzabad.

PARTAGE, *f*. [French.] Division ; act of sharing or parting.—Men have agreed to a disproportionate and unequal possession of the earth, having found out a way, how a man may fairly possess more land than he himself can use the product of, by receiving, in exchange for the overplus, gold and silver : this *partage* of things, in an equality of private possessions, men have made practicable out of the bounds of society, without compact, only by putting a value on gold and silver, and tacitly agreeing in the use of money. *Locke*.

To *PARTAKE*, *v. n*. preterite, I *partook* ; participle passive, *partaken* ; [from *part* and *take*.] To have share of any thing ; to take share with : it is commonly used with *of* before the thing shared. *Locke* uses it with *in*.—How far brutes *partake in* this faculty is not easy to determine. *Locke*.—Truth and falsehood have no other trial, but reason and proof which they made use of to make themselves knowing, and so must others too, that will *partake in* their knowledge. *Locke*.

Partake and use my kingdom as your own,
And shall be yours while I command the crown. *Dryden*.

To participate ; to have something of the property, nature, claim, or right.—The attorney of the duchy of Lancaster *partakes partly* of a judge, and partly of an attorney-general. *Bacon*.—To be admitted to ; not to be excluded :

You

You may *partake* of any thing we say;
We speak no treason.

Shakespeare's Rich. III.

To PARTA'KE, *v. a.* To share; to have part in.—Let her with thee *partake* what thou hast heard. *Milton's P. L.*

My royal father lives!

Let every one *partake* the general joy. *Dryden.*

To admit to part; to extend participation to. *Obsolete.*
—Your exultation *partake* to every one. *Shakespeare.*

My friend, hight Philemon, I did *partake*
Of all my love, and all my privy,
Who greatly joyous seemed for my sake.

Spenser.

PARTA'KER, *f.* A partner in possessions; a sharer of any thing; an associate with: commonly with *of* before the thing partaken.—They whom earnest lets hinder from being *partakers* of the whole, have yet, through length of divine service, opportunity for access unto some reasonable part thereof. *Hooker.*

Didst thou

Make us *partakers* of a little gain;

That now our loss might be ten times as much? *Shakespeare.*

Sometimes with *in* before the thing partaken: perhaps *of* is best before a thing, and *in* before an action.—If we had been in the days of our fathers, we would not have been *partakers* with them *in* the blood of the prophets. *Matth. xiii. 30.*

With me *partaker* in thy happiness,
When thou dost meet good hap.

Shakespeare.

Accomplice; associate.—Thou consentedst, and hast been *partaker* with adulterers. *Psalms l. 18.*—He took upon him the person of the duke of York, and drew with him complices and *partakers*. *Bacon.*

PARTA'KING, *f.* Combination; union in some bad design. *A juridical sense.*—As it prevents factions and *partakings*, so it keeps the rule and administration of the laws uniform. *Hale.*

PARTAPA'H, a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: thirteen miles north of Hajypour. Lat. 25. 54. N. lon. 85. 28. E.

PART'ED, *adj.* [from *part.*] Possessing accomplishments.—A man well *parted*, a sufficient scholar, and travelled. *B. Jonson's Every Man out of his Humour.*

PARTENAY. See PARTHENAY.

PARTENI, a river of Natolia, which runs into the Black Sea near Amasreh.

PARTENKERCH, a town of Bavaria, in the bishopric of Freysing: six miles south of Weilheim.

PART'ER, *f.* One that parts or separates.—The *partier* of the fray was night, which, with her black arms, pulled their malicious fights one from the other. *Sidney.*

PARTER'RE, *f.* [*parterre*, Fr.] A level division of ground, that, for the most part, faces the south and best front of an house, and is furnished with greens and flowers. *Miller.*—There are as many kinds of gardening as of poetry; your makers of *parterres* and flower-gardens are epigramatists and sonneteers. *Spectator.*

The vast *parterres* a thousand hands shall make;
Lo! Cobham comes, and floats them with a lake. *Pope.*

Of *parterres* there are two kinds; the plain ones and the *parterres* of embroidery. Plain *parterres* are most valuable in England, because of the firmness of the English grass-turf, which is superior to that of any other part of the world. *Parterres* of embroidery are those which are cut into shell and scroll work, with alleys between them. An oblong or long square, is accounted the most proper figure for a *parterre*; and a *parterre* should indeed be always twice as long as it is broad, because, according to the known laws of perspective, a long square always sinks to a square; and an exact square always appears less than it really is.

Parterres were formerly in great estimation, and were commonly situated directly in the front of the house, ge-

nerally the whole width, and sometimes more, extending proportionably in length: and, where the intermixture of the figures is artfully disposed, they strike the eye very agreeably, and afford an ornamental effect at all seasons. But works of this sort are now almost wholly out of use in this country; though, for the sake of variety, they may, on some occasions, still be admitted.

PARTESTI, a town of Bukovina: eighteen miles west of Sucava.

PAR'THA, a river of Saxony, which runs into the Pless near Leipzig.

PAR'THA, in mythology, a name of the Phallic emblem, worshipped by certain sects of Hindoos, and called by them LINGAM; see that article. The Partha is, we believe, a domestic idol, made of the usual conical form, with clay, and without any thing indecent in its appearance, for females to pay their daily adoration to. It is sometimes placed under a tree, and circumambulated a certain number of times daily, especially by barren females, in the hope of offspring. This ceremony is called *pradakshna*, and is described under that word.

PARTHENAY, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Two Seves, near the river Thoue. The place contains 3213 inhabitants. The trade of the town, which is considerable, consists in cattle and corn: twenty-one miles north-north-east of Niort. Lat. 46. 38. N. lon. 0. 10. W.

PARTHENAY (John de), Lord of Soubise, an heroic leader among the protestants of France; born 1512, died 1566.

PARTHENAY (Catharine de), daughter and heiress of the preceding, whose courage and constancy in the cause of Calvinism she likewise inherited, was born in 1554. To her fortitude was joined a good share of wit, and no contemptible turn to poetry, as appears from some poems which she published in 1572, when she could not be above eighteen years of age. She wrote also tragedies and comedies; and particularly the tragedy of Holofernes, which was represented on the theatre of Rochelle in 1574. She also translated the Precepts of Isocrates into French.

This lady was twice married: first, in 1568, when only fourteen years of age, to the baron de Pons; and afterwards, in 1575, to Renatus viscount Rohan. The celebrated duke de Rohan, who so courageously defended the protestant cause in France during the civil wars of Louis XIII. was her eldest son. Catharine, one of her daughters, has rendered her name illustrious by the following answer which she made to Henry IV. who solicited her favours: "I am too poor, sire, to be your wife, and too proud to be your mistress." Catharine, the subject of this article, was at Rochelle at the time of its memorable siege; and, when the place surrendered, she and her daughters were sent to the castle of Niort. She died in 1631, at the age of seventy-seven.

PARTHENIA, or PARTHENOS, in mythology, an epithet given to Minerva, because she is said to have preserved her virginity. When the Rhodians neglected the worship of that goddess, and their care in improving the fine arts, the Athenians began to distinguish themselves in this respect, and took her for their patroness. Accordingly they dedicated to her a magnificent temple, under the name of Parthenon. Phidias adorned it with a statue of gold and ivory, which was a master-piece; and the Athenians also celebrated to her honour a festival, which was afterward called PANATHENÆA, described at p. 313 of this volume.

Parthenos was also a name given to Juno, from a notion that this goddess, by bathing herself every year in the fountain called Canathos, which was at Nauplia, recovered her virginity; a fable, founded, according to Pausanias, upon the secret mysteries that were celebrated in honour of this goddess.

PARTHENIA, in ancient geography, a town of Illyria, according to Polybius; called by Julius Cæsar *Opidum Parthinorum*.

PARTHENIAD,

PARTHENIAD, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρθενος*, a virgin.] A poem in honour of a virgin—Divers pieces of *partheniads*, and hymnes in praise of the most praise-worthy. *Harrington's Apologie of Poetrie.*

PARTHENIÆ. See the article GREECE, vol. viii. p. 843.

PARTHENIAN, *adj.* [from the Gr. *παρθενος*, a virgin.] Belonging to virginity. *Cole.*

PARTHENIAS, a river of Triphylia, which ran from north to south, and discharged itself into the river Alpharus near Olympia.—The ancient name of Samos.

PARTHENIAS'TRUM, *f.* in botany. See **PARTHENIUM**.

PARTHEN'ICUM, in ancient geography, a town of Sicily, upon the route from Lilybæum to Tyndaris, between Segestæ and Hyccara, according to the Itin. of Antonine.

PARTHENIUM, *f.* [a name adopted from Dioscorides, whose *παρθενιον*, however, is the real feverfew, *Matricaria parthenium* of Linnæus. The name, from *παρθενος*, a virgin, alludes to its reputed efficacy in some female complaints. The above name, being therefore unemployed as a generic one, Linnæus applied it to this new genus, much resembling the ancient herb in aspect, and perhaps in sensible qualities, which Nisfol and Dillenius, on account of such resemblance, had called *Partheniastrum*.] In botany, a genus of the class monocia, order pentandria, natural order of nucamentacæ, (corymbifera, *Juss.*) Generic characters.—Calyx: perianthium common, quite simple, five-leaved, spreading: leaflets roundish, flat, equal. Corolla: compound convex. Corollets hermaphrodite, many in the disk: females, five in the ray, scarcely surpassing the others. Proper of the hermaphrodites one-petalled, tubular, erect, with the mouth five-cleft, the length of the calyx: of the females one-petalled, tubular, ligulate, oblique, blunt, roundish, the same length with the other. Stamina: in the hermaphrodites; filaments five, capillary, the length of the corollet. Antheræ as many, thickish, scarcely cohering. Pistillum: of the hermaphrodite; germ below the proper receptacle, scarcely observable; style capillary, generally shorter than the stamens; stigma none. Of the female, germ inferior, turbinate-cordate, compressed, large; style filiform, the length of the corollet. Stigmas two, filiform, the length of the style, spreading a little. Pericarpium: none; calyx unchanged. Seeds: in the hermaphrodite, abortive: in the females, solitary, turbinate-cordate, compressed, naked. Receptacle: scarcely any, flat; chaffs separate the florets, so that each female has two hermaphrodites behind.—*Essential Character.* Male. Calyx common five-leaved; corolla of the disk one-petalled. Female. Corolla of the ray five; on each side two males, with one female between, superior. There are two species.

1. *Parthenium hysterophorus*, cut-leaved parthenium, or bastard feverfew: leaves compound-multifid. This is an annual plant, growing wild in great plenty in the island of Jamaica, where it is called *wild wormwood*. It thrives very luxuriantly about all the settlements in the low lands. It is observed to have much the same qualities with feverfew; and may be used, like that, in resolutive baths and infusions. It was cultivated in 1739 by Mr. Miller; and flowers here in July and August.

2. *Parthenium integrifolium*, or entire-leaved parthenium: leaves ovate, crenate; (see **BOTANY** Plate VII. fig. 6.) This is a perennial plant, which dies to the ground every autumn, and shoots up again the following spring. Height three feet and more, with thick round fleshy stems. Leaves half-embracing, hirsute, not hairy, somewhat paler underneath, with frequent oblique veins or nerves: root-leaves larger and longer, on keeled petioles. The flowers grow in a corymb at the ends of the stem and branches; the heads are snow-white above, whitish-green below, villose at first. The florets are white, and much larger than in the first species. Native

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of Virginia, cultivated about 1661 by Mr. Walker, as appears from Plukenet; who says, that thirty years before (he published his *Phytographia*) he gathered a specimen of this plant in a garden belonging to Mr. Walker, at Westminster. Mr. Ray also (in 1686) says, that he cultivated it some years in his little garden at Cambridge, and that he had it from Walker, a gardener at London, whose son brought it, with other rare plants, from Virginia. Mr. Miller had seeds of it from his good friend Dr. Thomas Dale, who sent them from South Carolina: he says, that it grows also plentifully in several parts of the Spanish West Indies. It flowers in July, but seldom produces good seeds in England.

Propagation and Culture. The first may be propagated by sowing the seeds on a hot-bed early in the spring; and, when the plants come up, they should be transplanted on another hot-bed, at about five or six inches distance, observing to water and shade them until they have taken new root; after which time they must have a pretty large share of fresh air in warm weather, by raising the glasses of the hot-bed every day; and they must be duly watered every other day at least. When the plants have grown so as to meet each other, they should be carefully taken up, preserving a ball of earth to their roots, and each planted into a separate pot, filled with light rich earth; and, if they are plunged into a moderate hot-bed, it will greatly facilitate their taking fresh root; but, where this conveniency is wanting, the plants should be removed to a warm sheltered situation, where they must be shaded from the sun until they have taken new root; after which time they may be exposed, with other hardy annual plants, in a warm situation, where they will flower in July, and their seeds will ripen in September. But, if the season should prove cold and wet, it will be proper to have a plant or two in shelter, either in the stove or under tall frames, in order to have good seeds, if those plants which are exposed should fail, whereby the species may be preserved. The other species may be propagated by parting the roots in autumn, and may be planted in the full ground, where it will abide the cold of our ordinary winters very well. See **ACHILLEA**, **CHRYSANTHEMUM**, **IVA**, and **MATRICARIA**.

PARTHENIUM KARANDIP, a village of the Tauric Chersonesus, in the narrowest part of the strait called Cimmerian Bosphorus, sixty stadia above Panticapæum, and over against Achillæum. *Strabo*.—Also, a promontory of the Tauric Chersonesus, nearly south of Chersonesus. Near this promontory was a temple, and a statue of the goddess of the country.—Also, a town of the Peloponnesus, in Arcadia.—A town of Asia, in Mysia, in the vicinity of the Troade.—A town of Greece, in the island of Eubœa.

PARTHENIUM MA'RE, the name of a part of the Mediterranean Sea which bathed Asia and Africa in the place where these two regions of the globe joined each other. *Macrobius*.—Also, a promontory in the vicinity of the town of Heraclea.

PARTHENIUS, in ancient geography, a river of the Isle of Samos.—Also, a river of Asia Minor, which ran into the Euxine Sea, and separated the territories belonging to the towns of Amastris and Teium. *Strabo* represents it as a beautiful river, which pursued its course among meadows; and it had the name of the Virgin, on account of the worship paid to Diana on its banks.—Also, a river of Asia, in Cilicia, near the town of Anchiala. *Suidas*.—Also, a mountain of Argolis, which extended from west to east, from the Argolic Gulf to the frontiers of Arcadia. The poet Callimachus describes this mountain by the expression, "The sacred mountain of Augé:" denoting, as it is supposed, that on this mountain passed the amours of Hercules and Augæa, of which Telephus was the fruit. Here Telephus had a temple. Here also Atalanta was exposed and brought up. *Lempriere's Class. Dict.*

PARTHENON. See the article **ATHENS**, vol. ii. p. 466.

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PARTHEN'OPÉ,

PARTHENOPE, one of the Syrens.—Also, a city of Campania, afterwards called *Neapolis*, or the New City, when it had been enlarged and beautified by a colony from Eubœa. It received its first name, Parthenope, from one of the Syrens, whose body was found on the sea-shore there. Now NAPLES.

PARTHENOPOLIS, a town of Macedonia. *Steph. Byz.*—Also, a town of Asia, in Bithynia, which did not subsist in the time of Pliny.—Also, a town of Upper Mœsia, subjugated by Lucullus.

PARTHIA, a celebrated empire of antiquity in Asia, bounded on the west by Media, on the north by Hyrcania, on the east by Aria, on the south by Carmania the desert; surrounded on every side by mountains, which still serve as a boundary, though its name is now changed, having obtained that of *Irac* or *Arac*; and, to distinguish it from Chaldæa, that of *Irac Agemi*. By Ptolemy it is divided into five districts, viz. Camisene, or Gamisene, Partheyne, Choroane, Atticene, and Tabiene. The ancient geographers enumerate a great many cities in this country. Ptolemy in particular reckons twenty-five large cities; and it certainly must have been very populous, since we have accounts of 2000 villages, besides a number of cities, in this district, being destroyed by earthquakes. Its capital was named *Hecatompolis*, from the circumstance of its having 100 gates. It was a noble and magnificent place; and, according to some, it still remains under the name of *Ispahan*, the capital of the present Persian empire.

Parthia is by some supposed to have been first peopled by the Phetri or Pathri, often mentioned in Scripture; and that the Parthians are descended from Pathrusim the son of Misraim. But, however true this may be with regard to the ancient inhabitants, yet it is certain, that those Parthians who were so famous in history were originally Scythians, driven out of their own country, and obliged to settle in this barren and inhospitable region. They called themselves, on their first settling here, *Parthians*; that is, in the old Scythian language, "exiles;" and hence, it is said, originated the name of Parthia.

The Parthians were a courageous and warlike people, not undervalued by the best horseman and archers in the world. They were accustomed, from their infancy, says Dionysius, (in *Poem de Situ Orb.*) to the warlike and manly exercises of managing a horse and handling a bow; and in both excelled all other nations. They had the art, peculiar to themselves, of discharging their arrows with incredible dexterity whilst they were retiring at full speed, so that their retreat was more formidable than their attack. To these exercises of horsemanship and archery, the air and country very much contributed; for the dry air, as Dio observes, seasoned their bows, and their extensive plains afforded them room for training their horses. From the age of twenty to fifty, they were all, without exception, obliged to serve in war, to attend the musters, learn the military exercises, and be ready, at a very short warning, to take the field. Persons of any rank or distinction among them, never appeared in public on foot, but always on horseback, armed with scimitars. In war they did not use trumpets like other nations, but large hollow vessels of brass, covered with skins, like our kettle-drums, which, being beat with hammers, yielded a very warlike sound. The Roman poets often refer to the military character and evolutions of the Parthians.

Their religion was much the same with that of the Persians, and they worshipped the sun under the name of Mithras. They believed that those who fell in battle enjoyed perpetual happiness; a doctrine suited to the genius of a warlike nation. They were religious observers of their promises, thinking it highly dishonourable not to perform their engagements, or to deceive those who reposed confidence in them.

As to their government, it was monarchical, and in the highest degree absolute. The kings treated their subjects

as the meanest of slaves, and scarcely as men, whilst they put themselves on a level with the immortal gods. Their usual titles were "the king of kings, the great monarch, the brother of the sun and moon." These haughty titles they not only assumed in all the laws and edicts they enacted, but in their letters to other princes. Their conduct corresponded to the lofty titles which they assumed; for they obliged all whom they vouchsafed to see, to kiss the threshold on their first entrance into the royal palace; to prostrate themselves before them on the ground, and to acknowledge their majesty with some offering.

The history of the Parthians is involved in great obscurity before the time of Arsaces I. They were first subject to the Medes, afterwards to the Persians, and lastly to Alexander the Great. Upon his death, Parthia fell to the share of Seleucus Nicator, whose successors held it till the reign of Antiochus Theus, when Arsaces, shaking off the Macedonian yoke, founded a new kingdom, which became much the most powerful in the east. Arsaces I. was properly the founder of the Parthian monarchy. Having induced the Parthians to revolt from Antiochus Theus, about the year 250 before Christ, and having defeated and taken prisoner his son and successor, Seleucus Callinicus, he assumed the title of king, and established an empire in the East, which counterbalanced the overgrown power of the Romans in the West. He reduced Hyrcania, and some other neighbouring provinces; and was at last killed in a battle against Ariarathes IV. king of Cappadocia. From him all his successors of the same race took the name of *Arsaces*; so that the Empire of the Parthians was sometimes denominated the Empire of the Arsacides.

Arsaces II. succeeded his father; and, entering Media, made himself master of that country, while Antiochus the Great was engaged in a war with Ptolemy Evergetes king of Egypt. Antiochus, however, was no sooner disengaged from that war, than he marched with all his forces against Arsaces, and at first drove him quite out of Media: but he soon returned with an army of 100,000 foot and 20,000 horse, with which he put a stop to the further progress of Antiochus; and a treaty was soon after concluded, in which it was agreed, that Arsaces should remain master of Parthia and Hyrcania, upon condition of assisting him in his wars with other nations.

Arsaces II. was succeeded by his son Priapates, who reigned fifteen years, and left three sons, Phraates, Mithridates, and Artabanus. Phraates, the eldest, succeeded to the throne, and reduced under his subjection the Mardi, who had never been conquered by any but Alexander the Great. After him, his brother Mithridates was invested with the regal dignity. He reduced the Bactrians, Medes, Persians, Elymeans, and overran in a manner all the east, penetrating beyond the boundaries of Alexander's conquests. Demetrius Nicator, who then reigned in Syria, endeavoured to recover those provinces; but his army was entirely destroyed; and himself taken prisoner, in which state he remained till his death. The reign of Mithridates is regarded by authors as the epoch of the Parthian grandeur; for, under him, that empire was by far the most extensive, as well as powerful, in the east: all the countries that lie between the Euphrates and Mount Caucasus receiving law from him; and most of the princes of Asia being either subdued, or obliged to enter into an alliance with him upon his own terms.

Mithridates died in the thirty-seventh year of his reign, and left the throne to his son Phraates II. who was scarcely settled in his kingdom, when Antiochus Sidetes, king of Syria, marched against him at the head of a numerous army, under pretence of delivering his brother Demetrius, who was still in captivity. Phraates was defeated in three pitched battles; in consequence of which he lost all the countries conquered by his father, and was reduced within the limits of the ancient Parthian kingdom. Antiochus did not, however, long enjoy his good fortune;

for

for his army, on account of their number, amounting to no fewer than 400,000, being obliged to separate to such distances as prevented them, in case of any sudden attack, from joining together, the inhabitants, whom they had most cruelly oppressed, taking advantage of this separation, conspired with the Parthians to destroy them. This was accordingly executed; and the vast army of Antiochus, with the monarch himself, were slaughtered in one day, scarcely a single person escaping to carry the news to Syria. Phraates elated with this success, proposed to invade Syria; but, in the mean time, happening to quarrel with the Scythians, he was by them cut off with his whole army, and was succeeded by his uncle Artabanus.

The new king enjoyed his dignity but a very short time, being, a few days after his accession, killed in another battle with the Scythians. He was succeeded by Pacorus, who entered into an alliance with the Romans; and he by Phraates III. This monarch took under his protection Tigranes, the son of Tigranes the Great, king of Armenia, gave him his daughter in marriage, and invaded the kingdom with the design to place the son on the throne of Armenia; but, on the approach of Pompey, he thought proper to retire, and soon after solemnly renewed the treaty with the Romans.

Phraates was murdered by his children Mithridates and Orodes; and soon after the former was put to death by his brother, who thus became sole master of the Parthian empire. In his reign happened the memorable war with the Romans under Crassus. This was occasioned, not by any breach of treaty on the side of the Parthians, but through the shameful avarice of Crassus. The whole Roman empire at that time had been divided between Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus; and, by virtue of that partition, the eastern provinces had fallen to the lot of Crassus. No sooner was he invested with this dignity, than he resolved to carry the war into Parthia, in order to enrich himself with the spoils of that people, who were then looked upon to be very wealthy. Some of the tribunes opposed him, as the Parthians had religiously observed the treaty; but Crassus having, by the assistance of Pompey, carried every thing before him, left Rome in the year 55 B. C. and pursued his march to Brundisium, where he immediately embarked his troops, though the wind blew very high; and, after a difficult passage, where he lost many of his ships, he reached the ports of Galatia. From Galatia, Crassus hastened to Syria; and, passing through Judea, plundered the temple at Jerusalem in his way. He then marched with as great expedition as he could to the river Euphrates, which he crossed on a bridge of boats; and, entering the Parthian dominions, began hostilities.

As the Parthians had not expected an invasion, they were quite unprepared for resistance; and therefore Crassus overran all Mesopotamia; and, if he had taken advantage of the consternation which the Parthians were in, might have also reduced Babylonia. But, instead of this, early in the autumn he repassed the Euphrates, leaving only 7000 foot and 1000 horse to garrison the places he had reduced; and, putting his army into winter-quarters in Syria, gave himself totally up to his favourite passion of amassing money. Early in the spring, the Roman general drew his forces out of their winter-quarters, in order to pursue the war with vigour; but, during the winter, Orodes had collected a very numerous army, and was well prepared to oppose him. Before he entered upon action, however, the Parthian monarch sent ambassadors to Crassus, in order to expostulate with him on his injustice in attacking an ally of the Roman empire; but Crassus, without attending to what they said, only returned for answer, that "they should have his answer at Seleucia."

Orodes, finding that a war was not to be avoided, divided his army into two bodies. One he commanded in person, and marched toward Armenia, in order to oppose the king of that country, who had raised a considerable

army to assist the Romans. The other he sent into Mesopotamia, under the command of Surenas, a most experienced general, by whose conduct all the cities which Crassus had reduced were quickly retaken. On this, some Roman soldiers who made their escape, and fled to the camp of Crassus, filled the mind of his army with terror at the accounts of the number, power, and strength, of the enemy. They told their fellow-soldiers, that the Parthians were very numerous, brave, and well disciplined; that it was impossible to overtake them when they fled, or escape them when they pursued; that their defensive weapons were proof against the Roman darts, and their offensive weapons so sharp, that no buckler was proof against them, &c. Crassus looked upon all this as the effect of cowardice: but the common soldiers, and even many of the chief officers, were so disheartened, that Cassius, the same who afterwards conspired against Cæsar, and most of the legionary tribunes, advised Crassus to suspend his march, and consider better of the enterprise before he proceeded farther in it. But Crassus obstinately persisted in his former resolution, being encouraged by the arrival of Artabazus king of Armenia, who brought with him 6000 horse, and promised to send 10,000 cuirassiers and 30,000 foot, whenever he should stand in need of them. At the same time, he advised him by no means to march his army through the plains of Mesopotamia, but to take his route over the mountains of Armenia. He told him, that, as Armenia was a mountainous country, the enemy's cavalry, in which their main strength consisted, would there be entirely useless; and besides, his army would there be plentifully supplied with all manner of necessaries: whereas, if he marched by the way of Mesopotamia, he would be perpetually harassed by the Parthian horse, and frequently be obliged to lead his army through sandy deserts, where he would be distressed for want of water and all other provisions. This salutary advice, however, was rejected; and Crassus entered Mesopotamia with an army of about 40,000 men.

The Romans had no sooner crossed the Euphrates, than Cassius advised his general to advance to some of those towns in which the garrisons yet remained, in order to halt and refresh his troops: or, if he did not choose to follow this advice, he said that his best way would be to march along the banks of the Euphrates to Seleucia; as by this method he would prevent the Parthians from surrounding him, at the same time he would be plentifully supplied with provisions from his ships. Of this advice Crassus seemed to approve; but was dissuaded by Abgarus king of Edeffa, whom the Romans took for an ally, but who was in reality a traitor sent by Surenas to bring about the destruction of the Roman army.

Under the conduct of this faithless guide, the Romans entered a vast green plain divided by many rivulets. Their march proved very easy through this fine country; but the farther they advanced, the worse the roads became, insomuch that they were at last obliged to climb up rocky mountains, which brought them to a dry and sandy plain, where they could neither find food to satisfy their hunger, nor water to quench their thirst. Abgarus then began to be suspected by the tribunes and other officers, who earnestly entreated Crassus not to follow him any longer, but to retreat to the mountains; at the same time an express arrived from Artabazus, acquainting the Roman general that Orodes had invaded his dominions with a great army, and that he was obliged to keep his troops at home in order to defend his own dominions. The same messenger advised Crassus in his master's name to avoid by all means the barren plains, where his army would certainly perish with hunger and fatigue, and by all means to approach Armenia, that they might join their forces against the common enemy. But all was to no purpose; Crassus, instead of hearkening either to the advice of the king or his own officers, first flew into a violent passion with the messengers of Artabazus,

Artabazus, and then told his troops, that they were not to expect the delights of Campania in the most remote parts of the world.

Thus they continued their march for some days across a desert, the very sight of which was sufficient to throw them into the utmost despair; for they could not perceive, either near them or at a distance, the least tree, plant, or brook; nor so much as a hill, or a single blade of grass; nothing was to be seen all around them but huge heaps of burning sand. The Romans had scarcely got through this desert, when word was brought them by their scouts, that a numerous army of Parthians was advancing in full march to attack them; for Abgarus, under pretence of going out on parties, had often conferred with Surenas, and concerted measures with him for destroying the Roman army. Upon this advice, which occasioned great confusion in the camp, the Romans being quite exhausted and tired out with their long and troublesome march, Crassus drew up his men in battalia, following at first the advice of Cassius, who was for extending the infantry as wide as possible, that they might take up the more ground, and by that means prevent the enemy from surrounding them: but, Abgarus assuring the proconsul that the Parthian forces were not so numerous as was represented, he changed this disposition, and, believing only the man who betrayed him, drew up his troops in a square, which faced every way, and had on each side twelve cohorts in front. Near each cohort he placed a troop of horse to support them, that they might charge with the greater security and boldness. Thus the whole army looked more like one phalanx than troops drawn up in manipuli, with spaces between them, after the Roman manner. The general himself commanded in the centre, his son in the left wing, and Cassius in the right.

In this order they advanced to the banks of a small river called the Balissus, the sight of which was very pleasing to the soldiers, who were much harassed with drought and excessive heat. Most of the officers were for encamping on the banks of this river, or rather rivulet, to give the troops time to refresh themselves after the fatigues of so long and painful a march; and, in the mean time, to procure certain intelligence of the number and disposition of the Parthian army; but Crassus, suffering himself to be hurried on by the inconsiderate ardour of his son, and the horse he commanded, only allowed the legions to take a meal standing; and, before this could be done by all, he ordered them to advance, not slowly, and halting now and then, after the Roman manner, but as fast as they could move, till they came in sight of the Parthians, who, contrary to their expectation, did not appear either so numerous or so terrible as they had been represented; but this was a stratagem of Surenas, who had concealed his men in convenient places, ordering them to cover their arms, lest their brightness should betray them, and, starting up at the first signal, to attack the enemy on all sides. The stratagem had the desired effect; for Surenas no sooner gave the signal, than the Parthians, rising as it were out of the ground, with dreadful cries, and a most frightful noise, advanced against the Romans, who were greatly surprised and dismayed at the sight; and much more so, when the Parthians, throwing off the covering of their arms, appeared in shining cuirasses, and helmets of burnished steel, finely mounted on horses covered all over with armour of the same metal. At their head appeared young Surenas, in a rich dress, who was the first to charge the enemy, endeavouring, with his pikemen, to break through the first rank of the Roman army; but, finding it too close and impenetrable, the cohorts supporting each other, he fell back, and retired in a seeming confusion: but the Romans were much surprised when they saw themselves suddenly surrounded on all sides, and galled with continual showers of arrows. Crassus ordered his light-armed foot and archers to ad-

vance; but they were soon repulsed, and forced to cover themselves behind the heavy-armed foot. Then the Parthian horse, advancing near the Romans, discharged showers of arrows upon them, every one of which did execution, the legionaries being drawn up in such close order, that it was impossible to miss their aim. As their arrows were of an extraordinary weight, and discharged with incredible force and impetuosity, nothing was proof against them. The two wings advanced in good order, but to no effect; for the Parthians drew their bows with as great dexterity when their backs were turned as when they faced the enemy; so that the Romans, whether they kept their ground, or pursued the flying enemy, were equally annoyed with these fatal arrows.

The Romans, as long as they had any hopes that the Parthians, after having spent their arrows, would either betake themselves to flight or engage them hand to hand, stood their ground with great resolution and intrepidity; but, when they observed that there were a great many camels in their rear loaded with arrows, and that those who emptied their quivers wheeled about to fill them anew, they began to lose courage, and loudly to complain of their general for suffering them thus to stand still, and serve only as a butt to the enemy's arrows, which, they well saw, would not be exhausted till they were all killed to a man. Hereupon Crassus ordered his son to advance, at all adventures, with 1300 horse, 500 archers; and 8 cohorts. But the Parthians no sooner saw this choice body (for it was the flower of the army) marching up against them, than they wheeled about, and betook themselves, according to their custom, to flight. Hereupon young Crassus, crying out as loud as he could, "They fly before us!" pushed on full speed after them, not doubting but he should gain a complete victory; but, when he was at a great distance from the main body of the Roman army, he perceived his mistake; for those who before had fled, facing about, charged him with incredible fury. Young Crassus ordered his troops to halt, hoping that the enemy, upon seeing their small number, would not be afraid to come to a close fight; but herein he was likewise greatly disappointed; for the Parthians, contenting themselves to oppose his front with their heavy-armed horse, surrounded him on all sides; and, keeping at a distance, discharged incessant showers of arrows upon the unfortunate Romans, thus surrounded and pent up. The Parthian army, in wheeling about, raised so thick a dust, that the Romans could scarcely see one another, much less the enemy: nevertheless, they found themselves wounded with arrows, though they could not perceive whence they came. In a short time the place where they stood was all strown with dead bodies.

Some of the unhappy Romans, finding their entrails torn, and many overcome by the exquisite torments they suffered, rolled themselves in the sand with the arrows in their bodies, and expired in that manner. Others, endeavouring to tear out by force the bearded points of the arrows, only made the wounds the larger, and increased their pain. Most of them died in this manner; and those who outlived their companions were no more in a condition to act; for, when young Crassus exhorted them to march up to the enemy, some showed him their wounded bodies, others their hands nailed to their bucklers, and some their feet pierced through and pinned to the ground; so that it was equally impossible for them either to attack the enemy or defend themselves. The young commander, therefore, leaving his infantry to the mercy of the enemy, advanced at the head of the cavalry against their heavy-armed horse. The thousand Gauls, whom he had brought with him from the west, charged the enemy with incredible boldness and vigour; but their lances did little execution on men armed with cuirasses, and horses covered with tried armour: however, they behaved with great resolution; for some of them, taking hold of the enemy's spears, and closing with

with them, threw them off their horses on the ground, where they lay without being able to stir, by reason of the great weight of their armour; others, dismounting, crept under the enemy's horses, and, thrusting their swords into their bellies, made them throw their riders. Thus the brave Gauls fought, though greatly harraised with heat and thirst, which they were not accustomed to bear, till most of their horses were killed, and their commander dangerously wounded. They then thought it advisable to retire to their infantry, which they no sooner joined, than the Parthians invested them anew, making a most dreadful havoc of them with their arrows. In this desperate condition, Crassus, spying a rising ground at a small distance, led the remains of his detachment thither, with a design to defend himself in the best manner he could, till succours should be sent him from his father. The Parthians pursued him; and, having surrounded him in his new post, continued showering arrows upon his men, till most of them were either killed or disabled, without being able to make use of their arms.

Young Crassus had two Greeks with him, who had settled in the city of Carrhæ. These, touched with compassion, at seeing so brave a man reduced to such straits, pressed him to retire with them to the neighbouring city of Ichenes, which had declared for the Romans; but the young Roman rejected their proposal with indignation, telling them, that he would rather die a thousand times than abandon so many valiant men, who sacrificed their lives for his sake. Having returned this answer to his two Greek friends, he embraced and dismissed them, giving them leave to retire and shift for themselves in the best manner they could. As for himself, having now lost all hopes of being relieved, and seeing most of his men and friends killed round him, he gave way to his grief; and, not being able to make use of his arm, which was shot through with a large barbed arrow, he presented his side to one of his attendants, and ordered him to put an end to his unhappy life. His example was followed by Censorius a senator, by Megabacchus an experienced and brave officer, and by most of the nobility who served under him. Five hundred common soldiers were taken prisoners, and the rest cut to pieces.

The Parthians, having thus cut off or taken the whole detachment commanded by young Crassus, marched without delay against his father, who, upon the first advice that the enemy fled before his son, and were closely pursued by him, had taken heart, the more because those who had remained to make head against him seemed to abate much of their ardour, the greatest part of them having marched with the rest against his son. Wherefore, having encouraged his troops, he had retired to a small hill in his rear, to wait there till his son returned from the pursuit. Young Crassus had dispatched frequent expresses to his father, to acquaint him of the danger he was in; but they had fallen into the enemy's hands; only the last messenger, who had escaped with great difficulty, arrived safe, and informed him that his son was lost if he did not send him an immediate and powerful reinforcement. This news threw Crassus into the utmost consternation; a thousand affecting thoughts rose in his mind, and disturbed his reason to such a degree, that he scarcely knew what he was doing. However, the desire he had of saving his son, and so many brave Romans who were under his command, made him immediately decamp, and march to their assistance; but he was not gone far before he was met by the Parthians, who, with loud shouts and songs of victory, gave, at a distance, the unhappy father notice of his misfortune. They had cut off young Crassus's head, and, having fixed it on the point of a lance, were advancing full speed to fall on the father. As they drew near, Crassus was struck with that dismal and affecting sight; but, on this occasion, behaved like a hero: for, though he was under the deepest concern, he had the presence of mind to stifle his grief, for fear of discouraging the army, and to cry out to the dis-

mayed troops, "This misfortune is entirely mine; the loss of one man cannot affect the victory. Let us charge; let us fight like Romans: if you have any compassion for a father who has just lost a son whose valour you admired, let it appear in your rage and resentment against these insulting barbarians." Thus Crassus strove to reanimate his troops; but his efforts were unsuccessful: their courage was quite sunk, as appeared from the faint and languishing shout which they raised, according to custom, before the action. When the signal was given, the Parthians, keeping to their old way of fighting, discharged clouds of arrows on the legionaries, without drawing near them; which did such dreadful execution, that many of the Romans, to avoid the arrows, which occasioned a long and painful death, threw themselves, like men in despair, on the enemy's heavy-armed horse, seeking from their spears a more quick and easy kind of death. Thus the Parthians continued plying them incessantly with their arrows till night, when they left the field of battle, crying out, that they would allow the father one night to lament the death of his son.

This was a melancholy night for the Romans. Crassus kept himself concealed from the soldiery, lying not in the general's tent, but in the open air, and on the bare ground, with his head wrapped up in his *pahudamentum*, or military cloak; and was, in that forlorn condition, says Plutarch, a great example to the vulgar, of the instability of fortune; to the wife, a still greater of the pernicious effects of avarice, temerity, and ambition. Octavius, one of his lieutenants, and Cassius, approached him, and endeavoured to raise him up and console him: but, seeing him quite sunk under the weight of his affliction, and deaf to all comfort, they summoned a council of war, composed of all the chief officers; wherein it was unanimously resolved, that they should decamp before break of day, and retire, without sound of trumpet, to the neighbouring city of Carrhæ, which was held by a Roman garrison. Agreeably to this resolution, they began their march as soon as the council broke up; which produced dreadful outcries among the sick and wounded, who, perceiving that they were to be abandoned to the enemy, filled the camp with their complaints and lamentations: but their cries and tears, though very affecting, did not stop the march of the others, which indeed was very slow, to give the stragglers time to come up. There were only 300 light horse, under the command of one *Ægnatius*, who pursued their march without stopping. These arriving at Carrhæ about midnight, *Ægnatius*, calling to the centinels on the walls, desired them to acquaint Coponius, governor of the place, that Crassus had fought a great battle with the Parthians; and, without saying a word more, or letting him know who he was, continued his march with all possible expedition to the bridge of Zeugma; which he passed, and by that means saved his troops, but was much blamed for abandoning his general.

However, the message he sent to Coponius was of some temporary service to Crassus. For that commander, wisely conjecturing, from the manner in which the unknown person had given him that intelligence, that some misfortune had befallen Crassus, immediately ordered his garrison to stand to their arms; and, marching out, met Crassus, and conducted him and his army into the city: for the Parthians, though informed of his flight, did not offer to pursue him, observing therein the superstitious custom which obtained among them and the Persians, *not to fight in the night*; but, when it was day, they entered the Roman camp, and having put all the wounded, to the number of 4000, to the sword, dispersed their cavalry all over the plain in pursuit of the fugitives. One of Crassus's lieutenants, named *Vargunteius*, having separated in the night from the main body of the army, with four cohorts, missed his way, and was overtaken by the enemy; at whose approach he withdrew to a neighbouring hill, where he defended himself, with great va-

lour, till all his men were killed, except twenty, who made their way sword in hand, and got safe to Carrhæ: but Vargunteius himself lost his life.

In the mean time Surenas, not knowing whether Crassus and Cassius had retired to Carrhæ, or chosen a different route; in order to be informed of the truth, and take his measures accordingly, dispatched a messenger, who spoke the Roman language, to the city of Carrhæ, enjoining him to approach the walls, and acquaint Crassus himself, or Cassius, that the Parthian general was inclined to enter into a treaty with them, and demanded a conference. Both Crassus and Cassius spoke from the walls with the messenger; and, accepting the proposal with great joy, desired that the time and place for an interview might be immediately agreed upon. The messenger withdrew, promising to return quickly with an answer from Surenas: but that general no sooner understood that Crassus and Cassius were in Carrhæ, than he marched thither with his whole army; and, having invested the place, acquainted the Romans, that if they expected any favourable terms, they must deliver up Crassus and Cassius to him in chains. Hereupon a council of the chief officers being summoned, it was thought expedient to retire from Carrhæ that very night, and seek for another asylum. It was of the utmost importance that none of the inhabitants of Carrhæ should be acquainted with their design till the time of its execution; but Crassus, whose whole conduct evidently shows that he was blinded, as Dio Cassius observes, by some divinity, imparted the whole matter in confidence to one Andromachus, choosing him for his guide, and relying injudiciously on the fidelity of a man whom he scarcely knew. Andromachus immediately acquainted Surenas with the design of the Romans; promising at the same time, "as the Parthians did not engage in the night," to manage matters so, that they should not get out of his reach before daybreak. Pursuant to his promise, he led them through many windings and turnings, till he brought them into deep marshy grounds, where the infantry were up to the knees in mire. Then Cassius, suspecting that their guide had led them into those bogs with no good design, refused to follow him any longer; and, returning to Carrhæ, took his route towards Syria, which he reached with 500 horse. Octavius, with 5000 men under his command, being conducted by trusty guides, gained the mountains called by Plutarch and Appian *Sinnaci*, and there intrenched himself before break of day.

As for Crassus, he was still entangled in the marshes, when Surenas, at the rising of the sun, overtook him, and invested him with his cavalry. The proconsul had with him four cohorts, and a small body of horse; and with these he gained, in spite of all opposition, the summit of another hill within twelve furlongs of Octavius; who, seeing the danger that threatened his general, flew to his assistance, first with a small number of his men, but was soon followed by all the rest, who, being ashamed of their cowardice, quitted their post, though very safe, and, charging the Parthians with great fury, disengaged Crassus, and obliged the enemy to abandon the hill. Upon the retreat of the Parthians, the Romans formed themselves into a hollow square; and, placing Crassus in the middle, made a kind of rampart round him with their bucklers, resolutely protesting, that none of the enemy's arrows should touch their general's body, till they were all killed fighting in his defence. Surenas, loth to let so fine a prey escape, surrounded the hill, as if he designed to make a new attack: but, finding his Parthians very backward, and not doubting but the Romans, when night came on, would pursue their march, and get out of his reach, he had recourse again to artifice; and declared before some prisoners, whom he soon after set at liberty, that he was inclined to treat with the proconsul of a peace; and that it was better to come to a reconciliation with Rome, than to sow the seeds of an eternal war, by shedding the blood of one of her generals.

Agreeably to this declaration, Surenas, as soon as the prisoners were released, advanced towards the hill where the Romans were posted, attended only by some of his officers, and, with his bow unbent, and open arms, invited Crassus to an interview. So sudden a change seemed very suspicious to the proconsul; who therefore declined the interview, till he was forced, by his own soldiers, to intrust his life with an enemy whose treachery they had all experienced; for the legionaries, flocking round him, not only abused him in an outrageous manner, but even menaced him if he did not accept of the proposals made him by the Parthian general. Seeing, therefore, that his troops were ready to mutiny, he began to advance, without arms or guards, towards the enemy, after having called the gods and his officers to witness the violence his troops offered him; and entreated all who were present, but especially Octavius and Petronius, two of the chief commanders, for the honour of Rome their common mother, not to mention, after his death, the shameful behaviour of the Roman legionaries. Octavius and Petronius could not resolve to let him go alone; but attended him down the hill, as did likewise some legionaries, keeping at a distance. Crassus was met at the foot of the hill by two Greeks, who, dismounting from their horses, saluted him with great respect; and desired him, in the Greek tongue, to send some of his attendants, who might satisfy him that Surenas, and those who were with him, came without arms. Hereupon Crassus sent two brothers, of the Roscian family; but Surenas, having caused them to be seized advanced to the foot of the hill, mounted on a fine horse, and attended by the chief officers of his army. Crassus, who waited for the return of his two messengers, was surprised to see himself prevented by Surenas in person, when he least expected it. The Parthian general, perceiving, as he approached Crassus, that he was on foot, cried out, in a seeming surprise, "What do I see? a Roman general on foot, and we on horseback! Let a horse be brought for him immediately." "You need not be surprised, (replied Crassus;) we are come only to an interview, each after the custom of his country." "Very well, (answered Surenas;) there shall be henceforth a lasting peace between king Orodes and the people of Rome: but we must sign the articles of it on the banks of the Euphrates; for you Romans do not always remember your conventions." Crassus would have sent for a horse; but a very stately one, with a golden bit, and richly caparioned, was brought to him by a Parthian; which Surenas presenting to him, "Accept this horse from my hands, (said he,) which I give you in the name of my master, king Orodes." He had scarcely uttered these words, when some of the king's officers, taking Crassus by the middle, set him upon the horse, which they began to whip with great violence before them in order to make him quicken his pace. Octavius, offended at this insult, took the horse by the bridle; Petronius and the few Romans who were present, seconded him, and, flocking all round Crassus, stopped his horse. The Parthians endeavoured to repulse them; and they began to jostle and push one another with great tumult and disorder. At last, Octavius, drawing his sword, killed one of the king's grooms; but at the same time another, coming behind Octavius, with one blow laid him dead at his feet. Both parties fought with great resolution, the Parthians striving to carry off Crassus, and the Romans to rescue him out of their hands. In this scuffle most of the Romans who came to the conference were killed; and, amongst the rest, Crassus himself, but whether by a Roman or a Parthian is uncertain. Upon his death, the rest of the army either surrendered to the enemy, or, dispersing in the night, were pursued, and put to the sword. The Romans lost in this campaign at least 30,000 men; of which 20,000 were killed, and 10,000 taken prisoners.

When the battle of Carrhæ was fought, king Orodes was in Armenia, where he had made peace with Artabazus.

bazus. While the two kings were solemnizing their new alliance with expensive and public feasts, Syllaces or Syllaces, a Parthian officer, whom Surenas had sent with the news of his late victory, and the head of Crassus as a proof of it, arrived in the capital of Armenia. The transports of joy which Orodes felt at this sight, are not to be expressed; and the lords of both kingdoms, who attended their sovereigns, raised loud and repeated shouts of joy. Syllaces was ordered to give a more particular and distinct account of that memorable action; which when he had done, Orodes commanded melted gold to be poured into Crassus's mouth; reproaching him thereby with avarice, which had been always his predominant passion.

Surenas did not long enjoy the pleasure of his victory; for Orodes, jealous of his power and authority among the Parthians, soon after caused him to be put to death. Pacorus, the king's favourite son, was put at the head of the army; and, agreeably to his father's directions, invaded Syria: but he was driven out from thence with great loss by Cicero and Cassius, the only general who survived the defeat of Crassus.

After this we find no mention of the Parthians till the time of the civil war between Cæsar and Pompey, when the latter sent ambassadors to solicit succour against his rival. This Orodes was willing to grant upon condition that Syria was delivered up to him; but, as Pompey would not consent to such a proposal, the succours were not only denied, but, after the battle of Pharsalia, he put Lucius Hirtius in irons, whom Pompey had again sent to ask assistance, or at least to desire leave to shelter himself in the Parthian dominions.

Cæsar is said to have meditated a war against the Parthians, which in all probability would have proved fatal to them. His death delivered them from this danger. But, not long after, the eastern provinces, being grievously oppressed by Mark Anthony, rose up in arms; and, having killed the tax-gatherers, invited the Parthians to join them and drive out the Romans. They very readily accepted the invitation, and crossed the Euphrates with a powerful army under the command of Pacorus, and Labienus a Roman general of Pompey's party. At first they met with great success, overran all Asia Minor, and reduced all the countries as far as the Hellespont and the Egean Sea, subduing likewise Phœnicia, Syria, and even Judea. They did not however long enjoy their new conquests: for, being elated with their victories, and despising the enemy, they engaged Ventidius, Anthony's lieutenant, before Labienus had time to join them, and were utterly defeated. This so disheartened Labienus's army, that they all abandoned him; and he himself, being thus obliged to wander from place to place in disguise, was at last taken and put to death at Cyprus. Ventidius, pursuing his advantage, gained several other victories; and at last entirely defeated the Parthian army under Pacorus, cutting almost the whole of them in pieces, and the prince himself among the rest. He did not, however, pursue this last victory as he might have done; being afraid of giving umbrage to Anthony, who had already become jealous of the great honour gained by his lieutenant. He therefore contented himself with reducing those places in Syria and Phœnicia which the Parthians had taken in the beginning of the war, until Anthony arrived to take the command of the army upon himself.

Orodes was distracted with grief on receiving the news of the loss of his army and the death of his favourite son. However, when time had restored the use of his faculties, he appointed Phraates, the eldest but the most wicked of all his children, to succeed him in the kingdom, admitting him at the same time to a share of the sovereign authority with himself. The consequence of this was, that Phraates very soon attempted to poison his father with hemlock. But this, contrary to expectation, proving a cure for the dropsy, which an excess of grief had brought upon the king, the unnatural son had him stifled

in bed; and soon after not only murdered all his own brethren, who were thirty in number, but cut off all the rest of the royal family, not sparing even his own eldest son; left the discontented Parthians should place him, as he was already of age, on the throne.

Many of the chief lords of Parthia, being intimidated by the cruelty of Phraates, retired into foreign countries: and among those one Monaces, a person of great distinction, as well as skill and experience in war. This man, having fled to Anthony, soon gained his confidence, and was by him easily prevailed upon to engage in a war against his countrymen. But Phraates, justly dreading the consequences of such a person's defection, sent a solemn embassy to invite him home on such terms as he should think fit to accept; which greatly provoked Anthony; though he did not hinder him from returning, lest others should thereby be discouraged from coming over to him. He therefore dismissed him with great civility, sending ambassadors at the same time to Phraates to treat of a peace. Thus he hoped to divert the Parthian monarch's attention from making the necessary preparations for war, and that he should be able to fall upon him in the spring when he was in no condition to make resistance. But herein he was greatly disappointed; for on his arrival at the Euphrates, which he intended to pass, and enter the Parthian dominions on that side, he found all the passes so well guarded, that he thought proper to enter Media, with a design first to reduce that country, and then to enter Parthia.

This plan had been suggested to him by Artabazus king of Armenia, who in the end betrayed him; for, instead of conducting the army the straight way from Zeugma on the Euphrates to the Araxes, which parted Media from Armenia, and which was about five hundred miles distant from the place whence he first set out, Artabazus led them over the rocks and mountains so far about, that the army had marched above a thousand miles before they reached the borders of Media, where they intended to begin the war. Thus they were not only greatly fatigued, but had not sufficient time, the year being far spent, to put in execution the design on which they had come. However, as Anthony was impatient to get back to Cleopatra, he left behind him most of the baggage of the army, and three hundred waggons loaded with battering-rams and other military engines for sieges; appointing Statianus, one of his lieutenants, with a body of 10,000 men, to guard them, and to bring them, by slower marches, after the army. With the rest of the forces he marched more than three hundred miles before the rest, without allowing his men any respite till he arrived at Praaspa, or Phraata, the capital of Media, which he immediately invested. But the Parthians, well knowing that he could not make any progress without his military machines, passed by his army, in order to attack Statianus; which they did with such success, that the body commanded by him were all to a man cut off, and all their military engines taken, among which was a battering-ram eighty feet long.

Anthony, notwithstanding this disaster, continued the siege of Praaspa; but was daily harassed by sallies of the garrison from within, and the enemy's army without. At last he began to think of a retreat when his provisions were almost exhausted, finding it impossible to become master of the city. But, as he was to march three hundred miles through the enemy's country, he thought proper first to send ambassadors to the Parthian monarch, acquainting him that the Roman people were willing to allow him a peace, provided he would restore the standards and prisoners taken at Carrhæ. Phraates received the ambassadors, seated on a golden throne; and, after having bitterly inveighed against the avarice and unbounded ambition of the Romans, told them that he would not part with the standards and prisoners; but that, if Anthony would immediately raise the siege of Praaspa, he would suffer him to retire unmolested.

Anthony,

Anthony, who was reduced to great straits, no sooner received this answer, than he broke up the siege, and marched towards Armenia. However, Phraates was not so good as his word; for the Romans were attacked by his army no fewer than eighteen times on their march, and were thrice in the utmost danger of being cut off. A famine also raged in the Roman army; upon which they began to desert; and indeed Anthony would probably have been left by himself, had not the Parthians, in a very cruel as well as impolitic manner, murdered all those who fled to them in flight of the rest. At last, having lost 32,000 men, and being reduced to such despair that he was with difficulty prevented from laying violent hands on himself, Anthony reached the river Araxes; when his men, finding themselves out of the reach of the enemy, fell down on the ground, and kissed it with tears of joy.

Anthony was no sooner gone, than the kings of Media and Parthia quarrelled about the booty they had taken; and, after various contests, Phraates reduced all Media and Armenia. This monster prolonged his reign under the character of a warlike prince. In process of time he made peace with Augustus, and restored all the captives and ensigns which the Parthians had taken in their wars with Crassus and Anthony. He also sent four of his sons, with their wives and children, as hostages to Rome. His son Phraatrus remained with him; and it is said that he was poisoned by his wife Thermosa, in order to place that son upon the throne. The Parthians, however, disdaining to be governed by so wicked a parricide, rose up in arms, and drove him into banishment, where he perished some years after. The succeeding reigns were of short duration; and Artabanus, one of the race of the Arsacides, who reigned in Media, was called to the Parthian throne. His cruelty rendered him detestable, and afforded to Tiberius an opportunity of placing on the throne Tiridates, who was likely to be more devoted to the will of the Roman emperor. Artabanus was ultimately restored to the kingdom by the influence of Izates, king of the Adiabeniens; and from this time he governed the kingdom with great equity and moderation; so that, after a reign of thirty years, he died, greatly lamented by all his subjects, leaving behind him seven sons, one of whom succeeded him.

Under the reign of Nero, about the year 54, one Vologeses, the son of Gortarzes, a former king, became peaceable possessor of the throne. He carried on some wars against the Romans, but with very indifferent success; and at last gladly consented to a renewal of the ancient treaties with that powerful people.

From this time the Parthian history affords nothing remarkable till the reign of the emperor Trajan; when the Parthian king, by name *Cosroes*, infringed the treaty with Rome, by driving out the king of Armenia. Upon this, Trajan, who was glad of any pretence to quarrel with the Parthians, immediately hastened into Armenia. His arrival there was so sudden and unexpected, that he reduced almost the whole country without opposition; and took prisoner Parthamasiris, the king whom the Parthians had set up. After this he entered Mesopotamia, took the city of Nisibis, and reduced the whole of that wealthy country. A.D. 106.

Early in the spring of the following year, Trajan who had kept his winter-quarters in Syria, took the field again; but was warmly opposed by *Cosroes*. He found him encamped on the banks of the Euphrates, with a design to dispute his passage, which he did with such vigour, that the emperor, after having several times attempted to ford that river, and been always repulsed with great slaughter, was obliged to cause boats to be built on the neighbouring mountains, which he privately conveyed from thence on carriages to the water-side; and, having in the night-time formed a bridge with them, he passed his army the next day; but not without great loss and danger, the Parthians harassing his men the whole time with incessant showers of arrows, which did great execution.

Having gained the opposite bank, he advanced boldly into Assyria, the Parthians flying every-where before him; and made himself master of Arbela. Thence he pursued his march; subduing, with incredible rapidity, countries where the Roman standard had never before been displayed. Babylonia, or the province of Babylon, voluntarily submitted to him; and the city itself was, after a vigorous resistance, taken by storm; by which means he became master of all Chaldea and Assyria, the two richest provinces of the Parthian empire. From Babylon he marched to Ctesiphon, the metropolis of the Parthian monarchy; which he besieged, and at last reduced. But as to the particulars of these great conquests, we are quite in the dark; this expedition, however glorious to the Roman name, being rather hinted at than described by the writers of those times.

While Trajan was thus making war in the heart of the enemy's country, *Cosroes*, having recruited his army, marched into Mesopotamia, with a design to recover that country, and cut off all communication between the Roman army and Syria. On his arrival in that province, the inhabitants flocked to him from all parts; and most of the cities, driving out the garrisons left by Trajan, opened their gates to him. Hereupon the emperor detached Lucius and Maximus, two of his chief commanders, into Mesopotamia, to keep such cities in awe as had not revolted, and to open a communication with Syria. Maximus was met by *Cosroes*; and, having ventured a battle, his army was entirely defeated, and himself killed. But Lucius, being joined by Euricius and Clarius, two other commanders sent by Trajan with fresh supplies, gained considerable advantages over the enemy, and retook the cities of Nisibis and Seleucia, which had revolted.

And now Trajan, seeing himself possessed of all the best and most fruitful provinces of the Parthian empire, but at the same time being well apprised that he could not, without a vast expense, maintain his conquests, nor keep in subjection so fierce and warlike a people at such a distance from Italy; resolved to set over them a king of his own choosing, who should hold the crown of him and his successors, and acknowledge them as his lords and sovereigns. With this view he repaired to Ctesiphon; and, having there assembled the chief men of the nation, he crowned one of the royal family, by name *Parthaspates*, king of Parthia, obliging all who were present to pay him their allegiance. He chose *Parthaspates*, because that prince had joined him at his first entering the Parthian dominions, conducted him with great fidelity, and shown on all occasions an extraordinary attachment to the Romans. Thus the Parthians were at last subdued, and their kingdom made tributary to Rome. But they did not long continue in this state of subjection; for they no sooner heard of Trajan's death, which happened shortly after, (A.D. 117.) than, taking up arms, they drove *Parthaspates* from the throne; and recalling *Cosroes*, who had retired into the country of the Hyrcanians, openly revolted from Rome. Adrian, who was then commander-in-chief of all the forces in the east, and soon after acknowledged emperor by the army, did not wish, though he was at that time in Syria with a very numerous army, to engage in a new war with the Parthians; but contented himself with preserving the ancient limits of the empire. Therefore, in the beginning of his reign, he abandoned those provinces beyond the Euphrates which Trajan had conquered; withdrew the Roman garrisons from Mesopotamia; and, for the greater safety of other places, made the Euphrates the boundary of, and barrier in, those parts, posting his legions along the banks of that river.

Cosroes died after a long reign, and was succeeded by his eldest son Vologeses II. in whose reign the Alani, breaking into Media, then subject to the Parthians, committed great devastations; but were prevailed upon, with rich presents sent them by Vologeses, to abandon that kingdom, and return home. Upon their retreat, Vologeses,

geses, having no enemy to contend with at home, fell unexpectedly upon Armenia; surprised the légions there; and, having cut them all in pieces to a man, entered Syria; defeated with great slaughter Attilius Cornelianus, governor of that province; and advanced without opposition to the neighbourhood of Antioch; putting every-where the Romans, and those who favoured them, to the sword. Hereupon the emperor Verus, by the advice of his colleague Antoninus surnamed the Philosopher, leaving Rome, hastened into Syria: and, having driven the Parthians out of that province, ordered Statius Priscus to invade Armenia, and Cassius with Martius Verus to enter the Parthian territories, and carry the war into the enemy's country. Priscus made himself master of Artaxata; and in one campaign drove the Parthians, though not without great loss on his side, quite out of Armenia. Cassius, on the other hand, having in several encounters defeated Vologeses, though he had an army of 400,000 men under his command, reduced, in four years time, all those provinces which had formerly submitted to Trajan, took Seleucia, burnt and plundered the famous cities of Babylon and Ctesiphon, with the stately palaces of the Parthian monarchs, and struck terror into the most remote provinces of that great empire. On his return, he lost above half the number of his forces by sickness and famine; so that, after all, the Romans, as Spartianus observes, had no great reason to boast of their victories and conquests.

However, Verus, who had never stirred during the whole time of the war from Antioch and Daphne, took upon him the lofty titles of *Parthicus* and *Armenicus*, as if he had acquired them justly in the midst of his pleasures and debaucheries. After the revolt and death of Cassius, Antoninus the Philosopher repaired into Syria, to settle the affairs of that province. On his arrival there, he was met by ambassadors from Vologeses; who, having recovered most of the provinces subdued by Cassius, and being unwilling either to part with them or engage in a new war, solicited the emperor to confirm him in the possession of them, promising to hold them of him, and to acknowledge the sovereignty of Rome. To these terms Antoninus readily agreed, and a peace was accordingly concluded between the two empires; which Vologeses did not long enjoy, being soon after carried off by a distemper, (and not murdered by his own subjects, as we read in Constantinus Manasses, who calls him *Belegeses*.)

Upon his death, Vologeses III. the son of his brother Sanatruces, and grandson of Cosroes, was raised to the throne. He sided with Niger against the emperor Severus: who thereupon, having settled matters at home, marched with all his forces against him; and, advancing to the city of Ctesiphon, whither he had retired, laid close siege to that metropolis. Vologeses made a most gallant defence: but the city, after a long siege, and much bloodshed on both sides, was at length taken by assault. The king's treasures, with his wives and children, fell into the emperor's hands; but Vologeses himself had the good luck to make his escape; which was a great disappointment to Severus, who immediately dispatched an express to acquaint the senate with the success that had attended him in his expedition against the only nation that was then formidable to Rome. But he had no sooner crossed the Euphrates, than Vologeses recovered all the provinces, except Mesopotamia, which he had reduced. These expeditions were chargeable to the Romans, and cost them much blood, without reaping any advantages from them; for, as they had not sufficient forces to keep in awe the provinces they had subdued, the inhabitants, greatly attached to the family of Arsaces, never failed to return to their ancient obedience as soon as the Roman armies were withdrawn. Vologeses was soon after engaged in a war still more troublesome and destructive, with his brother Artabanus, who, encouraged by some of the discontented nobles, attempted to rob him of the crown, and place it on his own head. Vologeses gained several victories over

his brother and rebellious subjects, but died before he could restore the empire to its former tranquillity.

Artabanus, who had a numerous army at his devotion, did not meet with any opposition in seizing the throne, vacant by the death of his brother, though Tiridates had a better title to it, as being his elder brother. He had scarcely settled the affairs of his kingdom, when the emperor Caracalla, desirous to signalize himself, as some of his predecessors had done, by some memorable exploit against the Parthians, sent a solemn embassy to him, desiring his daughter in marriage. Artabanus, overjoyed at this proposal, which he thought would be attended with a lasting peace between the two empires, received the ambassadors with all possible marks of honour, and readily complied with their request. Soon after, Caracalla sent a second embassy to acquaint the king that he was coming to solemnize the nuptials; whereupon Artabanus went to meet him, attended with the chief of the nobility, and his best troops, all unarmed, and in most pompous habits: but this peaceable train no sooner approached the Roman army, than the soldiers, on a signal given them, falling upon the king's retinue, made a most terrible slaughter of the unarmed multitude, Artabanus himself escaping with great difficulty. The treacherous Caracalla, having gained by this exploit great booty, and, as he thought, no less glory, wrote a long and boasting letter to the senate, assuming the title of *Parthicus* for this piece of treachery; as he had before that of *Germanicus*, for murdering, in like manner, some of the German nobility.

Artabanus, resolving to make the Romans pay dear for their inhuman and barbarous treachery, raised the most numerous army that had ever been known in Parthia, crossed the Euphrates, and entered Syria, putting all to fire and sword. But, Caracalla being murdered before this invasion, Macrinus, who had succeeded him, met the Parthians at the head of a mighty army, composed of many légions, and all the auxiliaries of the states of Asia. The two armies no sooner came in sight of each other, but they engaged with the utmost fury. The battle continued two days; both Romans and Parthians fighting so obstinately, that night only parted them, without any apparent advantage on either side; though both retired when night had put an end to the contest, crying, "Victory, victory!" The field of battle was covered with dead bodies, there being already above 40,000 killed, including Romans and Parthians: nevertheless Artabanus was heard to say, that the battle was only begun, and that he would continue it till either the Parthians or Romans were all to a man cut in pieces. But Macrinus, being well apprised that the king was highly enraged against Caracalla in particular, and dreading the consequences which would attend the destruction of his army, sent a herald to Artabanus, acquainting him with the death of Caracalla, and proposing an alliance between the two empires. The king, understanding that his great enemy was dead, readily embraced the proposals of peace and amity, upon condition that all the prisoners who had been taken by the treachery of Caracalla should be immediately restored, and a large sum of money paid him to defray the expenses of the war. These articles being performed without delay or hesitation, Artabanus returned into Parthia, and Macrinus to Antioch.

But, as Artabanus had lost on this occasion the flower of his army, Artaxerxes, a Persian of mean descent, but of great courage and experience in war, revolting from the Parthians, prevailed on his countrymen to join him, and attempt the recovery of the sovereign power, which he said they had been unjustly deprived of, first by the Macedonians, and afterwards by the Parthians their vassals. Artabanus, upon the news of this revolt, marched with the whole strength of the kingdom to suppress it; but, being met by Artaxerxes at the head of a no less powerful army, a bloody battle ensued, which is said to have lasted three days. At length the Parthians, though

they behaved with the utmost bravery, and fought like men in despair, were forced to yield to the Persians, who were commanded by a more experienced leader. Most of their troops were cut off in the flight; and the king himself was taken prisoner, and soon after put to death by Artaxerxes's order. The Parthians, having lost in this fatal engagement both their king and their army, were forced to submit to the conqueror, and become vassals to a nation which had been subject to them for the space of 475 years.

Thus ended an empire, once so formidable, that, while it possessed eighteen kingdoms between the Caspian and Arabian seas, it even disputed the empire of the world with the Romans; and could never be subdued by that nation, which had seen no people on earth unconquered by their arms. For a continuation of its history, and present state, see the article PERSIA.

We may just add, that the royal family of Arsaces did not end in Artabanus, but continued to reign in Armenia till the time of the emperor Justinian, holding that kingdom of the Persian monarchs.

To this historical account of the Parthians we shall subjoin a concise statement of the geography of their country, more especially as very erroneous ideas concerning the local situation of this country have generally prevailed. Those, whose knowledge of it has been chiefly derived from its wars with the Romans, have conceived Parthia to be only the country bordering on the Euphrates and Tigris: whereas Parthia proper was a small province very near to the south-east extreme of the Caspian Sea, which territory, as we have already historically detailed, after the division of Alexander's empire, fell to the choice of the Seleucidæ, kings of Syria and of the east, about 300 years before our era. About 50 years after, Parthia rebelled; and, together with Hyrcania and other adjoining provinces, became an independent state under Arsaces. As the empire of the Seleucidæ grew weaker, the Parthians extended their country westward; and the fine province of Media fell to them; and, within a century after the foundation of their state, it had swallowed up all the countries from the Indus to the Euphrates, Bactria included: and this province had thrown off the yoke of the Seleucidæ, long before Parthia. The Parthian conquests in Armenia, about 70 years B.C. brought them acquainted with the Romans; whose conquests met theirs both in that country and in Syria. The Parthians, together with their conquests, had advanced their capital westwards, and had established it on the Tigris at Seleucia, or rather Ctesiphon (near the present Bagdad), before their wars with the Romans commenced. The expeditions of Pompey and Anthony, and the defeat of Crassus, need not be again recited. On occasion of the last event, the Parthians extended their conquests farther westward, but afterwards were compelled to retire; and they generally lost ground in Armenia and Mesopotamia, during the time of the Roman emperors. Trajan penetrated to their capital, and satisfied his curiosity by embarking on the Indian Sea. The moderation of Adrian restored the ancient boundary of the Euphrates. In A. D. 245, Persis, or Persia proper, which had for some ages ranked as a province of Parthia, gained the ascendancy; and, under Artaxerxes, put an end to the dynasty of the Arsacidæ, and restored the ancient name of Persia to the empire, after that of Parthia had existed about 480 years: so that, in fact, the Parthian empire, considered generally, was the Persian, under another name. *Rennell's Memoir.*

PAR'THIAN, *adj.* [from *Parthia*.] Belonging to Parthia.

PAR'THIAN, *f.* A native of Parthia.

PAR'TI, or PARTY, in HERALDRY; see that article, vol. ix. p. 430.

PARTIAL, *adj.* [French.] Inclined antecedently to favour one party in a cause, or one side of the question, more than the other.—Self-love will make men *partial* to

themselves and friends, and ill-nature, passion, and revenge, will carry them too far in punishing others; and hence, God hath appointed governments to restrain the partiality and violence of men. *Locke*.—Inclined to favour without reason: with to before the part favoured.—Kings heretofore, who showed themselves *partial* to a party, had the service only of the worst part of their people. *Davenant*.

Authors are *partial* to their wit, 'tis true;
But are not critics to their judgment too?

Pope.

Affecting only one part; subsisting only in a part; not general; not universal; not total.—If we compare these *partial* dissolutions of the earth with an universal dissolution, we may as easily conceive an universal deluge from an universal dissolution, as a *partial* deluge from a *partial*. *Burnet*.—That which weakens religion, will at length destroy it; for the weakening of a thing is only a *partial* destruction of it. *South*.

All discord, harmony not understood;
All *partial* evil, universal good.

Pope.

PARTIALIST, *f.* One who is partial.—I say, as the apostle said, unto such *partialists*, You will forgive me this wrong. *Bp. Morton's Discharge*, &c. 1633.

PARTIALITY, *f.* [partialité, Fr. from *partial*.] Unequal state of the judgment and favour of one above the other, without just reason.—*Partiality* is properly the understanding's judging according to the inclination of the will and affections, and not according to the exact truth of things, or the merits of the cause. *South's Serm.*—As there is a *partiality* to opinions, which is apt to mislead the understanding; so there is also a *partiality* to studies, which is prejudicial to knowledge. *Locke*.

To PARTIALIZE, *v. a.* [partializer, Fr. from *partial*.] To make partial.—No man, drenched in hate, can promise to himself the candidness of an upright judge; his hate will *partialize* his opinion. *Feltham's Refl.*

Such neighbour-nearness to our sacred blood
Should nothing privilege him, nor *partialize*
Th' unstooping firmness of my upright soul. *Shakespeare*.

PARTIALLY, *adv.* With unjust favour or dislike. In part; not totally.—The message he brought, opened a clear prospect of eternal salvation, which had been but obscurely and *partially* figured in the shadows of the law. *Rogers*.

PARTIALNESS, *f.* Partiality. *Ash*.

PARTIARY, *f.* [from *part*.] A partaker. *Cole*.

PARTIBILITY, *f.* [from *partible*.] Divisibility; separability.

PARTIBLE, *adj.* [from *part*.] Divisible; separable.—Make the moulds *partible*, glued or cemented together, that you may open them when you take out the fruit. *Bacon*.—The same body, in one circumstance, is more weighty, and, in another, is more *partible*. *Digby on the Soul*.

PARTICIPABLE, *adj.* [from *participate*.] Such as may be shared or partaken.—Plato, by his ideas, means only the divine essence, with this connotation, as it is variously imitable or *participable* by created beings. *Norris*.

PARTICIPANT, *adj.* [Fr. from *participate*.] Sharing; having share or part: with *of*.—During the parliament, he published his proclamation, offering pardon to all such as had taken arms, or been *participant* of any attempts against him; so as they submitted themselves. *Bacon*.—If any part of my body be so mortified, as it becomes like a rotten branch of a tree, it putrefies, and is not *participant* of influence derived from my soul, because it is now no longer in it to quicken it. *Hale*.

PARTICIPANT, *f.* A partaker.—Relations, both in print and manuscript, composed by their own members, the *participants* in their most sacred and mysterious rites. *Warburton's Doct. of Grace*.

TO PARTICIPATE, *v. n.* [*participo*, Lat. *participar*, Fr.] To partake; to have share:

The other instruments
Did see and hear, devise, instruct, walk, feel;
And mutually *participate*. *Shakespeare.*

With *of*.—An aged citizen brought forth all his provisions, and said, that, as he did communicate unto them his store, so would he *participate of* their wants. *Hayward.*—
With *in*:

His delivery, and thy joy thereon,
In both which we, as next, participate. *Milton's S. A.*

To have part of more things than one.—Few creatures *participate of* the nature of plants and metals both. *Bacon.*—Those bodies, which are under a light which is extended and distributed equally through all, should *participate of* each other's colours. *Dryden.*

God, when heaven and earth he did create,
Form'd man, who should of both *participate.* *Denham.*

To have part of something common with another.—The species of audibles seem to *participate* more with local motion, like percussions made upon the air. *Bacon.*

TO PARTICIPATE, *v. a.* To partake; to receive part of; to share.—As Christ's incarnation and passion can be available to no man's good which is not made partaker of Christ, neither can we *participate* him without his presence. *Hooker.*

Such as I seek, fit to *participate*
All rational delight. *Milton's P. L.*

PARTICIPATION, *f.* The state of sharing something in common.—Civil society doth more content the nature of man, than any private kind of solitary living; because, in society, this good of mutual *participation* is so much larger. *Hooker.*—A joint coronation of himself and his queen might give countenance of *participation* of title. *Bacon.*—The act or state of receiving, or having part of something.—All things seek the highest, and covet more or less the *participation* of God himself. *Hooker.*—What an honour, that God should admit us into such a blessed *participation* of himself? *Atterbury.*—Distribution; division into shares.—It sufficeth not, that the country hath wherewith to sustain even more than to live upon it, if means be wanting whereby to drive convenient *participation* of the general store into a great number of well-servers. *Raleigh.*

PARTICIPATIVE, *adj.* Capable of partaking.

PARTICIPIAL, *adj.* [*participialis*, Lat.] Having the nature of a participle.—The participle, with an article before it, and the preposition of after it, becomes a substantive, expressing the action itself which the verb signifies. This rule arises from the nature and idiom of our language, and from as plain a principle as any on which it is founded; namely, that a word which has the article before it, and the possessive preposition of after it, must be a noun; and, if a noun, it ought to follow the construction of a noun, and not have the regimen of a verb. It is the *participial* termination of this sort of words, that is apt to deceive us, and make us treat them as if they were of an amphibious species, partly nouns, and partly verbs. That these *participial* words are sometimes real nouns, is undeniable; for they have a plural number as such: as, "The outgoings of the morning." *Lowth's Eng. Grammar.*

PARTICIPIALLY, *adv.* In the sense or manner of a participle.

PAR'TICIPLE, *f.* [*participium*, Lat.] In grammar, an adjective formed of a verb; so called because it still *participates* of some of the properties of the verb; retaining the regimen and signification of it: whence most authors confound it with the verb. There are two kinds of participles: the one called *active*, because expressing the subject which makes the action of the verb; as *legens*, *audiens*, reading, hearing; the other called *passive*, because expres-

sing the subject that receives the action of the verb; as *lectum*, *auditum*, read, heard.

As our adjectives are not declined, the participles, being real adjectives, are also not declined. In the Latin, &c. where the adjectives are declined, the participles active are declined likewise: thus they say *audiens*, *audientis*, *audienti*, &c. and in the French the participles passive are declinable like their adjectives; as, *j'ai lu*, *elle a lue*, *nous avons lus*, &c. In our language, the participles and gerunds are not at all distinguishable. The English grammar lays down a good rule with respect to its participle of the past, "that they all terminate in *d*, *t*, or *n*;" which analogy is liable to as few exceptions as any.

PAR'TICIPLE, *f.* Any thing that participates of different things. *Not used.*—The *participles* or confiners between plants and living creatures, are such as are fixed, though they have a motion in their parts: such as oysters and cockles. *Bacon.*

PAR'TICLE, *f.* [*particula*, Fr. from *particula*, Lat.] Any small portion of a greater substance.—There is not one grain in the universe either too much or too little; nothing to be added, nothing to be spared: nor so much as any one *particle* of it, that mankind may not be either the better or the worse for, according as 'tis applied. *L'Estrange.*—It is not impossible, but that microscopes may, at length, be improved to the discovery of the *particles* of bodies on which their colours depend. *Newton's Optics.*

With *particles* of heavenly fire,
The God of nature did his soul inspire. *Dryden.*

A word unvaried by inflection.—The Latin varies the signification of verbs and nouns, not as the modern languages, by *particles* prefixed, but by changing the last syllables. *Locke on Education.*—*Particles* are the words, whereby the mind signifies what connection it gives to the several affirmations and negations, that it unites in one continued reasoning or narration. *Locke.*

It is in the right use of particles, Mr. Locke observes, that more particularly consist the clearness and beauty of a good style. To express the dependence of his thoughts and reasonings one upon another, a man must have words to show what connection, restriction, distinction, opposition, emphasis, &c. he gives to each respective part of his discourse. This cannot be rightly understood without a clear view of the postures, stands, turns, limitations, exceptions, and several other thoughts, of the mind. Of these there is a great variety, much exceeding the number of particles that most languages have to express them by; for which reason it happens that most of these particles have divers, and sometimes almost opposite, significations. Thus the particle *but*, in English, has several very different significations: as in "*but* to say no more," where it intimates a stop of mind in the course it was going, before it came to the end of it. "I saw *but* two planets;" here it shows, that the mind limits the sense to what is expressed with a negation of all other. "You pray, *but* it is not that God will bring you to the true religion, *but* that he would confirm you in your own:" the former of these intimates a supposition in the mind, of something otherwise than it should; the latter shows that the mind makes a direct opposition between that and what goes before. "All animals have sense, *but* a dog is an animal:" here it signifies the connection of the latter proposition with the former. And in the Hebrew tongue there is a particle, consisting but of one single letter, of which there are reckoned up above fifty several significations.

PARTICLES, is also a term in theology, used in the Latin church for the crumbs or little pieces of consecrated bread, called *μεσίδες* in the Greek church. In the Greek church they have a particular ceremony, called *των μεσίδων*, "of the particles," wherein certain crumbs of bread, not consecrated, are offered up in honour of the Virgin, St. John Baptist, and several other saints. Gabriel, archbishop of Philadelphia, has a little treatise wherein

wherein he endeavours to show the antiquity of this ceremony, in that it is mentioned in the Liturgies of St. Chrysostom and Basil. But there has been a considerable dispute on this head, between the Reformed and the Catholic divines. Aubertin and Blondel explain a passage in the Theory of Germanus, patriarch of Constantinople, where he mentions the ceremony of the particles as in use in his time; Messieurs de Port Royal contest the explanation; but M. Simon, in his notes on Gabriel of Philadelphia, endeavours to show, that the passage itself is an interpolation; not being found in the ancient copies of Germanus: and consequently that the dispute is very ill grounded.

PARTICOTTY, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic: seven miles north-east of Tinevely.

PARTICULAR, *adj.* [*particulier*, Fr.] Relating to single persons; not general.—As well for *particular* application to special occasions, as also in other manifold respects, infinite treasures of wisdom are abundantly to be found in the Holy Scripture. *Hooker*.—Individual; one distinct from others.—Wheresoever one plant draweth such a *particular* juice out of the earth, as it qualifieth the earth, so as that juice which remaineth is fit for the other plant; there the neighbourhood doth good. *Bacon*.—Artists, who propose only the imitation of such a *particular* person, without election of ideas, have often been reproached for that omission. *Dryden*.—Noting properties or things peculiar.—Of this prince there is little *particular* memory; only that he was very studious and learned. *Bacon*.—Attentive to things single and distinct.—I have been *particular* in examining the reason of children's inheriting the property of their fathers, because it will give us farther light in the inheritance of power. *Locke*.—Single; not general; one among many.—Rather performing his general commandment, which had ever been, to embrace virtue, than any new *particular*, sprung out of passion, and contrary to the former. *Sidney*.—Odd; having something that eminently distinguishes him from others. This is commonly used in a sense of contempt.

PARTICULAR, *f.* A single instance; a single point.—Having the idea of an elephant or an angle in my mind, the first and natural inquiry is, whether such a thing does exist? and this knowledge is only of *particulars*. *Locke*.—The master could hardly sit on his horse for laughing, all the while he was giving me the *particulars* of this story. *Addison*.—Vespasian he resembled in many *particulars*. *Swift*.—Individual; private person.—It is the greatest interest of *particulars*, to advance the good of the community. *L'Estrange*.—Private interest.—Our wisdom must be such, as doth not propose to itself our own *particular*, the partial and immoderate desire whereof poisoneth wheresoever it taketh place; but the scope and mark which we are to aim at, is the publick and common good. *Hooker*.—They apply their minds even with hearty affection and zeal, at the least, unto those branches of publick prayer wherein their own *particular* is moved. *Hooker*.—We are to give thanks for temporal blessings, whether such as concern the publick, as the prosperity of the church or nation, and all remarkable deliverances afforded to either; or else such as concern our *particular*. *Whole Duty of Man*.

His general lov'd him
In a most dear *particular*. *Shakespeare*.

Private character; single self; state of an individual;
For his *particular*, I'll receive him gladly;
But not one follower. *Shakespeare's K. Lear*.

A minute detail of things singly enumerated.—The reader has a *particular* of the books, wherein this law was written. *Ayliffe's Parergon*.

IN PARTICULAR. Peculiarly; distinctly.—Invention is called a muse, authors ascribe to each of them, *in particular*, the sciences which they have invented. *Dryden*.

PARTICULARIST, *f.* One who holds the doctrine of particular redemption. *Ash*.

PARTICULARITY, *f.* [from *particular*.] Distinct notice or enumeration.—So did the boldness of their affirmation accompany the greatness of what they did affirm, even descending to *particularities*, what kingdoms he should overcome. *Sidney*.—Singleness; individuality; single act; single case.—Knowledge imprinted in the minds of all men, whereby both general principles for directing of human actions are comprehended, and conclusions derived from them, upon which conclusions groweth, in *particularity*, the choice of good and evil. *Hooker*.—Petty account; private incident.—To see the titles that were most agreeable to such an emperor, the flatteries that he lay most open to, with the like *particularities* only to be met with on medals, are certainly not a little pleasing. *Addison*.—Something belonging to single persons:

Let the general trumpet blow his blast,
Particularities and petty sounds
To cease. *Shakespeare's Hen. VI*.

Something peculiar.—I saw an old heathen altar, with this *particularity*, that it was hollowed like a dish at one end, but not the end on which the sacrifice was laid. *Addison on Italy*.—He applied himself to the coquette's heart; there occurred many *particularities* in this dissection. *Addison*.

TO PARTICULARIZE, *v. a.* To mention distinctly; to detail; to show minutely.—He not only boasts of his parentage as an Israelite, but *particularizes* his descent from Benjamin. *Atterbury*.

TO PARTICULARIZE, *v. n.* To be particular; to be attentive to things single and distinct.—The parson questions what order is kept in the house, as about prayers morning and evening on their knees, reading of Scripture, catechising, singing of psalms at their work and on holydays; who can read, who not: and sometimes he hears the children read himself, and blesteth, encouraging also the servants to learn to read, and offering to have them taught on holydays by his servants. If the parson were ashamed of *particularizing* in these things, he were not fit to be a parson. *Herbert's Country Parson*.

PARTICULARLY, *adv.* Distinctly; singly; not universally.—Providence, that universally casts its eye over all the creation, is yet pleased more *particularly* to fasten it upon some. *South's Sermon*.—In an extraordinary degree.—This exact propriety of Virgil, I *particularly* regarded as a great part of his character. *Dryden*.—With the Flower and the Leaf I was so *particularly* pleased, both for the invention and the moral, that I commend it to the reader. *Dryden*.

PARTICULARNESS, *f.* Particularity. *Scott*.

TO PARTICULARIZE, *v. n.* [from *particular*.] To make mention singly. *Obsolete*.—I may not *particulate* of Alexander Hales, the irrefragable doctor. *Camden's Remains*.

PARTIDO, a small island in the south-west part of the bay of Campeachy.

PARTIDO, a river of Mexico; which runs into the Pacific Ocean in lat. 11. 20. S.

PAR'TILE, *adj.* See **ASTROLOGY**, vol. ii. p. 310.

PAR'TING, *f.* [from *part*.] Division.—The king of Babylon stood at the *parting* of the way, at the head of the two ways. *Ezech. xxi. 21*.—Separation; ceremony of taking leave.—[In chemistry.] An operation by which metals are separated from their ores, or from each other. See the article **CHEMISTRY**, vol. iv. p. 309-16. and **MINERALOGY**, vol. xv. p. 481.—[In naval language.] State of being driven from the anchors, when the ship has broke her cable.

PAR'TISAN, *f.* [*pertuisane*, Fr. *Johnson*.—Robert Stephens and Menage derive *pertuisane* from the Lat. *pertundo*, to strike through. Serenius, from the old Goth. *bard*, an axe; and that from *beria*, to strike; thence the Germ.

Germ. *bardike*, a little axe, and the low Lat. *bardueium*, whence the French word. *Todd.*—A kind of pike or halberd.—He held a *partisan* in his hand, and had a great basket-hilt sword by his side. *Herbert's Mem. of Cha. I.*

Let us find out the prettiest plot we can,
And make him, with our pikes and *partisans*,
A grave. *Shakespeare's Hamlet.*

PARTISAN, *f.* [from *parti*, Fr.] An adherent to a faction.—Some of these *partisans* concluded, the government had hired men to be bound and pinioned. *Addison.*—I would be glad any *partisan* would help me to a tolerable reason, that, because Clodius and Curio agree with me in a few singular notions, I must blindly follow them in all. *Swift.*—In the art of war, a person dexterous in commanding a small body of infantry, light horse, &c. who, knowing the country well, is employed in getting intelligence; or in making incursions upon an enemy, disturbing foragers, and intercepting his convoys. During the American war, Capt. Rogers was extremely alert in this kind of warfare; nor was Sir Robert Wilson less active or useful in the Spanish war.—The chief qualities required in a *partisan* of this description, are activity, quickness at expedient, and uncommon vigilance. *James.*

PARTITION, *f.* [Fr. *partitio*, Lat.] The act of dividing; a state of being divided:

We grew together,
Like to a double cherry, seeming parted,
But yet an union in *partition*. *Shakespeare.*

Division; separation; distinction.—We have, in this respect, our churches divided by certain *partitions*, although not so many in number as theirs. *Hooker.*

We shall be winnowed with so rough a wind,
That ev'n our corn shall seem as light as chaff,
And good from bad find no *partition*. *Shakespeare.*

Part divided from the rest; separate part:
Lodg'd in a small *partition*; and the rest
Ordain'd for uses to his Lord best known. *Milton.*

That by which different parts are separated.—Make *partitions* of wood in a hoghead, with holes in them, and mark the difference of their found from that of an hoghead without such *partitions*. *Bacon.*

Partition firm and sure,
The waters underneath from those above
Dividing. *Milton's P. L.*

Part where separation is made:
The mound was newly made, no fight could pass
Betwixt the nice *partitions* of the grass,
The well-united fods so closely lay. *Dryden.*

PARTITION, in rhetoric, otherwise called enumeration, is that part in which the orator acquaints his hearers with the several parts of his discourse upon which he designs to treat. Some also comprehend under this head *separation*, in which the orator shows in what he agrees with his adversary, and wherein he differs from him. The requisites of a good partition are the following: it must be short, so that each proposition contains in it nothing more than what is necessary; it ought to be complete, no necessary part being omitted in the enumeration; and it should consist of as few members as is consistent with the nature of the subject. The ancient rhetoricians prescribe three or four at the most; and Cicero never exceeds that number. It may be afterwards convenient to divide these general heads of a discourse, or at least some of them, into several parts or members: and this is best done as the speaker comes to each of them, in the order at first laid down. Instances of this kind occur in Cicero's oration for the Manilian law.

To PARTITION, *v. a.* To divide into distinct parts.—These sides are uniform without, though severally *partitioned* within. *Bacon.*

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PAR'TITIVE, *adj.* [from *partitio*, Lat.] Distributive.—Sometime of a noun *partitive*, or distributive. *Lilly.*

PAR'TITIVELY, *adv.* In a partitive way.—Nouns of the comparative and the superlative degree, being but *partitively*, that is to say, having after them this English *of* or *among*, require a genitive case. *Lilly.*

PAR'TITOR, *f.* A divider. *Cole.*

PAR'TLET, *f.* A ruff or band worn by women; "a kind of kercher for the neck, so called because the neck is the *parting* of the head and body." Butler's English Gram. 1633. It is still a northern word.—In that day shall the Lord take away the gorgeousness of their apparel, and spangs, chains, *partlettes*, and collerts. *Knight's Tr. of Truth*, 1580.—He commanded the women, which followed his army, to cast their kerchiefs and *partlets* on the ground, wherein their enemies being entangled by their spurs (for though horsemen they were forced to alight, and fight on foot, through the roughness of the place), were slain before they could unloose their feet. *Fuller's Holy State.*—A hen.—Dame *partlet* was the sovereign of his heart. *Dryden's Cook and Fox.*

Thou dotard, thou art woman tir'd; unroofed
By thy dame *partlet* here. *Shakespeare's Wint. Tale.*

PAR'TLY, *adv.* [from *part*.] In some measure; in some degree; in part.—That part, which, since the coming of Christ, *partly* hath embraced, and *partly* shall hereafter embrace, the Christian religion, we term, as by a more proper name, the Church of Christ. *Hooker.*—The inhabitants of Naples have been always very notorious for leading a life of laziness and pleasure, which I take to arise out of the wonderful plenty of their country, that does not make labour so necessary to them, and *partly* out of the temper of their climate, that relaxes the fibres of their bodies, and disposes the people to such an idle indolent humour. *Addison on Italy.*

PAR'TNER, *f.* [from *part*.] Partaker; sharer; one who has part in any thing; associate.—Those of the race of Sem were no *partners* in the unbelieving work of the tower. *Raleigh's Hist. World.*—The soul continues in her action till her *partner* is again qualified to bear her company. *Addison.*

My noble *partner*;
You greet with present grace. *Shakespeare's Macbeth.*
To undergo the pain; or to accuse
My other self, the *partner* of my life. *Milton's P. L.*
One who dances with another:

Lead in your ladies every one; sweet *partner*,
I must not yet forsake you. *Shakespeare's Hen. VIII.*

To PAR'TNER, *v. a.* To join; to associate with a partner:

A lady who
So fair, and fasten'd to an empery,
Would make the great'st king double, to be *partner'd*
With tomboys, hired with self-exhibition,
Which your own coffers yield. *Shakespeare.*

PAR'TNERSHIP, *f.* Joint interest or property:

He does possession keep,
And is too wise to hazard *partnership*. *Dryden.*
The union of two or more in the same trade.—'Tis a necessary rule in alliances, *partnerships*, and all manner of civil dealings, to have a strict regard to the disposition of those we have to do withal. *L'Estrange.*

PARTNERSHIPS may be considered under four distinct heads.

1. *Occasional joint trade*; as where two or more merchants agree to employ a certain sum in trade, and divide the gain or loss so soon as the adventure is brought to an issue. This kind of contract being generally private, the parties concerned are not liable for each other. If one of them purchase goods on trust, the furnisher,

who

who grants the credit through confidence in *him* alone, has no recourse, in case of his insolvency, against the other partners. They are only answerable for the share of the adventure that belongs to the insolvent partner. If it be proposed to carry the adventure farther than originally agreed on, any partner may withdraw his interest; and, if it cannot be separated from the others, may insist that the whole shall be brought to an issue.

II. *Standing Partnerships*, which are generally established by written contract between the parties, where the stock, the firm, duration, the division of the gain or loss, and other circumstances, are inserted.

All the partners are generally authorized to sign by the firm of the company, though this privilege may be confined to some of them by particular agreement. The firm ought only to be subscribed at the place where the copartnery is established. If a partner has occasion, when absent, to write a letter relating to their affairs, he subscribes his own name *for* the company. The signature of each partner is generally sent to new correspondents; and, when a partner is admitted, his signature is transmitted, with an intimation of the change in the copartnery, to all their correspondents.

No partner is liable to make good the loss arising from his judging wrong in a case where he had authority to act. If he exceeds his power, and the event prove unsuccessful, he must bear the loss; but, if it prove successful, the gain belongs to the company; yet, if he acquaints the company immediately of what he has done, they must either acquiesce therein, or leave him the chance of gain, as well as the risk of loss.

Debts contracted under the firm of the company are binding on all the partners, though the money was borrowed by one of them for his private use, without the consent of the rest. And, if a partner exceeds his power, the others are nevertheless obliged to complete his engagements; though *they* may render him responsible for his misbehaviour.

A debt to a company is not cancelled by the private debts of the partner: and, when a partner becomes insolvent, the company is not bound for his debts beyond the extent of his share. The debts of the company are preferable, on the company's effects, to the private debts of the partners.

Partnership is generally dissolved by the death of a partner; yet, when there are more partners than two, it may, by agreement, subsist among the survivors. Sometimes it is stipulated, that, in case of the death of a partner, his place shall be supplied by his son, or some other person descended on. The contract ought to specify the time and manner in which the surviving partners shall reckon with the executors of the deceased for his share of the stock, and a reasonable time allowed for that purpose.

When partnership is dissolved, there are often outstanding debts that cannot be recovered for a long time, and effects that cannot easily be disposed of. The partnership, though dissolved in other respects, still subsists for the management of their outstanding affairs; and the money arising from them is divided among the partners, or their representatives, when it is recovered. But, as this may protract the final settlement of the company's affairs to a very inconvenient length, other methods are sometimes used to bring them to a conclusion, either in consequence of the original contract, or by agreement at the time of dissolution. Sometimes the debts and effects are sold by auction; sometimes they are divided among the partners; and, when there are two partners, one divides them into shares, as equal as possible, and the other chooses either share he thinks best.

Houses that have been long established, often retain the old firm, though all the original partners be dead or withdrawn. But, if a partner withdraws from the trade, yet, for the credit of the house, leaves his name in the firm, it is at his own risk; he is liable to all the debts and

misfortunes of the remaining acting partners; and many have suffered severely by this.

A dissolution of partnership is generally performed by a deed of separation registered in a public office, and by destroying, or otherwise cancelling, the articles of partnership, as by cutting out the names, &c. But the dissolution must also be advertised in the London Gazette; and at the Gazette-office, the MS. of such advertisement, with the real signatures of all the partners, must remain.

III. *Companies, where the business is conducted by officers.* There are many companies of this kind in Great Britain, chiefly established for purposes which require a larger capital than private merchants can command. The laws with respect to these companies, when not confirmed by public authority, are the same as in partnerships, but the articles of their agreement usually very different. The capital is divided into a certain number of shares, whereof each partner may hold one or more, but is generally restricted to a certain number. Any partner may transfer his share; and the company must admit his assignee as a partner. The death of the *partners* has no effect on the *company*. No partner can act personally in the affairs of the company: but the execution of their business is intrusted to officers, for whom they are responsible; and, when the partners are numerous, the superintendency of the officers is committed to directors chosen annually, or at other appointed times, by the partners.

IV. *Companies incorporated by authority.* A royal charter is necessary to enable a company to hold lands, to have a common seal, and enjoy the other privileges of a corporation. A charter is sometimes procured, in order to limit the risk of the partners: for, in every private company, the partners are liable for the debts, without limitation; in incorporated societies, they are only liable for their shares in the stock of the society. The incorporation of societies is sometimes authorized by act of parliament: but this high authority is not necessary, unless for conferring exclusive privileges. See the article COMPANY, vol. iv. p. 873 & seq.

Mr. Paley says, "I know of nothing upon the subject of *partnership* that requires explanation, but how the profits are to be divided where one partner contributes money and the other labour, which is a common case.

"*Rule.*—From the stock of the partnership deduct the sum advanced, and divide the remainder between the moneyed partner and the labouring partner, in the proportion of the interest of the money to the wages of the labour, allowing such a rate of interest as money might be borrowed for upon the same security, and such wages as a journeyman would require for the same labour and trust.

"*Example.*—A advances 1000l. but knows nothing of the business; B produces no money, but has been brought up to the business, and undertakes to conduct it. At the end of the year the stock and effects of the partnership amount to 1200l. consequently there are 200l. to be divided. Now nobody would lend money upon the event of the business succeeding, which is A's security, under 6 per cent. therefore A must be allowed 60l. for the interest of his money. B, before he engaged in the partnership, earned 30l. a-year in the same employment: his labour, therefore, ought to be valued at 30l. and the 200l. must be divided between the partners in the proportion of 60l. to 30; that is, A must receive 133l. 6s. 8d. and B 66l. 13s. 4d. If there be nothing gained, A loses his interest, and B his labour, which is right. If the original stock be diminished, by this rule B loses only his labour as before; whereas A loses his interest and part of the principal; for which eventual disadvantage A is compensated, by having the interest of his money computed at 6 per cent. in the division of the profit when there is any. It is true, that the division of the profit is seldom forgotten in the constitution of the partnership; and is therefore commonly settled by express agreement; but these agreements, to be equitable, should pursue

pursue the principle of the rule here laid down. All the partners are bound by what any one of them does in the course of the business; for, *quoad hoc*, each partner is considered as an authorized agent for the rest." Paley's Moral and Political Philosophy.

PAR'TRIDGE, *f.* [*perdix*, Fr. *pertris*, Wel. *perdix*, Lat.] A bird of game. See TETRAO.—The king is come out to seek a flea, as when one doth hunt a *partridge* in the mountains, 1 *Sam.* xxvi. 20.

PAR'TRIDGE BAY, a bay on the south coast of Labrador. Lat. 50. 16. N. lon. 63. 20. W.

PAR'TRIDGE FIELD, a town of the state of Massachusetts: twenty-six miles west-north-west of Northampton.

PAR'TRIDGE ISLAND, an island of the South Pacific Ocean, in the vicinity of Van Diemen's Land, and discovered in the voyage for search of La Perouse, May 1792; and so called by some of the crew who first observed it, from an apprehension that it abounded with partridges, which were probably mistaken for quails. This small island is only about 100 toises in length, and situated in lat. 43. 23. 30. S. On the shore was found the low species of parsley, which they called *Apium prostratum*, in great abundance. Many species of the *Casuarina*

grow here; and, among the plants, seen for the first time, was a remarkable species of the *Limodorum*. Numerous kinds of ferns were also collected, and a beautiful species of the *Glycine*, remarkable for its scarlet flower. No fresh water was found upon this island; though several forsaken huts showed that it had been frequented by the savages. *Perouse*, vol. i.

PAR'TULA, or PARTUN'DA, in heathen mythology, the goddesses who were supposed to preside over pregnant women, and to assist at the child-birth.

PAR'TURE, *f.* Departure. *Not in use.*

The tydings bad,
Which now in faery court all men do tell,
Which turned hath great mirth to mourning sad,
Is the late ruine of proud Marinell,
And sudden *parture* of faire Florimell
To find him forth. *Spenser's F. Q.*

PARTUR'IENT, *adj.* [*parturiens*, Lat.] About to bring forth:

In mid state, I call't *parturient*,
And should bring forth that live divinity
Within ourselves. *More's Imm. of the Soul.*

P A R T U R I T I O N.

PARTURITION, *f.* [from *parturio*, Lat. to bring forth; or from *partus*, child-labour, of *pario*.] The act of bringing a child into the world.—Confirmation of parts is required, not only unto the previous conditions of birth, but also unto the *parturition*, or very birth. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*—Any production.—The ardency of love, which we have to any new *parturition*, is by some space of time abated, after that we have diverted to some other employment; amongst which, as amongst children, commonly the youngest is most affected. *Lisfr. for Orat.* 1682.

INTRODUCTION.

THE art of delivering women of the mature foetus must be nearly coeval, as a practice, with the creation. At first it was very simple, and consisted solely in the knowledge of the method of dividing the navel-string. Animals usually bite it asunder with their teeth. Women probably first made use of the sharp edge of a stone, or of a shell, for the purpose; which is the mode still practised in barbarous countries. As difficulties would occasionally occur, either in the exclusion of the foetus, or of the placenta, or after-birth, some female friend or relative would be called upon to give assistance. If the placenta happened to be detained beyond the usual time, which is one of the most ordinary accidents in labours, the assistant would naturally attempt to draw it away by the funis, which she would find hanging from the pudenda. If a leg or arm of the foetus presented, instead of the head, she would, doubtless, take hold of the presenting part, and endeavour by that means to draw the child from its confinement. In these attempts, if it should be one of the lower limbs that presented, her exertions would generally be crowned with success; but, as the obstacle making assistance necessary supposes a relative disproportion between the birth and the passage through which it is to pass, the child would usually be dead born. On the other hand, if an arm presented, the same success would attend the exertions of the midwife in a few cases only; as in premature birth, or where the child happened to be remarkably small. It would more commonly happen, that all attempts to bring the child in that posture would fail; but the uterus persisting to exert itself, or, in other words, the labour-pains continuing, they would some-

times thrust down the feet or the breech of the child, the head and shoulders gradually receding, and rising upwards, and it would at length be forced into the world in that position. In these cases, though the child would be dead, the woman would frequently recover. It would more often happen, that this evolution would not take place, and that the woman, exhausted by long-continued and fruitless exertions, bruised and injured by the pressure of the foetus, and tormented by the distension of her bladder, no egress being allowed to the urine, would fall a sacrifice to the pressure of so many accumulated evils.

There can be hardly any doubt that, in the first ages, the practice of this art was altogether in the hands of women, and that men were never employed but in the utmost extremity. Indeed it is natural to suppose, that, while the simplicity of the early ages remained, women would have recourse to none but persons of their own sex, in diseases peculiar to it; accordingly, we find that in Egypt it was practised by women. See Gen. xxxv. 17. xxxviii. 28, 29. Exod. i. 15-21.

Hyginus relates, that in Athens a law was made, prohibiting women and slaves from practising physic in any shape: but the modesty of the sex rendered it afterwards absolutely necessary to allow free women the privilege of sharing this art with the men.

In the *Harmonia Gynæciorum*, there are extant several directions and recipes on the subject of midwifery, collected from the writings of one *Cleopatra*, interspersed with those of *Moschion* and *Priscian*; and some people imagine this was no other than the famous *Cleopatra* queen of Egypt, because, in the preface, *Arinoë* is mentioned as the author's sister. *Galen*, who lived two hundred years after this Egyptian queen, advises the reader to consult the writings of one of that name, but does not inform us whether she was or was not that celebrated princess; so that, in all probability, it was some other person of the same name, as the study and exercise of such an art was not at all suited to the disposition of such a gay voluptuary as queen *Cleopatra* is described to have been.

Ætius transcribes some chapters from the works of one *Aspasia*, touching the method of delivering and managing women in natural labours; but gives no account of

of the place of her residence, nor of the time in which she wrote. Several other female practitioners are mentioned by different historians; but, as none of their writings are extant, and the accounts given of them are mostly fabulous and foreign to our purpose, we shall forbear to mention them in this place, and, referring the curious to Le Clerc's History of Physick, begin with *Hippocrates*, the most ancient writer now extant upon our subject, who may be styled the father of midwifery as well as medicine; because all the succeeding authors, as far down as the latter end of the sixteenth century, have copied from his works the most material things relating to the diseases of women and children, as well as to the obstetric art.

Hippocrates, who practised medicine in Greece about 460 years before the Christian era, no doubt availed himself of the observations of those who went before him in the exercise of the same profession. He acquired the highest reputation by his wise predictions and successful practice, and by his uncommon sagacity and experience greatly improved the healing art. In his book *De Natura Muliebri*, and those *De Mulierum Morbis*, he mentions and describes many diseases peculiar to the female sex, according to the theory of those times, and prescribes more medicines for the diseases of women than for any other distempers. Many of his remedies, indeed, are very strange and uncouth; but a number of them are still accounted excellent in the present practice, unless his names of them have been mistaken and misapplied to other medicines: and, although his theory is frequently odd and erroneous, his diagnostics, prognostics, and method of cure, are often just and judicious. As to his theory of conception, and his opinions about the birth in the seventh or eighth month of gestation, they were espoused by all medical writers till the 17th century.

At the early period we are speaking of, the chief means made use of in tedious and difficult labours appear to have been, anointing the pudenda with oils, and putting the women into warm baths, as we find it recommended by Hippocrates, Avicenna, and other ancient writers; by these means they hoped to relax the parts, and render them more easy of distention, and thence to procure a freer passage for the fœtus. This continued to be the practice for many ages. From examining the little that has been written by the ancients on the subject, it is evident they had no knowledge of that species of obstacle to the birth of the child, which is occasioned by the mal-conformation of the bones of the pelvis of the woman: they attributed the whole of the difficulty to a rigidity of the muscles, or of the ligaments connecting the bones of the pelvis together, which they hoped by these means to loosen.

Hieronymus Mercurialis, who flourished about the middle of the sixteenth century, tells us, it was not unusual to put women on a course of bathing and anointing several weeks before they attained to the period of parturition. Speaking of what is to be done, prior to the labour, he says, "Utatur balneis aquæ dulcis, in quibus herbæ laxantes et emollientes coquantur. Inungatur etiam, eodem tempore, dorsum, et pectus, similiter loca muliebria iis linimentis, quæ possent emollire, et lenire." (*De Morb. Mul. lib. ii.*) Another custom which was probably only practised among the common people, was placing the parturient women in an erect posture that they might profit by the weight of the fœtus, and shaking them strongly; thinking, probably, that the child would drop down, as fruit falls from the tree.

"Alii," Moschion says, (*Harm. Gynæc. p. 11.*) "ad scalas ligabant, et sic pendere jubebant; alii infinitum deambulare et salire cogebant, alii scalas ascendere; alii autem, manibus sub axillis missis, a terra subleabant, et diutius exagitabant." Hippocrates had long before, and probably with the same view, recommended, in cases where the head of the child presented, but on account of the straitness of the passage was detained above the brim

of the pelvis, to anoint the parts, and to put the woman into a bath of warm water. These methods failing, the head of the child was to be opened with a scalpel, and then to be extracted with strong iron pincers, or hooks. "Caput gladiolo dissectum. Instrumento quod constringat comminuto, et officula per ossum vossella extrahito, aut unco attractorio ad claviculam uti firmiter adhæreat immisso, non confestim, sed paulatim remittendo, et rursus adurgendo, extrahito." (*Hip. Oper. Om. Fœtio. p. 618.*) Celsus recommends a similar practice, (*lib. vii. cap. 29. De Medecina.*) Avicenna mentions a kind of fillet that was used in these cases. This contrivance, although it had a few favourers, was never in general use; the more common method in tedious and difficult births was to diminish the bulk of the child, or of the part nearest to the external surface, with scalpels, or other cutting instruments, and then to draw it away with iron hooks, pincers, or forceps, armed with teeth. Those who wish to see the forms of these instruments, or a more particular account of the methods of applying or using them, may consult Albucasis's *Methodus Medendi*, lib. ii. and Ruett, *De Conceptione et Gen. Hominis*, in which many of them are particularly delineated and described.

As cases of such difficulty as to render the use of instruments necessary are rare, not occurring oftener than once in five or six hundred labours, and as the practice was for many ages, indeed so late as to the end of the sixteenth century, almost exclusively in the hands of women, it is not to be wondered at, that little improvement was made in the method of assisting women in the only cases that would come under the care of the surgeon, until a very late period. Hippocrates, having learned that in ordinary births the child presented with its head to the orifice of the womb, thought that in all cases when it offered in a different posture, it ought to be pushed back, in order to bring down the head. This he attempted to do even when the breech or the feet came first. "If an olive," he says, "comes into the neck of a bottle across, and you attempt to bring it through in that posture, you will either crush the olive or break the glass." But, as it is of little consequence which of the ends of the olive comes first, he should have seen, that it is nearly equally immaterial which end of the child comes first. This, however, does not seem to have occurred to him; and, as his name was of great authority in every thing relating to medicine, his rules continued to be followed until the middle of the sixteenth century.

In his first book of the Diseases of Women, he gives directions for excluding the *secundines*, provided they are not expelled in the natural way. He says, if the *secundines* come not away immediately after the birth, the woman labours under a pain in her belly and side, attended with rigours and a fever, which vanish when they are discharged; though, for the most part, the after-birth putrefies and comes away about the sixth or seventh day, and sometimes later. In this case, he orders the patient to hold her breath, and prescribes internally, mugwort, cretan dittany, flowers of white violets, leaves of agnus, castus, with garlic boiled or roasted, small onions, castor, spikenard, rue, and black wine.

In the book *de Superfætatione*, after having described the methods of delivering a dead child, he says, if the *secundines* come not away easily, the child must be left hanging to them, and the woman seated on a high stool, that the fœtus by its weight may pull them along; and, lest this should be too suddenly effected, the child may be laid on wool newly plucked, or on two bladders filled with water, and covered with wool, which being pricked, as the water evacuates, they will subside, and, the child sinking gradually, will gently draw the *secundines* away; but, should the navel-string happen to be broke, proper weights must be tied to it, in order to answer the same purpose; these being the easiest and least hurtful methods of extracting the *placenta*.

He likewise ascribes several complaints and disorders of women

women to the different positions and motions of the uterus; of which last, Plato, who lived immediately after Hippocrates, gives a very odd and romantic description, in his *Timæus*. After affirming "that there is implanted in the genitals of man, an imperious headstrong inobedient power, that endeavours to subject every thing to its furious lusts;" he says, "the vulva and matrix of women is also an animal ravenous after generation, which, being balked of its desire for any length of time, is so enraged at the disappointment and delay, that it wanders up and down through the body, obstructing the circulation, stopping the breath, producing suffocations and all manner of diseases."

Although there is a piece in English, called "Aristotle's Midwifery," we find little or nothing of the practice in his works. He has written on the generation of animals; and we find in him several hints, curious enough, even upon our subject. He tells us, that women suffer more than other animals from uterine gestation and labour; that those women who take most exercise, endure both with the greatest ease and safety; and that the fœtus in all animals naturally comes by the head, because, there being more matter above than below the navel, the head necessarily tilts downwards. For this reason, he says, every birth in which the head presents is natural, and those unnatural in which the feet, or any other part of the body, come foremost.

We have nothing written on the subject of parturition from his time to that of Celsus, who is supposed to have lived in the reign of the emperor Tiberius. This author has given a chapter on the delivery of dead children, and the placenta, in which he has copied from Hippocrates, though he is more full than his master, and mentions several improvements on his practice. After having given directions with regard to the woman's position, he advises the operator to introduce one finger after another until the whole hand shall gain admittance; he says, that the largeness of the uterus, and the strength and courage of the patient, are great advantages to the birth; that the woman's abdomen and extremities must be kept as warm as possible; that we must not wait until an inflammation is produced, but assist her without delay; because, should her body be swelled, we can neither introduce our hands, nor deliver the child, without great difficulty; and vomitings, tremors, and convulsions, often ensue.

Rufus Ephesus, who lived in the reign of Trajan, gives a short account of the uterus and its appendages, and describes those tubes which are now called *Fallopian*, as opening into the cavity of the womb; though Galen arrogates this discovery to himself, so particularly, as to say upon this subject, that he was surprised to find they had escaped the notice of the common herd of anatomists; but more especially amazed that a man of Herophilus's accuracy should be ignorant of them: yet Rufus has expressly mentioned the opinion of Herophilus on this particular.

Galen was born in the time of the emperor Adrian, A.D. 131. about six hundred years after Hippocrates, upon whose works he writes commentaries, and gives some reasonable aphorisms relating to women and children. We have two books of his writing, *de Semine* (the third being accounted spurious); one, *De Uteri Dissectione, de Fœtum Formatione, De Septimesfri Partu, De Usu Partium*. In his physiology he is prolix and inaccurate: his anatomy is pretty exact in many things; but, upon the whole, he contains little or nothing to our purpose.

In Oribasius, who was physician to Julian, we have a description of the parts, and in several places of his works, an account of the medicines used by the ancients in the diseases of women and children: he has also a chapter on the choice of a nurse, and another upon the milk; but says nothing of the operation.

Ætius, who (according to Le Clerc) lived in the end of the fourth, but in the opinion of Dr. Freind in the end of the fifth, century, was likewise a collector from the

ancients: for neither he nor Oribasius can be styled original writers: the last indeed, copied from none (almost) but Galen, and was therefore called *Simia Galeni*; whereas the other compiled from all the authors that went before him, many of whom would have been lost in oblivion, had not they been mentioned in his works; he is very particular upon the diseases and management of women; his fourth Sermo of the 4th Tetrab being expressly written on this subject, and containing almost every thing which had been said before him.

In his first chapter, *De Uteri Situ, Magnitudine, ac Forma*, he distinctly divides the womb into a fundus and neck, and describes the *os tinea* as ending in the *sinus muliebris, sive pudendum*, which plainly appears to be no other than what we now call the *vagina*; for, he says, it is above six inches in length; but his description of the figure of the uterus is imperfect. His seventh chapter treats of conception, from Soranus. In his twelfth and fifteenth chapters he gives a detail of Aspasia's practice in the care and management of women, during pregnancy, and in time of labour; but the greatest part of these and the other chapters are taken from Hippocrates, to whom he has made a few insignificant additions, until we come to the twenty-second, in which there is a very full and distinct account of difficult births.

Among the causes that produce difficult labours, he enumerates weakness of mind or body, or both, a confined uterus, a narrow passage, natural smallness of the parts, obliquity of the neck of the uterus, a fleshy substance adhering to the cervix or mouth of the womb, inflammation, abscess, or induration of the parts, rigidity of the membranes, premature discharge of the waters, which ought to be detained for moistening and lubricating the parts, a stone pressing against the neck of the bladder, and extraordinary fatness; an anchylosis of the ossa pubis at their juncture, by which they are hindered from separating in time of parturition, too great pressure of the uterus on the cavity of the loins, or too great quantity of fœces and urine retained in the rectum and bladder, an enfeebled constitution, advanced age, slender make, and greenness of years, attended with weakness and inexperience. He observes, that difficult labours likewise proceed from circumstances belonging to the child that is to be born; from the extraordinary size of the body, or any part of it; from its being unable (through weakness) to facilitate the birth by its leaping and motion: from the crowding of two or three fœtuses: from twins presenting together at the mouth of the womb: from the death of the child, as it can give no assistance in promoting labour: from its tumefaction after death, and wrong presentation.

His twenty-third chapter contains the method of extraction and exsection of the fœtus, from Philumenus. He says, before the operator begins to deliver by exsection, he ought to consider the strength of the patient, and determine with himself, whether or not there is a probability of saving her life; because, if she is exhausted, enervated, lethargic, or convulsed, with a disordered pulse, it is better to decline the operation, than run the risk of her perishing under his hands; but, if he thinks her strength and courage sufficient for the occasion, let her be laid in bed, on her back, her head being low, and her legs held asunder by strong experienced women; she may take, by way of cordial, two or three mouthfuls of bread dipped in wine, in order to prevent her fainting; for which purpose, her face may be also sprinkled with wine during the operation. The surgeon, having opened the pudenda with an instrument, and observed the source of the difficulty, whether tumor, callus, or any of the causes already mentioned, he must take hold of it with a forceps, and amputate with a bistory: if a membrane obstructs the mouth of the womb, it must be divided: if the delivery is prevented by the rigidity of the membranes that envelop the fœtus, they must be pinched up with a pair

of small forceps, and cut with a sharp knife; then the perforation may be dilated with the fingers, so as to effect a sufficient opening for the passage of the child.

The next considerable author on this subject, is Paulus Ægineta, whom Le Clerc supposes to have lived in the latter end of the fourth century; though Dr. Freind brings him down to the seventh; he was the last of the old Greek medical writers. His method of practice is much the same with that of Ætius and Philumenus, as above described; and, though not so full as they, he is very distinct and particular. He tells us in his preface, that he had collected from others; and, although he was the first who had the name of *man-midwife* from the Arabians, the writings of Ætius plainly show, that there had been many male practitioners before him. In the seventy-sixth chapter of his third book, which treats of difficult births, he gives the appellation of natural to all those in which the head or feet present; and all other positions he deems præternatural. Paulus is supposed to have studied at Alexandria: for, long before his time, the Roman empire in the west had been overrun and ruined by the Goths and Vandals; and, soon after this period, learning began to decline in the east; the schools of Alexandria were removed to Antioch and Haran by the Saracens, who subdued Egypt, and destroyed the Roman empire in Asia, and then the Greek physicians were translated into the Syriac and Arabic: at least, the Arabians copied from them. This subject is fully discussed by Dr. Freind, in his History of Physic.

Serapion, one of the first Arabian writers, in his Tractatus Quintus has several chapters on the diseases of pregnant women, with the method of cure.

The next author of any note, belonging to this country, was Rhazes; who, in the latter end of the ninth century, lived at Bagdat. Like other systematic writers in physic, he hath treated of the diseases of women; and written one book expressly on the diseases of children. In the last chapter of his *Liber Divisionum*, he orders the membranes, when they are too tough, to be pierced with the nail of the finger, or with a little knife: and, if the waters are discharged a long time before delivery, so that the parts remain dry, he directs us to anoint them with oily cerates.

Avicenna lived at Ispahan about the year 1000; and was so famous for his writings all over Asia and Europe, that no other doctrine was taught in the schools of physic, till the reformation of learning. He is a voluminous author, treats largely of every part of midwifery, so far as it was known in his time; copying from those that went before him: the operation for the dead child he takes from Paulus; the extraction of the secundines from Philumenus; and the use of the fillet from his countryman Rhazes. He is very full on all the diseases of women, relating to the menses, uterine gestation, and delivery. In all præternatural cases, he says, the head ought to be reduced into the natural position; but, should this be found impracticable, he advises us to deliver by the feet. He alleges, that the head is the only natural way of presenting, and that all other positions are præternatural; though of these, the easiest is when the fœtus presents with the feet.

The next Arabian medical writer is Albucasis, who, in the eleventh or twelfth century, lived at Cyropolis, a city of Media, on the Caspian Sea; and it appears from an Arabian manuscript, in the Bodleian library, that this is the same person who was also known by the name of Alfaharavius. He has written on natural labours in the same way with his predecessors, advising us to assist the birth with fomentations and ointments, and by reducing the child into the natural position, when any other part than the head presents. His operation for extracting the dead child is literally the same with that described by Ætius; but whether he copied it from that author, or from other Arabians his predecessors, is uncertain.

What is most particular in this author is, the descriptions and figures of the instruments then used in midwifery: namely, a *vertigo* for opening the matrix, which seems to be much of the same contrivance with that which Rhazes calls the *toreulum volvens*: he likewise exhibits the figures of two other instruments for the same purpose; but not one of the three in the least resembles the *speculum matricis*, described in later writers: an *impellens*, to keep up the body of the child while the operator endeavours to reduce the head into the natural position; two kinds of forceps, of a circular form, furnished with teeth on the inside, to squeeze and crush the head, when it is of an extraordinary bigness; the larger he calls *almiflach*, the other *miflach*; and two different kinds of crotchets.

After the twelfth century, physic began to decline in Asia. Theodore Gaza brought the Greek manuscripts from Constantinople, after that city was taken in the year 1453; and about this time, the art of printing being found out, all the knowledge of the ancients was soon dispersed over Europe. In the next century, the practice of physic began to be encouraged in England. Linacre, born at Canterbury, and chosen fellow of All-souls, in Oxford, in the year 1484, was a man of learning, and projected the foundation of the college of physicians in London; for which he obtained a patent from king Henry VIII. and was himself president of it till the day of his death.

But the study of the art of parturition, though it now began to be cultivated with some success, continued in a very rude state till the 17th century; and, even after physic and surgery had become distinct professions, it remained almost totally uncultivated.

"It is a curious fact, (says the editor of the Encyclopedia Britannica,) that in the empire of China the very reverse of this has taken place. In that empire, according to the latest accounts, both physic and surgery are still in a state of the utmost degradation, even more so than among the savages of America; but for some hundred years the art of midwifery has been practised by a set of men destined to the purpose by order of government. These men, who hold in society the same rank which lithotomists did in this country about the beginning of last century, are called in whenever a woman has been above a certain number of hours in labour, and employ a mechanical contrivance for completing the delivery without injury to the infant. A certain number of such individuals is allotted to each district of a certain population.

"Both sir George Staunton and Mr. Barrow were ignorant of this fact; and the latter in particular expressly mentions, that there are no men-midwives in China. But the writer of this article had his information from a more authentic source than the works of gentlemen who were only a few months in that country, and were in a great measure treated as state-prisoners. He has it, through the medium of a friend, from a gentleman who resided upwards of twenty years as surgeon to the British factory at Canton, and who had both the ability and the inclination to learn, during the course of so long a residence, all the customs and prejudices of the natives relating to the preservation of human health."

Towards the end of the 16th century, the same causes which had so long before led to the cultivation of midwifery in China produced the same effects in Europe. The dangers to which women are sometimes exposed during labour excited the compassion of the benevolent; so that a considerable part of the first hospital which was established for the reception of the indigent sick, the Hotel Dieu of Paris, was appropriated to lying-in women. The opportunities of practice which that hospital afforded, directed the attention of medical men to the numerous accidents which happen during labour, and to the various diseases which occur after delivery. Public teaching

teaching followed, and soon after the custom of employing men in the practice of midwifery began.

Several authors of note lived and wrote in the sixteenth century, or betwixt the years 1530 and 1590, upon the diseases of pregnant women, and the different methods of delivery. A collection of the most remarkable among these writers, who are called the *old moderns*, was published at Basil, 1586, in quarto, entitled "*Gynæciorum Commentaria*;" and afterwards, in 1597, republished at Strasburg in folio, by Israel Spachius, professor of medicine in that city, with the addition of two authors, who had not been mentioned in the first. At the head of this collection, is Felix Platerus, born at Basil: he published tables, explaining the use and structure of the parts of generation proper to women. The next is the "*Harmonia Gynæciorum*," collected from Cleopatra, Moschion, Theodorus Priscianus, and another uncertain author, freed from repetitions and superfluities, by Casparus Vulpius. Then follows Eros or Trotula, first published among the old Latin writers at Venice, by the sons of Aldus. The fourth place is held by Nicholas Rocheus, a Frenchman, whose works, published at Paris, are taken from the Greeks and Arabians; though he has added some observations of his own. In his twenty-eighth chapter, he says, if the child is large, the os uteri must be dilated; if the hand or foot presents, neither must be laid hold on; but the operator, introducing his hand to the buttock or shoulder, must reduce the foetus into the natural situation, that is, so as to present with the head. His thirty-second chapter treats of monsters. Ludovicus Bonaciolus, of Ferrara, is the fifth: his works were published at Strasbourg. The sixth is Jacobus Silvius, of Amiens in Picardy. Then comes Jacobus Rueff, who published at Zurich in Switzerland, and afterwards at Frankfort. He is the first that gives a draught of the speculum matricis, for dilating the os internum, which he directs to be stretched in width; but by no means lengthways, lest the ligaments breaking, the womb should fall down. When the feet present, and the hands are stretched along the sides, he advises us to deliver footling; but, if the hands are up over the head, he says the child ought not to be brought by the feet, unless the head be very small. If the knees present, he orders them to be pushed up, and the child to be delivered by the feet: but if the breech comes first, it must be reduced, and the foetus brought by the head. The same practice he recommends in the presentation of the hands, shoulder, or hands and feet together. He is succeeded by Hieron. Mercurialis, who lived at Padua, Venice, and Bologna, and practised much in the same manner. The ninth is Johannes Baptista Montanus of Padua. Victor Trincavillius, of Venice, is the next. Albertus Bottonus, of Padua, is the eleventh. After him comes Joannes le Bon Heteropolitanus.

The author, who holds the next place in this collection, is Ambrosius Paræus, or Paré, the famous restorer and improver of midwifery: he lived at Paris, and his works were translated into Latin by Jacob Guillemeau. Next to him Spachius places Albucaasis the Arabian, already mentioned. Then Franciscus Roussetus, who wrote on the Cæsarian operation: his work was translated from the French by Casparus Bauhinus; and several of his cases are published in the memoirs of the academy of surgeons, by M. Simon. There is also the figure of a petrified child, extracted from the womb after the death of the mother; a particular account of which is added to Cordæus's comment upon Hippocrates. Casparus Bauhinus, professor at Basil, is the sixteenth. Then Mauritius Cordæus, of Rheims and Paris. The next is Martinus Akakia, of Paris; and the last is Ludovicus Mercatus, a Spaniard. This author says, if the child does not present with the head or feet, the case is dangerous, and præternatural; nor is the presentation of the feet without hazard or difficulty. In laborious cases, if the woman be young or vigorous, he prescribes bleeding in the foot,

after Hippocrates; but is against the use of the bath. He exclaims against the Cæsarian operation as an unchristian undertaking; directs us, when the placenta adheres, to introduce the hand, and pull the funis gently from side to side; and recommends sneezing to the woman, as conducive to its expulsion. When he treats of the manner of extracting a dead child, he says, with Ætius, we ought first to consider whether or not the woman has strength sufficient to bear the operation; then gives the method of Hippocrates, and in the next page describes the manner of Ætius.

Having thus given a short sketch of the authors collected by Spachius, we shall return to Paré, who (as already hinted) was the first modern that made any considerable improvements in midwifery; which continued, to his time, without any material alteration, even after the other branches of physic had been improved. For example, if the child did not present in the natural way, they shook and altered the position of the woman, by which means they imagined the foetus would turn to the right posture; or they attempted to move it so as that it should present with the head. If this could not be effected, and the feet were near at hand, they brought it footling; but, if they failed in this attempt, the child was supposed to be dead, and extracted with crotchets and hooks of various kinds; and if it could not be delivered in that manner, on account of its extraordinary size, or the narrowness of the pelvis, they dismembered and separated the body with crooked and straight knives, and then extracted it piecemeal. Paré was the first that deviated from this practice, and expressly orders the child to be turned and brought away by the feet, in all præternatural cases. He says, the most natural case is that in which the child presents with the head, and is delivered immediately on the discharge of the waters: it is more difficult when the foetus comes by the feet; and still more so, in the presentation of the arm and legs together, the back, belly, arm alone, or any other unnatural position. He directs us to bring away the secundines immediately after the child is delivered: he retains the old notions relating to the diseases and medicines; for the ancient theory was not altered till after the great Harvey found out the circulation of the blood.

Cotemporary with him, was the above-mentioned Jacobus Rueff, who practised at Frankfort, and in his writings recommends the method of the ancients: a circumstance from which we learn, that the improvements had not then reached Germany. Indeed they were very much retarded by the modesty of the women, who were shy of male practitioners; and by the mistaken notions which were at that time entertained of the structure of the uterus; for, all the descriptions till the time of Vesalius were very imperfect; and the womb in women supposed to be formed of different cells, resembling that of the brute species.

Jacobus Guillemeau was the pupil of Ambrosius Paré, adopted and confirmed his master's practice, and has written with learning and judgment.

A few years before Ambrosius Paré's book appeared, Eucharius Rhodion, a physician at Frankfort, published the first popular work that we are acquainted with on the subject. As it was intended for the instruction of the midwives, it was printed at first in the German language. In 1532, it was translated into Latin, under the title of "*De Partu Hominis*," and in a few years after, into French, English, and other modern languages. The practical rules recommended by him, are such as he had learned from Hippocrates, Avicenna, and other ancient writers. In cross-presentations, the midwife was to endeavour to bring down the head; when this could not be effected, if the breech, or feet, were next the uterine orifice, the child was to be allowed to come into the world in that posture, taking, however, especial care, he says, that the hands should be brought down, and placed one on each side of the body of the child, a rule which

which could not possibly be followed, and which shows that the writer had never practised the art. The same censure may be passed upon almost every regulation that had been hitherto promulgated on the subject; nearly all of them tending rather to mislead than to inform the practitioner, and to increase rather than diminish the pain, difficulty, and danger, of the labour.

We have two translations of Rhodion's book into our language. The first by Richard Jones, who dedicated it to Katherine, queen to Henry VIII. It was printed in the year 1540; and is decorated or illustrated with some indifferent engravings on copper, which, however, are esteemed, as being the first specimens of the kind executed in this country. In 1545, Thomas Raynold, physician, published a second translation. This has passed through several editions, under the title of "The Byrth of Mankynd, or the Woman's Booke;" and was nearly the only manual used by the midwives until the year 1634, when all the works of Ambrose Paré were translated into one volume.

In the year 1688, Francis Mauriceau, after an extensive practice for several years, in the Hotel Dieu and city of Paris, published a Treatise on Midwifery, which exceeded every thing before made public on that subject. He describes the bones of the pelvis, and all the parts subservient to generation; the diseases incident to pregnant women, with the methods of prevention and cure; and, after having given a full and distinct account of all the different labours, and the way of delivering in each case, concludes his work with the diseases of women and children. His method of practice was nearly the same with that of Paré and Guillemeau; but he is much fuller than either. In laborious cases, when the head presents, and cannot be delivered by the labour-pains, he orders a fillet, or stripe of linen, to be slit in the middle, and slipped over the head: this contrivance hath since been improved with laces, by which it is contracted on the head. It is introduced by three different instruments, fixed with a great deal of trouble, and, after all, of very little use. He also invented a *tire-tête*, which cannot be applied until the skull is opened with a knife; consequently can be of no service in saving the child: and, granting the fœtus to be dead, other methods are much more effectual. He was ignorant of the forceps. When the head is left in the uterus, he advises us to extract it, by introducing over it a broad fillet, like a sling. In 1706, he published a second volume, containing about 800 observations. But, long before that period, he had gained such reputation by his writings, as encouraged others of the same nation to write on the same subject: accordingly, we have the works of Portal, Peu, and Dionis; but all of them fall short of Mauriceau. About this time also, Saviard wrote several observations on the same art.

Cotemporary with Mauriceau were Dr. Chamberlen and his three sons, who practised in London with great reputation. One of these three sons, father to the late Dr. Hugh Chamberlen, translated the first volume of Mauriceau into English; and, in the preface to the translation, Dr. Chamberlen announces an invention, "known only," he says, "to his father, brothers, and himself, with which they were enabled to terminate the most difficult labours, without injuring either the mothers or the children." Though he gives no intimation by which it could be discovered what were the means used for the purpose, yet it was in time found out to be the forceps. The merit of the invention consisted in making the blades of the instrument separable, and capable of being locked, or united together, after being introduced into the vagina, and placed one on each side of the head of the child: a most invaluable discovery, and which has deservedly immortalized the inventor. But he at first very much overrated their power, imagining that they were applicable in all cases, where the head of the child was *enclavé*, or fixed in the pelvis; not having met with a

case, we may suppose, where the bones-forming that cavity were considerably distorted. Accordingly he undertook to deliver a woman whose pelvis was so contracted and narrow as to render it impossible that the head of a full-grown fœtus should pass through it undiminished. The operation, or trial, which was performed at Paris, where he went with the view of selling his secret, failed. Mortified at the check he received, he left the country, and went to Amsterdam, where he is said to have sold the secret to Roonhuysen, a surgeon in great practice in that city, who has the credit of having invented the lever which bears his name.

Dr. Denman, in the preface to his Midwifery, has given some extracts from a curious MS. written by Dr. Percival Willughby, who lived at Derby, and afterwards in London; which will give the reader some idea of the practice of that time, many of the cases being dated from 1640 to 1670. This work is entirely practical, and was intended to be published for the use of midwives, there being a title-page, and two copies with variations. His preface is in this manner:

"I have read many bookes, with all the late writers in midwifery, and I do perceive that they all followe one common roade, taking their severall scheemes and figures one from another. In severall of these scheemes various things may be perceived which will be troublesome to the labouring woman, which a judicious practitioner will not followe. Let midwives mark what hath been written in my observations, let them consider diligently the severall reportes not fained, or the surmised thoughtes, notions, or man's fantasie, sitting and meditating in his studie, but which really have been performed in the traailing woman's chambre. From mine and their directions let midwives choose the best and easiest waies of relieving women in affliction; and to decide all disputes let reason be the judge, let experience argue the dubious points of practice; and, after a full debate, let unspotted truth recorde to succeedinge times what is most fitt to be followed and used, &c."

This is a specimen of his illustration. "Let midwives observe the waies and proceedings of nature for the production of her fruit on trees, or the ripening of walnuts and almondes, from their first knotting to the opening of the huskes and falling of the nutt; the green huskes sticking so close that it is not possible to separate the huske from the shell, whilest it is unripe; but as the fruit ripeneth the huske choppeth, and with a fissure openeth, and by degrees separateth the fruit without any enforcement. An egge representeth the wombe: now the henne with keeping the egge warme doth breed the chicken, which when it comes to maturitie doth chip the shell, and is by degrees hatched without injurie. These signatures may teach midwives patience, and persuade them to let nature alone to performe her owne worke, and not to disquiet women by their strugglings; for such enforcements rather hinder the birthe than any waie promote it, and oft ruinate the mother and usually the childe; and let midwives knowe that they bee natur's servantes, &c."

Willughby's practice is very little different from that of the present time. He divides labours into two kinds only, natural and unnatural. It appears, that this Dr. Willughby was one of the six sons of sir Percival Willughby, and grandson of sir Francis, so famous in the time of queen Elizabeth.

About this time flourished Nicholas Culpeper, a writer very much admired by the common people. He was the son of Nicholas Culpeper, a clergyman, and grandson of sir Thomas Culpeper, bart. He was for some time a student of the university of Cambridge; and soon after was bound apprentice to an apothecary, under whom he acquired a competent knowledge of the materia medica, and of the art of preparing and compounding medicines; but he employed all his leisure hours in adding to the study of physic that of astrology, both which he afterwards

wards professed; and set up business in Spitalfields, next door to the Red Lion, (formerly known as the Half-way House between Islington and Stepney,) where he had considerable practice, and was much resorted to for his advice, which he gave to the poor gratis. In his works he styles himself "Gent. Student in Physic and Astrology;" and those physicians of early times, whom he seems to have particularly studied, Paracelsus, Galen, and Avicenna, regarded those as homicides who were ignorant of astrology: Paracelsus, indeed, went farther; he declared, that a physician should be predestinated to the cure of his patient; and that the horoscope should be inspected, the planets gathered at the critical moment, or at least during the planetary hour. Culpeper published "A Directory for Midwives;" in which he has copied the theory and practice of the old writers, many of whom he mentions, namely, Hippocrates, Galen, Aëtius, &c. and frequently advises the reader to consult his translations of Sennertus, Riverius, Riolanus, Bartholin, Johnston, Veslingius, Rulandus, Sanctorius, Cole, the London Dispensatory, and a book which he himself had published under the title of "The ENGLISH PHYSICIAN, and Complete Herbal; being an astrologo-physical Discourse of the vulgar Herbs of the Nation; containing a complete Method or Practice of Physic, whereby a Man may preserve his Body in Health, or cure himself when sick, with such things only as grow in England, they being most fit for English Constitutions." This work has always been in great request, and has been many hundred times reprinted, not only in England and Scotland, but in America. He published several other works; and died at his house in Spitalfields, on the 10th January, 1654, in the thirty-eighth year of his age. He was succeeded in this way of writing by one Dr. Salmon, who was also a great translator and compiler; and was partly author of a spurious piece called Aristotle's Midwifery, which hath undergone a great many editions, and contributed to keep up the belief of the marvellous effects of various medicines.

It is probable that the fortune and eminence acquired by the supposed advantages of the method of the Chamberlens, which they reserved as a secret, might be the occasion that many gentlemen engaged in practice endeavoured to establish themselves upon the same principles; that is, of concealing the means they used; of which class was Dr. Bamber. Others might attempt to gain equal reputation and fortune by the very contrary means; that is, by decrying the use of instruments of every kind, on any occasion; for, about the year 1723, Dr. John Maubray published a volume upon this subject called "The Female Physician, or the Whole Art of New Improved Midwifery," in which he exclaims with great vehemence against their use. In the following year he also published an appendix, under the title of "Midwifery brought to Perfection," in which he demands great credit for the many improvements he had made. This appendix is in truth no more than a Sylabus of his Lectures, a course of which consisted of twenty, twelve anatomical and physiological, and eight practical; and it would be unjust to deny to Maubray the credit of having been the first public teacher of midwifery in Britain. He gave his lectures at his house in Bond-street.

In the year 1701, Deventer, an eminent surgeon of a town in Holland of that name, acquired considerable fame by his practice in the obstetric art. He also declaimed violently against the use of instruments, affirming he could terminate the most difficult labours with his hand alone. He contended that the greatest obstacle to the birth of the child arose from the oblique position of the uterus, its fundus falling too much forward, or to one side of the abdomen of the mother. The head of the child was therefore forced by the pains, either against the sacrum, or against one of the sides of the pelvis, instead of being directed into the centre of that cavity. In

all cases of difficulty, if the head of the child was not forced down so low as to render it impracticable, he passed his hand into the uterus, turned the child, and delivered it by the feet. When that could not be done, he introduced his left hand into the back part of the vagina, and gradually pushed back the bones of the coccyx so as to give space sufficient for the head of the child to pass. In cases where the pelvis was distorted, he must necessarily have failed in this attempt, for the same reason that Chamberlen failed with his forceps; but, as such cases would only occur once in five or six hundred labours, that small number of exceptions would give little check to his fame, which was continued to his name for many years after his death. His book was translated in 1729; and, thus becoming known to the English practitioner, it may be esteemed (says Dr. Denman) a considerable addition to the stock of obstetric knowledge in this country. Dr. Smellie has quoted one of his observations; namely, "that an imaginary straight line falling down from the navel, would pass through the middle of the pelvis." This will nearly hold true, when the abdomen is not distended; but, in the last month of uterine gestation, in order to pass through the middle of the pelvis, such a line must be let fall from the middle space betwixt the navel and scrobiculus cordis. This, however, was a good hint, and useful in practice. Deventer was originally a watchmaker.

The next writer to be noted is Lamotte, who lived at Valognes, near Caen in Normandy; and in 1715 published a book on midwifery, which seems to be the best of the kind since Mauriceau, and has been translated into English by Mr. Tomkyns. It contains about 400 observations, the greatest part of which are illustrated with many judicious reflections. In describing a case in which the head presented, he mentions the great fatigue it had cost him to turn and deliver by the feet; and hopes that some easier method will be found out, for extracting the child in such circumstances: so that, although he wrote so lately, he must have been ignorant of the forceps.

The next writer in midwifery is Monf. Amand of Paris, who describes the method of extracting the head, when left in the uterus, by means of a net. The contrivance is ingenious, but is not applied without great trouble, and cannot succeed when the pelvis is too narrow, or the head too large to pass.

Dr. Simson, professor at St. Andrew's in Scotland, published in 1729 his "System of the Womb," a work of sufficient ingenuity, but not of much use in practice, even if his theory had been true.

About the year 1733, Edmund Chapman published his "Treatise on the Improvement of Midwifery," in which there are several useful observations; and other writings of temporary consequence only. Chapman was the second public teacher of midwifery in London; and he was the first who described the forceps as used by Chamberlen, in the third volume of the Edinburgh Medical Essays.

In the year 1734, Dr. Hody published a "Collection of Cases in Midwifery," written by Mr. William Giffard. These cases, 225 in number, seem to be written with great fidelity; and, as they occurred in his own practice, they were lessons of conduct which ought to be pursued in similar cases, and may now be considered as examples of the state of practice at that time. Giffard also gave a plate representing the forceps, and was among the first who asserted that the placenta might be attached over the os uteri.

"The Midwife rightly Instructed," was published in the year 1736 by Thomas Dawke; and the "Midwife's Companion," by Henry Bracken, in the following year, with some other things equally unimportant.

About this time lived Richard Manningham, who quitted the profession of pharmacy, and applied himself with great assiduity to the practice of midwifery. In a pamphlet, published in the year 1730, he is mentioned as having been knighted. In the year 1739 he established

a ward or small hospital in the parochial infirmary of St. James, Westminster, for the reception of parturient women, which was the first thing of the kind in the British dominions. At this ward, which was supported by public subscription, he gave lectures, and the students had opportunities of being qualified for practice. He published a *Compendium Artis obstetriciæ*; a *Treatise on the Febricula*; on the Use and Abuse of Physick; *Aphorismata Medica*; and many other essays, relating chiefly to the practice of midwifery. Sir Richard Manningham was a man of much learning and information, eminent and successful in practice; and very humane in the exercise of his art. He died about the year 1750.

Heister, professor at Helmstadt, a little town in the dukedom of Brunswick, in the year 1739 published at Amsterdam a *Treatise on Surgery*; in which we find a very concise and distinct account of the practice of midwifery, as well as of the Cæsarian operation.

Sir Fielding Ould, surgeon in Dublin, in the year 1742 published a *Treatise on the Practice of Midwifery*, in which there are two good observations: one relating to a case in which the head presents; and the other specifying what is to be done, when delivery is retarded by the twisting of the funis round the neck of the child. He prefers his *terebra occulta* to the scissors, probably because he did not know the proper dimensions of this last instrument. The very next year, Mous. Mesnard published, at Paris, a book on the same subject, by way of question and answer; and is the first who contrived the curved in lieu of the straight crotchet, which is a real improvement.

Practitioners in the art being now possessed of such powerful assistants as the forceps and crotchet, it was to be feared they might be induced to have recourse to them for the purpose of accelerating the labour in cases where there were only such obstacles as in a moderate space of time would be overcome by the pains. Cautions against this fascinating practice are found in all the late treatises on the art. Smellie, who had a larger share of practice, and who instructed a greater number of pupils, than any other professor in his time, is frequent in his admonitions against using art, other than in aid of nature, where she is absolutely and decidedly incompetent to the completion of the labour. How seldom also this happens, he is careful to inform them. He very much simplified the form of the forceps; and, that they might not be used before the head of the child had descended sufficiently low in the pelvis, he considerably reduced them in length; he also contrived a method of locking them, much more convenient than had been before used. Before he retired from the practice, in which he introduced several valuable improvements, he published, in 1752, "A *Treatise on the Theory and Practice of Midwifery*," which contained the substance of every thing that was useful, that had been printed on the subject, as well as the result of his own extensive practice. This was followed by a set of plates, in large folio, correctly drawn and well engraved, illustrating his practice. Soon after he published two volumes of cases, arranged in classes, referring to his treatise, and showing the efficacy of the rules he had there inculcated. The advice with which he concludes the Introduction to his *Treatise on Midwifery*, is very much to our present purpose.

"That the young practitioner may not be misled by the useless theories and uncertain conjectures of both ancient and modern writers, it is necessary to observe in general, that all the hypotheses hitherto espoused are liable to many material objections; and that almost every system hath been overthrown by that which followed it. This will probably be always the case; and indeed, as theory is of but little service towards ascertaining the diagnostics and cure of diseases, or improving the practice of midwifery, such enquiries are the less material. What Hippocrates has written about the form of the uterus, and its various motions, conception, the forma-

tion of the child, the seventh and eighth months' births, was believed as infallible till the last century, when his doctrine of conception, and the nutrition of the fœtus, was overthrown; and many new and uncertain theories, on the same subject, introduced.

"Some of the moderns conclude, that the ancients never turned and brought children by the feet, because Hippocrates directs us in all cases to bring the head into the natural situation; and says that, when delivery is performed by the feet, both mother and child are in imminent danger. Celsus, and all the writers till the time of Ambrose Paré, adopted this practice of bringing the head to present: but, at the same time, many of them observe, that, if this be not practicable, we must search for the feet, and deliver the fœtus in that manner. Celsus says, if the feet are at hand, the child is easily delivered footling: and Philumenus goes still farther, saying, that if even the head should present, and the child cannot be delivered in that position, we must turn and bring it by the feet.

"With regard to the fillets and forceps, they have been alleged to be late inventions; yet we find Avicenna recommending the use of both: and although, by the figures of the forceps given by Albucasis, who represents them furnished with long sharp teeth, one would imagine the instrument was designed for squeezing the bones and bringing the child along at any rate, without endeavouring to save its life, yet the forceps recommended by Avicenna is plainly intended to save the fœtus; for he says, if it cannot be extracted by this instrument, the head must be opened, and the same method used which he describes in his chapter on the delivery of dead children.

"To conclude, we find among the ancients several valuable jewels, buried under the rubbish of ignorance and superstition; because the assistance of men was seldom solicited in cases of midwifery, till the last extremity: and, those disadvantages being considered, we ought to be surprised at finding so many excellent observations in the course of their practice, and be ashamed of ourselves for the little improvement we have made in so many centuries, notwithstanding our opportunities, and the advantages we had from their experience."

While Smellie was making large strides toward improving every part of the practice of midwifery, and bringing it to perfection, Levret, and various other writers on the continent, were exerting themselves in a similar manner, and with perhaps equal felicity. In the mean while, hospitals and other institutions were formed, for the reception of parturient women. As the management and care of these were under the immediate direction of the physicians and surgeons, and the opportunity which for so many ages had been wanting, of acquiring an exact knowledge of the process of a natural labour, and of the obstacles that occasionally obstructed its progress and completion, was now obtained. To this also, the change that had been taking place, within something more than a century, in the opinions and manners of the public, had contributed. Several physicians and surgeons had, in the course of that time, applied themselves to the practice of midwifery. Hence we find Mauriceau, Deventer, Ruysch, Roonhuysen, our countryman Dr. Chamberlen, and others, enjoying a considerable portion of practice in the art.

The custom of employing men in the place of women, originated among the ladies of the highest rank in France, and gradually descended to the middling and lower classes of the people. The advantages derived from the change, both in the manner of conducting the labour, and in the management of the woman and child after the labour, became so obvious, that the practice has by degrees spread over all Europe. That the poor who could not, and a few who from prejudice still refused to, employ men, might reap the benefit of the improvements that have been made in the practice of the art, no women are now allowed

allowed to engage in the business who have not been previously instructed by some public teacher, and who do not obtain from him certificates of their qualifications. The consequence of these arrangements has been, that every part of the art has been investigated with the greatest care; and such has been the zeal of the professors, or persons engaged in the practice, that the works on the subject of midwifery, which have been published within less than a century, are sufficiently numerous to form of themselves no inconsiderable library. Thus this art, which was so late in being cultivated, has already attained a degree of perfection, that puts it on an equality, at least, with any other branch of medicine.

Of this great mass of publications, many of them excellent, it may be sufficient to mention, among foreign productions, Puzos's *Traité des Accouchemens*, Baudelocque's *Art des Accouches*, Crant De Re *Instrumentaria*, and the *Opuscula* of Roederer, and of Plenck, which embrace the whole circle of the art. Among our own writers, White on the Management of Pregnant and Lying-in Women, and Rigby on Uterine Hemorrhage, have each in their way given directions that are calculated to abide the test of time. Observations on Human and Comparative Parturition, published in 1794, may be added, as containing a number of curious and useful facts not generally known or attended to. The late Dr. William Hunter's splendid Plates of the human Gravid Uterus, and not more splendid than correct, place before our eyes the fœtus at different periods of its existence, show the posture in which it lies in the uterus, and the manner in which it is connected with that viscus. Dr. Denman's Introduction to the Practice of Midwifery, has already passed through several editions; and for comprehensiveness and exactness, it holds the same rank now that Smellie's Treatise did at the time when it was published. From these, and from the following more recent works, the present article is compiled: 1. The London Practice of Midwifery, 1811. 2. Conquest's Outlines of Midwifery, 1820. 3. Dr. Merriman's Synopsis of the various Kinds of difficult Parturition, 1821. Besides which, we have been indebted to various articles in the London Medical and Physical Journal, at present edited by Dr. Hutchinson; and to the private communications of a respectable professor in full London practice.

Many particulars which might be expected to be explained in a Treatise on Parturition, will be found anticipated under the articles ABORTION, and ANATOMY, vol. i. CONCEPTION, vol. v. and GESTATION, vol. viii. Having thus cleared the way for the instruction of the pupil in real practice, we proceed to the grand Hippocratic divisions of Natural Parturition, and Preternatural Parturition, with their respective varieties, or sub-divisions.

I. OF NATURAL PARTURITION.

HUMAN parturition, where every thing is natural, is perhaps one of the most beautiful and interesting operations in nature; for what can be more beautiful than a process accomplished by the combined action of a number of powers admirably well adapted to the intended purpose? and what can be more interesting than the continuation of our species which depends on the operation?

The fœtus, at the full period, weighs from between six and seven to between ten and eleven pounds, and measures from eighteen to twenty-two inches. It is placed within the ovum in such a manner as to occupy the least possible space. This position has been beautifully described by Harvey: "*Infans in utero ut plurimum reperitur, adductis ad abdomen genibus, flexis retrosum cruribus, pedibus decussatis, manibusque ad caput sublati, quarum alteram circa tempora vel auriculas, alteram ad genam detinet, ubi maculæ albæ, tanquam confractionis vestigia, in cute cernuntur: spina in orbem flexit, caput ad genua incurvato collo propendit. Tali membrorum situ qualem in somno per quietem quæ-*

rimus. Harvey Exercit. de Partu. This position may be viewed in the two last figures of the engraving to the article CONCEPTION, vol. v. p. 12. See also ANATOMY, vol. i. p. 620-624, and Plate VI. fig. 2. also, ANATOMY of the GRAVID UTERUS, Plate V. p. 652.

Natural labour supposes four things: First, that the vertex presents. Secondly, that there is sufficient room in the pelvis to admit of the ready descent of the head of the child in that direction which permits the occiput to emerge under the arch of the pubis. Thirdly, that there is parturient energy adequate to the expulsion of the contents of the uterus without manual interference, and without danger either to the mother or child. Fourthly, that the process of parturition is completed within a moderate time.

The sufferings of a woman during labour having been compared to the fatigues of a person on a journey, the phenomena of labour have been divided into *stages*, each stage being marked by some distinguishing circumstances, either in the nature of the pains, the dilatation of the parts, or the degree of descent of the head; and various have been the divisions arbitrarily adopted by different authors. Thus, Dr. Denman divides labour into three stages only. "The first includes the dilatation of the os uteri; the rupture of the membranes; the discharge of the waters. The second, the descent of the child; the dilatation of the external parts; the expulsion of the child. The third, the separation of the placenta; the expulsion or extraction of the placenta." Aphorisms, p. 3.—The London Practice of Midwifery makes four stages. "The first stage is that when the head of the child enters the pelvis, passing down as far as it can move without changing its position. The second includes the period of the child's head passing through the os uteri into the vagina. The third, the change which has taken place in the vagina and os externum. The fourth, the delivery of the body of the child, and the expulsion of the placenta."—Dr. Bard, of New York, makes four stages. "The first is occupied in opening and dilating the internal orifice of the womb; the second, in the passage of the child's head through the bones; the third, in dilating the external orifice, and the delivery of the child; and the last, in the delivery of the placenta, or after-birth." Compendium of Midwifery, p. 105.—Mr. Hogben divides labour into five stages. "The first lasts from the commencement of labour till the child's head enters the brim of the pelvis. The second is the time in which the face passes into the lower pelvis, the face turning into the cavity of the sacrum. The third, the further advance of the head without the os externum. The fourth, the expulsion of the body and lower extremities of the child. The fifth, the discharge of the placenta and membranes." Obstetric Studies, p. 33. This work is illustrated with very curious Anatomical Tables, on an entirely new plan.—Dr. Merriman prefers a division into four stages; and his third includes the third and fourth of Mr. Hogben.

FIRST STAGE.—For some days previous to the accession of those phenomena which characterize the existence of labour, there are often present certain premonitory symptoms, which, by women who have borne children, are viewed as precursors of that hour they so much dread. Subsidence of the uterus and abdomen is not an unusual monitor of the approach of suffering. It may be viewed in a favourable light, inasmuch as it indicates room in the pelvis. Glairy mucous secretion from the os uteri and vagina, popularly termed a *show*, sometimes occurs for days before the more active symptoms of labour. It is often streaked with blood, and tends to lubricate the parts concerned in parturition. Irritability of the bladder and rectum, demanding their frequent relief, is another occasional precursor of labour.

In consequence of the resistance which the uterus meets with during its contractile efforts, pain follows every such contraction; but the pain attendant on parturition differs

differs very materially in its nature and in its influence on the uterus. Paroxysms of *intestinal pain*, or such as are termed *false* or *spurious pains*, may be distinguished from genuine labour-pains, by being unconnected with uterine contraction; by attacking different parts of the abdomen; and by recurring irregularly. These pains usually originate in some source of intestinal irritation, and may almost always be removed by emptying the bowels, and subsequently exhibiting an opiate. They can hardly be confounded with enteritis by an observant practitioner. The *uterine pains* are either dilating or expulsive. *Dilating pains*, or, as they are popularly termed, *grinding pains*, result from uterine contraction. They are principally confined to the back, and occur in the earliest stage of labour, and are often peculiarly distressing to the patient, who expresses her suffering by restlessness, despondency, and moaning. They often continue a long time without the intermissions being free from uneasiness, and appear almost exclusively to dilate the os uteri, having little or no influence over the fundus of the uterus. It is during the existence of these dilating pains that *rigors* most commonly occur, and may be relieved by avoiding spiced or fermented fluids; and by giving any simple warm diluents. When the mouth of the womb is considerably dilated, *expulsive pains*, sometimes termed *forcing* or *bearing-down pains*, commence on the loins, and gradually proceed round the abdomen, till they meet at the region of the pubes, and dart down the labia pudendi and thighs.

Vomiting is a common attendant on uterine pain, and is beneficial by rejecting food, which from its quantity or quality may be a source of inconvenience to the stomach. It principally occurs during the dilating pains, and unquestionably assists in the relaxation and dilatation of the os uteri.

Besides these attendants on parturition, the pulse usually becomes quickened and full; the countenance florid; the whole surface of the body covered with profuse perspiration; and the lower extremities cramped.

The premonitory symptoms having continued for an indefinite time, pains in the loins darting through the pelvis, with an appearance of *show*, indicate the approach of less unequivocal evidences of the commencement of parturition. For some time these pains are of the *dilating* kind; and, on an examination per vaginam, will be found rather to be diminishing the thickness of the cervix uteri than to be opening the mouth of the womb. When the cervix uteri becomes reduced to the thickness of the other parts of that organ, it begins to open; and, as soon as it can admit the extrusion of any portion of the membranes distended with liquor amnii, the pains become rather of the *expulsive* character, and there will be a sensible bearing-down of the whole uterine tumour. Successive paroxysms of pain dilate the os uteri more and more, whilst the protruded membranes, distended like a tense bladder, fill up the opening, and perform the office of an inimitable *wedge*, till the uterus and vagina form one continuous passage.

When the wedge begins to act, the grinding or cutting pains diminish, and, as a larger quantity of the waters increases the bulk of the protruding bag or wedge, the *bearing-pains* begin to be felt; and, in proportion as the pains grow stronger, there is a greater freedom from uneasiness during the intermissions; commonly too the pains are rather longer apart. The irritable state of the *os uteri*, during the first stage of labour, very often produces, from sympathy, those shiverings and vomitings already spoken of; and, when the *cutting-pains* are very frequent and severe, despondency and lowness of spirits generally prevail.

The first stage of labour may be considered as terminated, when the os uteri is dilated to the full extent of two inches in diameter, provided that the head of the *fœtus* has descended so much as to occupy the superior

aperture or brim of the pelvis. This is the position which is shown on the annexed Plate I. where A, A, A, denote the left side of the vagina, relaxed by labour, and distended in some measure by the descending child. B, B, the left labium pudendi. C, the cut surface of the integuments of the abdomen. D, the nymphæ. E, the clitoris. F, the urethra. G, the meatus urinaris. H, the bladder pushed forwards by the uterus. I, the os pubis. K, the rectum. L, the anus. M, the left thigh. N, the external surface of the uterus. P, P, the cut edge of the coats of the uterus. Q, the divided edges of the os uteri. R, R, R, the intestines. S, S, S, the canal containing the medulla spinalis. T, the perineum. b, b, b, os coccygis. c, c, c, sacrum. d, d, d, lumbar vertebrae.

SECOND STAGE.—When the first stage of labour has terminated favourably, the second seldom offers much difficulty or delay; the pains become more *forcing*, and of longer duration, and a new power is called in, to assist in propelling the child through the pelvis. This assistance is afforded by the diaphragm and abdominal muscles, which are brought into action during the pains.

It is no uncommon thing, during the earlier period of the labour, to hear the poor patient advised by her nurse and female friends to assist herself and bear down with all her might; and the chidings that she undergoes, for not making her pains useful, tend greatly to produce dismay and depression of spirits; whenever the accoucheur observes this, he should endeavour to repress such absurd and improper behaviour. The fact is, that, during the first stage of labour, the voluntary efforts of the patient are neither called for, nor can be beneficial. They may exhaust her strength, but cannot advance the labour. The action of the diaphragm and abdominal muscles is almost, if not altogether, useless, till the os uteri is getting well dilated; then, indeed, it becomes a powerful auxiliary in producing greater dilatation, and in propelling the child through the pelvis.

But now the woman cannot withhold her exertions; it is no longer a matter of choice, but of necessity; she is compelled to strive in forwarding the birth; she eagerly grasps in her hands whatever is within her reach, and endeavours to fix her feet against some firm body; she holds in her breath, and *bears down* with all her force. By these powers united, she is enabled to get through the second stage of labour, which may be considered as finished, as soon as the os uteri is fully dilated, and the head of the *fœtus* is so placed as for the forehead to occupy the hollow of the sacrum. A violent straining to vomit occasionally accompanies the pain, which completely dilates the os uteri.

Sometimes, however, the second stage of labour takes up a longer time, depending, perhaps, upon the want of a due proportion between the pelvic cavity and the fetal head. And delay is sometimes occasioned by the premature rupture of the membranes, and the discharge of the *liquor amnii*. Whether this arises spontaneously, accidentally, or by design, it has the effect of interrupting the progress of the labour; for the dilating power so admirably possessed by the soft, steady, equable pressure of the bag of waters, is now removed, and the dilatation must be effected by the head of the child slowly moulded into a conical shape; the hardness and inequalities of which little adapt it for such a purpose. If the *show* has not already appeared, it will be discovered during this stage, and may be considered as a very favourable occurrence; for the discharge of this intermixture of blood and glairy matter tends very much to produce relaxation in the soft parts of the mother.

In the progress of this second stage, the phenomenon which peculiarly strikes us, is that change in the position of the head, by which the face is turned into the hollow of the sacrum. Although the advantage, and even necessity, of this change in the position of the head, has been

been long known to practitioners, yet Dr. Osborn is, perhaps, the first author who has clearly explained the efficient cause of this. His remarks are these: "As it (viz. the head) descends obliquely through the pelvis, the pressure of the two converging ischia will not be exactly opposite to each other on the two parietal bones; but, one ischium acting or pressing on the part of that bone contiguous to the occiput, and the other on the opposite side next to the face, the head being made up of different bones, united by membranes, and forming various futures and fontanels, which permit the shape to be changed, and the volume to be lessened, it necessarily follows, that the head, thus compressed, will take a shape nearly resembling the cavity through which it passes; and as, from the convergency of the ischia, the cavity of the pelvis somewhat approaches the form of a cone, the child's head is moulded into that shape, the shape of all others best adapted to open the soft parts, and make its way through the os externum. This unequal pressure of the two ischia upon the head, will, in the first instance, direct the occiput, or apex of the cone, to turn under the arch of the pubis, where there is little or no resistance; while the pressure of the other ischium, in its further descent, will have the same effect on the other side, and direct or compel the face to turn into the hollow of the sacrum."

This change of position is productive of three advantages. 1st. The largest part of the head is again adapted to the widest part of the pelvis. 2dly. The smallest possible surface of the head is applied to the surface of the bones of the pubes. 3dly. As Dr. Osborn, in the passage quoted, very justly observes, the head is moulded into that shape which is best calculated to pass, without doing harm, through the soft parts. This is the position exhibited on Plate II.

THIRD STAGE.—The strength of the pains now increases; but generally there is a longer interval between them; and during this the patient sometimes gets a few minutes' sleep, and always is refreshed. After each period of quietude, when the pain returns, strong pressure is made to force forwards the head of the child and to expand the external orifice: the perinæum is stretched, the anus opens, the anterior part of the rectum is pushed outwards; the woman imagines that she is going to part with a stool, and, if any feces are contained in the rectum, they are actually expelled. The pain now ceases, the head is retracted, the bag of waters, if still entire, becomes flaccid, the woman is again at rest. After a while, another pain comes on; it would seem, as if the force was sufficient to make the head break down every thing that opposed it; but again the pain abates, and again the head is retracted. Thus the patient must continue to suffer, till the external outlet is sufficiently dilated to allow the child's head to pass.

During the second and third stages of labour, the pulse will have been gradually increasing in quickness and force; the skin grows hot; the face becomes intensely red; drops of sweat stand upon the forehead; and a perspiration, sometimes profuse, breaks out all over the body; frequent violent tremblings accompany the last pain; and, at the moment that the head passes into the world, the extremity of suffering seems to be beyond endurance.

The head of the child being born, the poor woman experiences a temporary relief from pain: and this is the moment to ascertain whether there be any portion of the navel-string round the neck of the infant; and, if there be, it must be slackened or drawn over the head, otherwise the infant will be lost. Time should be allowed for the accommodation of the shoulders, and the expulsion of the body of the infant; and the utmost attention should be paid to supporting the perinæum during that part of the process; for now the throes return for the purpose of expelling the shoulders; which is effected thus: When the head passes into the world, the chin of the fœtus rests against the perinæum; but, while the head con-

tinues in this position, the shoulders are in a wrong direction for passing through the inferior bony aperture; for the long diameter of the shoulders is opposed to the short diameter of the pelvis. The first effect of the pain, then, is to turn the chin of the child towards the thigh of the mother; this alters the direction of the shoulders, and first one and then the other passes through the external parts; this is often effected by the same pain, and not unfrequently the whole body is at the same time protruded; but sometimes two or three pains are required to accomplish the entire expulsion.

The child is now born into the world, and parturition may be said to be accomplished; but, as the management of the after-birth is a very important part of natural labour, this is now denominated the

FOURTH STAGE.—After the parts are cleaned and dried, the patient has a little respite till the placenta begins to separate. This process was some time since, under the direction of Dr. Hunter, entrusted wholly to nature; nor was art suffered to interfere, though a day or two elapsed before the separation took place. This was an error in many respects. The mind was kept in anxiety; for the patient was not completely a mother till restored to her former state; nor, till the circulation in the uterus was free, was there any probability of the flow taking place to the breasts. Modern practitioners have, therefore, neither hurried on the separation, nor delayed it many hours, should not nature complete the business. It is usually an operation of nature without assistance; and, after about ten minutes from delivery, pains begin; the cord, if kept tense, is elongated, the abdominal tumor subsides into a rounded ball, sinking gradually lower, and the placenta, with little difficulty, is brought through the vagina. If the labour has been long and tedious, or the patient previously debilitated, the contraction of the uterus, which produces the separation, takes place slowly. We must then wait; and, if in five or six hours, gently pulling in the interval by the cord, it does not advance, the hand, guided by the funis, must be introduced into the uterus, and the edges of the placenta separated around. It then soon comes forward, for the centre is first naturally loose. The cake is distinguished from the clots which usually surround it, by its being in the centre of the funis, by its firmer consistence, and by its convex puckered feel. When flooding is violent, the separation must be quickly accomplished; and when the contraction of the uterus is irregular, reducing its form to that of an hour-glass, the stricture must be steadily dilated; a work of no little difficulty. In general, the separation should be left to nature; but, should hæmorrhage and convulsions occur; should the separation, notwithstanding every effort, be delayed for more than twelve hours; the most steady but determined mode of separation should be adopted.

From what has been said it will be seen, that natural labour requires but little assistance on the part of the accoucheur. During the whole of the first stage, indeed, and great part of the second, if he attempts to give assistance, he will do mischief. The dilatation of the soft parts will be effected by the natural pains, assisted by the bag of waters gradually insinuating itself through the os uteri and vagina, much more easily and more safely than by any artificial means that he can employ; of course no attempts ought to be made by him to produce artificial dilatation.

During the first and second stages, the patient may be allowed to sit, stand, kneel, or walk about, as her inclination may prompt her; if fatigued, she should repose occasionally upon the bed, or a couch; but it is not expedient, during these two stages, that she should remain very long at a time in a recumbent posture. She should be supplied, from time to time, with mild bland nourishment in moderate quantities. Tea, coffee, gruel, barley-water, milk and water, broths, &c. may safely be allowed. Beer, wine, or spirits, undiluted or diluted, should be

forbidden;

forbidden; they are very rarely required, even when the third stage of labour is nearly terminated, but in the earlier periods are almost always manifestly injurious. The attendants in the lying-in chamber frequently object to toast and water, lemonade, oranges, and other subacid fruits, &c. but, under many circumstances, such articles are highly grateful to the patient, and may be indulged in without hazard.

If the presence of the practitioner in the lying-in chamber is not absolutely required, it is better for him to be in another room; thus the patient, being less under restraint, will attend to the calls of nature, which ought not to be interrupted. It has already been observed, that during the early stages of labour a frequent urgency to make water is present. The bowels should be opened by castor-oil, or other mild aperients, early in the labour. After the labour has made much progress, the rectum, if loaded, should be emptied by clysters. Indeed, the utility of clysters, in almost every stage of labour, is so apparent, that it is to be lamented they are not more frequently employed.

The spirits of the patient should be kept up, by kind and cheerful conversation. Noisy discourse is always offensive to the parturient woman, and all conversation on melancholy or unpleasant topics should be checked. Particularly no mention should be made of unfortunate cases in midwifery. The discreet practitioner will discourage all such subjects of discourse; and will likewise endeavour to prevent calumnious reflections and insinuations against his medical brethren, whose character and reputation are too often abused in the lying-in chamber.

After the child has breathed freely and cried vigorously, a ligature may be made upon the navel-string, at the distance of two inches from the belly, and another an inch nearer to the placenta, and the funis should be divided with a pair of scissors between the two ligatures, the second ligature being intended only to prevent blood escaping from the divided cord, and soiling the bed. The London Practice of Midwifery, and Dr. Conquest, direct this operation to be performed under the bed-clothes, "it being indelicate and unnecessary to expose either mother or child." But Dr. Merriman very justly observes, that "it should never be done under the bed-clothes. A very careless accoucheur, not long since, included one of the little fingers of the child, in the ligature which he had made upon the funis, and cut off the first joint with his scissors;" and Dr. Denman used to mention in his lectures the calamitous instance of a practitioner who included the penis of a child between the blades of his scissors. These accidents, as Dr. Merriman very justly observes, could not have happened, had the part to be divided been brought into view.

We may just add, that, after dry warm linen has been put on, all impurities removed, and a little well-boiled gruel given, the woman should be left perfectly quiet, the child put by her side, and the room, with a moderate light, kept perfectly tranquil.

The process by which, under the most favourable circumstances, a child is produced or brought into the world, is with great propriety called *labour*, as it is rarely effected without considerable exertion, which has the usual effect, that of exhausting the strength and spirits of the woman. These are to be recruited in the same manner as if the waste had been occasioned by any other kind of exercise; viz. by rest, and by taking a moderate portion of plain and simple food at small intervals. In the choice of their food, the women may generally be allowed to consult their own tastes, which will rarely, at such times, incline them to spiced meats, or to drinks that are heating. It will be proper that they be kept in a recumbent posture for the first four or five days, only leaving their beds so long as may be sufficient to open and refresh them. By that time the vessels of the uterus will be so much contracted, as to remove all danger of hæmorrhage, or of an inconvenient descent of that viscus, which is sometimes

the consequence of leaving the bed too early. It is proper also, on the second, or at the latest on the third, day after being delivered, to procure stools, either by purgative medicines or by giving a clyster. By these means the fever which is usually excited by the secretion of the milk will be moderated. This, which is called the *milk-fever*, is of short duration, lasting only three or four days, and is not attended with danger. In the cure, nothing is required but to keep the body open, and to supply the patient with diluting drinks, taken warm, with the view of inducing a gentle perspiration.

The child should be put to the breasts a few hours after the completion of the labour, that it may get some mouthfuls of the thin whey-like fluid which is at first secreted. This will stimulate its bowels, and enable them to discharge the *meconium*, or black viscid excrements, with which they are always filled. It will also keep the breasts of the mother from being too much distended, the pain occasioned by which, if it is not the cause of, yet it certainly tends to increase, the milk-fever.

But there is another fever to which women are at this time subjected, which is attended with considerable danger, and which not unfrequently proves fatal. It is called, from an opinion that it is peculiar to this state, the *puerperal fever*. Its commencement is almost always marked by a strong shivering fit, which is followed by a quick pulse, head-ache, lassitude, and dejection of the spirits. It sometimes makes its attack during the labour, more frequently on the next or subsequent day. It is sometimes mistaken for the milk-fever; but, besides that its attack is earlier than that of the milk-fever, which never comes on until the third day after delivery, the secretion of the milk is in this fever interrupted, and the breasts, instead of being full and turgid, remain flaccid. From after-pains, with which it is sometimes confounded, it is to be distinguished by the quickness of the pulse, arising very soon to 120 strokes in a minute, by the head-ache, nausea, and other concomitants of fever. Tenderness of the abdomen, increasing to extreme soreness and pain, soon come on, which are increased by drawing in the breath, and are rendered almost intolerable by coughing. As there is always a high degree of inflammation of the peritoneum present in this fever, and perhaps of some of the contained viscera, we cannot be too early in taking away eight, ten, or twelve, ounces of blood from the arm, according to the strength of the patient. If the abdomen appears distended, attended with soreness and pain, six or eight leeches may be advantageously applied to that part, which may be afterwards fomented with flannels wrung out of a decoction of camomile and marsh-mallows moderately heated, and then covered with a poultice made with linseed meal. A draught with infusion of senna and some neutral salt may be given to procure two or three stools. The bowels may afterwards be kept open, and the pain relieved by giving a drachm of purging salt with two or three drops of the tincture of opium, in a sufficiency of water to dissolve the salt, every two or three hours. There are few cases that will require or bear a repetition of the bleeding. If, however, the pulse should appear to be strong, and the pain, with the difficulty in breathing, require it, that may be done on the second or third day; and a blister may be applied over the part of the abdomen which is most distressed. A blister applied to the nape of the neck, succeeds remarkably in relieving the pain of the head. There is rarely delirium, at the least not to any considerable degree, attending this fever. The patient should be nourished with light broths, panada, and such like mild food, and drink barley-water, gruel, baum-tea, toast and water, or, where preferred, table-beer. By persisting in the use of these remedies, the fever is frequently subdued by the end of six or eight days, when recourse may be had to a light decoction or infusion of bark, or some other tonic taken twice in the day to recruit the strength. Too often, however, these and all other means that have been devised

devised prove insufficient; and the patient dies, sometimes as early as the third or fourth, day; at others, not until the sixth, eighth, tenth, or twelfth, day. Puerperal fever is by no means to be considered as solely the consequence of tedious and difficult parturition; it full as often makes its attack after natural, easy, and expeditious, labours; on which account it was thought proper to delineate the history and treatment of it here, rather than under the following head.

Puerperal fever occurring in lying-in hospitals, or where a great number of sick or wounded persons are confined, at some times, that is, under certain dispositions and temperatures of the atmosphere, becomes infectious, almost every person delivered in the ward where the fever rages partaking of it in a greater or less degree. At such times, a larger proportion than usual of those who are delivered in their own houses are subjected to it. When it has made its way into a lying-in ward, the women should be removed, and separated, where it can be safely done, and no more persons admitted until the ward has been well ventilated and purified. It is recommended, that the floors be scoured, the walls and ceiling scraped and lime-washed; that the beds be taken down, and the bed-clothes, and the whole room, exposed to the vapour of burning sulphur, or fumigated with the vapour of the marine or nitric acid.

We are told by Strabo, that the men in the northern part of Spain, after the delivery of their wives, went to bed, and suffered themselves to be nursed by them. This custom still exists in some of the provinces of France bordering on Spain, where it is called making a *couvade*. The same thing is related by Diodorus Siculus of the Corsicans, and by Apollonius Rhodius of the Tibarenes, a people inhabiting the coast of the Pontus Euxinus, in Asia Minor. Marco Polo, speaking of a province which in the French translation is called Arcladam or Ardandam, says that the women left their bed as soon after delivery as possible, and that the men then took their place, where they remained for forty days, and nursed the newborn child. This custom is said to be usual also among the Japanese.

When the Carib women in Guiana are delivered, the men bind up their heads and place themselves in bed, as if seized with the pains of labour: they are then visited by their neighbours, who console them by all the means usual among these people. This custom must always be strictly observed; for, even when engaged in war, as soon as they hear of the delivery of their wives they must return home. We are told by Labat, that the father of the child, on this occasion, must observe a strict fast for thirty or forty days; but he adds, that this ceremony is practised only in regard to the first-born, otherwise, says he, the poor husbands, who have five or six wives, would be obliged to keep more fasts than the Capuchins. This account is confirmed by Fermin in his description of Surinam, but he says nothing of the strict fasting which must be observed by the father of the child. Piso, a Dutch physician, says, that the women among the Brazilian savages, when they find the pains of labour approaching, go out into the woods to cut with a shell the umbilical cord of the child, which they boil and eat; and that the husbands, in the mean time, go to bed, and use the best food they can procure, under a pretence of repairing their lost strength. We are told the same thing by captain Woods Rogers, who says that the Brazilian women, at the time of their delivery, go out alone into the woods, and when delivered wash the child; while the men place themselves in bed for twenty-four hours, where they are attended in the same manner as if really suffering from the pains of labour.

Such pains, we may suppose, are in that country not very severe, or they could not thus be made a joke of, or endured by proxy. We may therefore conclude that such labours come very legitimately under the present head of Natural Parturition. But we mean to include also certain species which are usually confined to the

next grand division. We mean those protracted labours which vary from the strictly natural chiefly in the time they take for their accomplishment, but without requiring the use of instruments; and of plural births, when they also are completed in the natural way.

PROTRACTED LABOUR may arise from various causes; as, from weakness of the mother; from the small size of the pelvis, or the large size of the child; from the membranes breaking too early, and the waters being discharged suddenly, before the os uteri is properly dilated; which last accident is sometimes occasioned by the unskilfulness of the midwife. These are cases which Mr. Hogben calls "Difficult (but natural) Labour;" and Dr. Merriman *Dystocia diutina*, or lingering labour, i. e. "Labour in which the head presents, as in Eutocia; which terminates without danger to the mother; which is effected, principally, by the natural pains; but which occupies a space of time exceeding twenty-four hours." Dr. Breen does not denominate the labour tedious, till thirty hours have elapsed from its commencement: some of Dr. Merriman's cases under this head extend from 60 to 80 hours.

1. *Feeble or irregular uterine action* will protract labour. Any circumstance debilitating the constitution, or the uterus only, will produce this condition of parts. Parturition protracted from this cause usually occupies a long time; during which, it is of the greatest moment to support the powers of the system, and husband the strength, by mild unirritating nutritious diet, and by kind and sympathizing conduct: no voluntary exertions, or forcible straining, should be permitted: the room ought to be cool and well ventilated; every encouragement to repose should be given; and uterine action must be increased, by steadily-employed friction of the abdomen and loins, with moderate pressure on the uterine region. A pint of tepid water, or gruel, with a handful of salt, as an enema, will sometimes increase the uterine energies. Opium is a very efficient remedy for this cause of protracted labour. It should be given, not in such a quantity as to paralyze the uterine energy, but in a dose of about twenty minims of the tincture, or a grain of the gum, to procure sleep, and suspend irregular or inert contractions of the uterus, so that, on their recurrence, they usually act with redoubled energy.

2. *Plethora*, as indicated by the calibre of the vessels, or by the force or frequency of the circulation, will sometimes produce this feeble and partial action of the uterus. The detraction of a few ounces of blood will accelerate the progress of labour retarded by this cause.

3. *An excessive quantity of liquor amnii*, by over-distending the uterus, will enfeeble or paralyze its contractile power. Should this cause be *very obvious*, the membranes may be punctured by a probe or quill, or scratched with the finger-nail; but the necessity for this *very rarely occurs*, and can scarcely ever be necessary until the membranes, distended with fluid, have fully performed their office of dilating the os uteri and passages to the os externum.

4. *Prematurely discharging the liquor amnii* cannot be too sedulously avoided; for among the most wearisome and trying cases of protracted labour, both to the accoucher and patient, those which follow this occurrence must be classed; consequently a practitioner should not rashly interfere in these cases, or he may expect his temerity to be attended with augmented sufferings to his patient, inasmuch as the os uteri and vagina must be slowly dilated by some hard and irregular part of the child, instead of the soft wedge formed by the membranes filled with their secretion. When this circumstance occurs, from some accidental cause in the earliest stage of labour, the process is always protracted, and the woman must submit to an incessant dribbling of the liquor amnii, without obtaining any relief from manual interference. Children under these circumstances are not unfrequently expelled dead.

5. *Rigidity of the os and cervix uteri* gives rise to a very protracted

protracted labour. With this condition of parts, if the finger be carried within the os uteri it feels smooth and unyielding; and, whenever this sensation is communicated to the finger on examination, considerable time will elapse before the mouth of the womb dilates; and, if assistance be not given, after suffering through days and nights, the os uteri will remain close, and thick, and hard.

The management of these cases requires considerable discretion; and, although time will usually terminate them, yet the dilatation may be materially accelerated by the abstraction of blood in quantity to be regulated by the powers of the woman. This being done, the bowels should be freely opened by an aperient exhibited by the mouth, and by a large emollient clyster. After these measures have been adopted, a few ounces of tepid water or gruel, with from one to two drachms of tincture of opium, should be thrown into the rectum; or the os uteri may have gently rubbed into it, about half a drachm of the extract of belladonna. By these means, relaxation is often speedily secured. In addition, the patient's mind may be amused by sitting over steam; by having large emollient enemata frequently exhibited; and by fomentations to the uterine region.

6. *Malposition of the uterus* is very embarrassing to those who have not met with the occurrence. If the os uteri be thrown backwards against the promontory of the sacrum, the labour is generally protracted. It principally happens to women with capacious pelves, and is not easily detected on the first examination. Time will rectify this displacement, and the woman who is the subject of it should pass through parturition lying on her back. If the os uteri be forced forwards against the symphysis pubis, or tilted over it with the fundus backwards, the case will probably prove to be *retroversion of the uterus*, continuing to the full period of gestation. This is a particularly trying case, in which nothing but time and patience can effect any thing.

7. *Small size of the pelvis, or large size of the fœtus.*—The treatment arising from either of these causes must be nearly the same. Much must necessarily be trusted to time. If care be taken to avoid all causes of fever and inflammation, and to prevent the patient from exhausting her strength by unavailing strainings, the labour may be suffered to proceed for very many hours without danger; and at length the head of the fœtus may be squeezed through the pelvis, very much elongated and compressed: yet the child may be born living, and the mother may have a favourable recovery.

The most frequent obstacle to labour is an enlargement of the head from hydrocephalus; but it has been estimated, that even this does not occur oftener than once in nine hundred labours. Sometimes, in such cases, the head is sufficiently compressible to be expelled undiminished by the pains. An hydrocephalic fœtus has passed entire, the circumference of whose head was seventeen inches; another passed alive, and lived nearly an hour, whose head measured in circumference twenty-two inches; both the above labours were long and painful.

But, when the child is really *monstrous*, from the redundancy of some large parts, as from two heads or two bodies, it is sufficiently obvious that, if the mother be at the full term of gestation, the obstacles to delivery will often be insurmountable by the natural powers. Fortunately, however, in by far the greatest number of cases of monsters of that kind, the action of the uterus is excited before the ordinary period. But we shall here introduce a recent case, where a child with two heads was born at the full time, and of the full size, by the process of natural but protracted labour. The account is from Mr. Jackson, a member of the London Royal College of Surgeons, residing at Bolton le Moors, in Lancashire.

Mary Honeyford, the mother of the child to be de-

scribed, is about twenty years of age, of a sanguineous temperament, florid complexion, and rather below the middle stature; she has enjoyed nearly uninterrupted good health from infancy. In the forenoon of the 10th of August, 1820, I was desired to visit her, and take with me the midwifery-instruments. I learnt from the messenger, that she had been in labour upwards of two days, and that midwives had been with her most of the time. For the last eighteen hours, one of them had been constantly assisting her, but was unable to accomplish her delivery: the pains were very weak, and her strength nearly exhausted. When I arrived at the house, I was informed by the midwife that the waters had been drained off twenty or twenty-four hours; the head had been in the situation it now occupied for ten or twelve hours; and, to use her own expression, the head had descended slowly to the birth, and then it had stuck on the spare bone. The patient's pulse was 135, and weak. The parturient paroxysms occurred every three minutes, but were inefficient. Anxiety was depicted in her countenance, and a general restlessness pervaded her; as is frequently, if not always, witnessed in tedious painful labours.

On examination *per vaginam*, I found the os frontis presenting, the integuments of which were tumefied, from the time it had remained in the pelvis, and the attempts the midwife had made to assist her. The face was towards the pubis, or rather towards the right groin, and the soft parts of the mother quite relaxed: thus, reasoning from my experience in similar presentations, I believed there could be no apparent obstacle to a speedy and favourable termination. I ordered her a little wine and water, and calmed her mind, by flattering her with a speedy release from her suffering and anxious situation. As the parturient energies were nearly exhausted, I was persuaded it was not safe to trust any longer to nature, and that artificial aid was necessary to assist the natural efforts to promote her delivery: I therefore assisted her in the following manner. I introduced two fingers under the os pubis of the mother, where I could reach the mouth of the child, by which I could command considerable force, and assist the expulsive efforts of the uterus: thus, by extracting at each pain, in less than half an hour the face emerged from under the pubis, and the head was nearly half protruded through the os externum. Finding that something impeded the complete expulsion of the head, though I used considerable extracting force, I passed two fingers by the head of the child to ascertain the obstruction, and where it existed, when they came in contact with a firm tumor, descending into the cavity of the pelvis, closely joined in contact with the neck of the first head. On examining it as particularly as the confined state of the parts would permit, I was convinced it was the head of a child, from the hair on the scalp and the feel of a suture. I imagined it a case of twins, in which the head of the second child, by some partial contraction of the uterus, had been forced down, or somehow got entangled before the shoulder of the first.

The woman continued to have regular, though very inefficient, pains, at each of which I used such extracting force as I thought was compatible with the safety of the mother and child: I easily ascertained it was living, by the pulsation of the temporal arteries. After some time I found I was gaining a little ground, and that the heads retained their relative situation; that is, as one was further protruded, the other descended lower towards the os externum. Having more space for examining the presenting part of the second head, I satisfied myself, from the futures and posterior fontanel, that it was the occiput. I thus continued extracting and guarding the perineum for about an hour, when the second head was protruded; immediately after which followed a sharp expulsive pain, when the body of a living male child with two heads was brought to view.

The

The child appeared lively. I lost no time in tying the umbilical cord, which was no thicker than ordinary, that I might remove it, to examine it more particularly and make further observations. Having taken it into an adjoining room, I found it had all the powers of voluntary motion as perfect as a natural fœtus: the eyes of each head were opened and closed occasionally; and the muscles of each face contracted, as if to squall, and one of them made a considerable noise, which was the first head protruded. On a closer inspection, I found the other head never breathed, although it was equally lively with the first. It continued gradually to weaken for about forty minutes, when it ceased to breathe. For a considerable time after respiration had ceased, I could feel the heart palpitating, with a tremulous motion in the epigastric region.

Mr. Bailey, of Blackburn, a respectable surgeon and good anatomist, assisted in examining the child, about twenty-four hours after its death; when we made the following observations. The heads were well formed; the bones of which were as perfectly ossified, as well as those of the limbs, as is found in the majority of infants. The neck of the left head appeared somewhat longer than the other; but I attributed that to the extending force I used in the extraction; and the other would be forced in an opposite direction upon the breast, by the resistance given from the soft parts of the mother. The weight of the child was 8 pounds 15 ounces and 6 drachms avoirdupoise. The measurement of the left and larger head, from the sinus frontalis to the tubercle on the os occipitis, $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches; round the head, 13 inches, at the same relative points. The smaller head measuring $7\frac{3}{4}$ inches, and $12\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The circumference of the chest immediately below the arms, 14 inches. The sternum was broader than usual, and the ribs appeared to make a greater curve than is generally observed. The claviculæ were three; two in their natural situations; and the third, which was equally as large as the others, was attached to the top of the sternum, and proceeded backwards between the two necks; where there was also a third scapula, forming a protuberance, or shoulder. On examining the back, there felt as if there were three vertebral columns: the middle one, on dissection, was found to be the cartilages of ribs, each about an inch in length, coming from the two spines, which joined at obtuse angles, and gave to the touch externally the feel of spinous processes.

On opening the thorax, the first thing that attracted our attention was the situation of the heart in its pericardium: it was situated between the two lungs, and about as much inclined to the right side as in a natural case it is to the left. The lungs were large, having two tracheæ, each terminating separately; the one in the right, the other in the left, lung. Each lung had three lobes. Each head had a distinct œsophagus, which passed separately through the diaphragm. The appearance of the lungs confirmed the observation I before made, that only the left head had breathed; the right lung having the appearance of liver, the colour of which, on being inflated, was instantly changed to that peculiar pulmonary mottled hue which characterizes this organ after respiration. On opening the pericardium, the heart was found to be very large. The aorta, which was also very large, arose from the left ventricle; as also did the pulmonary artery to the left lung. The contents of the abdomen appeared natural: the liver was large, but had nothing peculiar in its appearance. On turning back the liver, we found two stomachs: the one to the left head occupied the natural situation, the other was situated under the right lobe of the liver. Each stomach had its separate duodenum, the right one about half an inch, and the left one about an inch and half in length; when they united, forming one common duodenum. There were two gall-bladders, each having a separate duct, which terminated at the junction of the duodena. The

spleen, pancreas, and kidneys, were natural; as also were the intestines; the colon and rectum were distended with meconium. The contents of the pelvis were similar to those of a single child. On examining the vertebral columns, we found two, perfect and entire, but which gradually approximated as they approached the sacrum; which was single, but much broader than natural. Cases similar to the present very rarely occur: few so singular are on record; and, of those related, but a small share are well authenticated, or else, as before observed, they were expelled before the full time of utero-gestation.

With respect to the mother, I may briefly state, that, whilst I was examining the child immediately after its birth in an adjoining room, one of the midwives, by officiously attempting to bring away the placenta, broke the umbilical cord; so that I was obliged to introduce my hand into the uterus, to detach and bring it away. Notwithstanding this circumstance, added to the tedious and painful parturition, she recovered as well as after an ordinary labour: no unpleasant symptoms supervened, except that the prostration of strength required a longer time to be re-established.

8. *The death of the fœtus* is not necessarily a cause of lingering labour. The affection of the mother, of whatever nature it might be, which occasioned the death of the child, may possibly retard the labour; otherwise it will terminate favourably, unless the size of the fœtus is increased by putrefaction; and from this cause very troublesome and dangerous labours have sometimes occurred. When a child, after death, becomes putrid, and thence enormously swelled by the included and rarefied air, the birth will be impeded; but the difficulty will arise not from the death of the child, but from its increased bulk.

9. *Shortness of the navel-string* will seldom be a cause of lingering labour, till the head is about to pass through the external parts; it may then be an impediment to the birth by occasioning the head to be retracted after each pain. We are not, however, always to conclude that the retraction of the head is produced by shortness of the funis; for the resiliency of the parts, especially in first labours, occasions a greater or less degree of retraction of the head. The delay in the labour, which shortness of the funis occasions, will generally be overcome by the unaided powers of Nature. Changing the position of the woman sometimes facilitates the birth.

It has been recommended, after the head is born, if the birth of the shoulders is prevented by the navel-string being twisted round the neck of the child, to introduce a pair of scissors, divide it, and thus set the parts at liberty. This operation may sometimes be expedient; great care being taken to guard against doing mischief; but it is proper to remark, that Dr. Denman relates a case of the death of the infant from dividing the funis under these circumstances.

Besides the causes of difficult parturition above enumerated, it sometimes happens, that incautious practitioners occasion lingering labours by mismanaging the different stages, and thus interrupting the natural progress of the labour; and this may be effected in various ways, particularly, by the injurious practice of giving cordials and strong drinks, under a false idea of supporting the patient's strength; by keeping the room too hot and close; by allowing too much company, who fatigue the patient, by their noise and talking, or by urging the woman to exert herself in bearing-down before the parts are well dilated. "But this must the mydwyfe above all thynges take hede of, that she compell not the woman to labor before the byrth come forwarde and shewe itselfe. For before that tyme all labor is in vayne, labor as muche as ye lyst. And in this case many tymes it cometh to passe, that the partie hath labored so sore before the tyme, that when she shoulde labor in dede, her myght and strength is spent before in vaine, so that she is not nowe able to helpe herselfe; and that is a perylous case."

These cautions of honest Richard Jonas in 1540, are quite applicable to 1820.

Ergot of rye, or *spurred rye* as it is called, has been strongly recommended by some eminent accoucheurs in America, as having a very decided effect in exciting and strengthening the action of the uterus during protracted labour; and, according to Mr. Oliver Prescott, of the Massachusetts Medical Society, it is endued with a singular and valuable property, denied to every other medicine with which we are acquainted—that of operating exclusively upon the uterus.

This production is generated by a peculiar *disease* which occasionally affects the grains of rye; and is one of the four diseases of plants enumerated by Linnæus, and by him denominated *clavus*. The Americans term this production *Secale cornutum*, or horned rye. This disease very often attacks the rye in France; and, in such seasons as are very moist, it is occasionally seen in Great Britain and other parts of Europe. The rye in America also is so liable to the same disease, that in the new settlements there is always more or less of it to be found; but it is more rarely to be discovered on fields that have been kept in a state of constant cultivation for a considerable number of years.

The earliest account of this diseased rye is probably that of M. Dodart, in 1676; after which it does not seem to have been noticed till the abbé Tessier read a memoir upon it before the Royal Medical Society at Paris in 1776. This diseased grain, called *ergot*, is found in the ear of the rye in greater or less quantity, according to the season, and its situation. Its form is ordinarily crooked and long; it projects much from the glume; is larger in the middle than at the extremities, which are sometimes blunt, and sometimes pointed. It is seldom round in its whole length, there being generally three angles, and certain longitudinal lines extending from one end to the other. In many grains, particularly the largest, there are small cavities, supposed by some to be occasioned by insects, by others by the fun. Its external colour is violet of different degrees of intensity, which encloses a dull white substance of a firm consistence, from which the external coat does not separate itself even after long boiling. A grain of ergot breaks short, like a dry almond, and has nothing disagreeable either in its odour or taste; the grains are of different size, and vary in their length. Some are less than the grains of rye themselves, while others are eighteen or nineteen lines in length, and two or three in thickness; but the length is more usually ten or twelve lines. Sometimes they are short, and at the same time large; but these are not of an ordinary form. When the ergot is large, there are generally but few upon an ear, and the grains of rye, on the same ear, are fine and healthy, and the whole plant vigorous; on the contrary, when the grains of ergot are small, there are many on an ear, and the stalk is less strong and thrifty. There are commonly found four or five of these grains upon one ear, frequently ten or twelve, and sometimes even twenty. The grains of rye in those ears which have many ergots are never good, but are shrunk, and covered at their superior extremity with a black powder. This production, if exposed to the air, dries readily, and becomes less in size, and very light. A measure of it, that holds fourteen pounds of rye, will weigh but nine pounds. It is occasionally found on *wheat*; but on the ears of this grain it is always short, though thick and well-nourished; the quantity, however, produced by this plant is very inconsiderable. These grains, if planted, will not vegetate, the germ being destroyed. Winter and spring rye are, as far as has been observed, equally liable to this disease.

The soil and climate about Orleans are so peculiarly adapted to the growth of this substance, that it is said to produce more of it than all France besides; for, in some years, not less than one-fourth of all the grain raised in that province is ergoted. In this district and

its vicinity, there has, at different periods, prevailed among the peasants, a very malignant and mortal disease, which is characterized by a *dry gangrene* in some one of the extremities, sometimes in all of them, which has been generally ascribed to their living upon bread made of the ergoted rye. It has also been accused of causing the spotted fever. See London Med. and Phys. Journal, vol. xxxvi. p. 474.

In France, many experiments have been made on animals, to prove its malignant effects; and numerous communications have been published, showing its noxious properties. But it had never been considered, by any of those writers, as capable of subserving any medicinal or other useful purpose.

The first information the public received, from a source entitled to credence, that this production was, in reality, endued with such an unexampled property, was through the medium of the New-York Medical Repository, vol. ii. by a letter from Dr. J. Stearns to Dr. Akerly. In this communication Dr. Stearns designates it by the appellation of *pulsis parturiens*. Very soon after this publication, the exhibition of it began to prevail in America. Dr. Bigelow says, "It is now ascertained, by the experience of a number of years, that the spurred rye given to parturient women has an unequivocal effect in increasing the force of the uterine pains and hastening the delivery of the child. This effect it sometimes fails to produce; but its failures are not more frequent than those to which almost any other article in the materia medica is liable. When given prematurely, or under improper circumstances, it has proved injurious to the mother, and still more frequently to the offspring. When administered at too early a stage, or while considerable obstacles to delivery exist, it creates unnecessary suffering to the mother, and endangers the child's life. The principal circumstances that contraindicate its use, are—earliness of the stage, rigidity of the soft parts, any unfavourable conformation, or any presentation that requires changing."

This, and some other accounts of the virtues of the ergot of rye, made Dr. Merriman anxious to procure some for the purpose of experiment; but, though he enquired for it, of many corn-dealers, physical-herb-men, &c. he never had the good fortune to get any, till Mr. Henry Davies, of Condit-freet, surgeon and lecturer on midwifery, gave him some, which he had received from Dr. Bibby, of New York, who sent at the same time a letter, from which the following are extracts. "The *ergot*, or spurred rye, has been much used in different parts of America and France, in cases of protracted labour, from a want of uterine action. It is given in infusion. A drachm, infused in three or four ounces of boiling water for ten or fifteen minutes, is the usual dose. Should pain not come on in half an hour, it may be repeated. The period for its exhibition is when the head of the fœtus has passed the brim of the pelvis, and would protrude the external part during a pain. The infusion is given at this period, with the happiest effects: at any previous period, by increasing uterine action, the life of the child will be almost certainly sacrificed." A most extraordinary circumstance also is noted, that where the fœtus has been some time dead, and putrefaction to any extent taken place, the remedy is altogether inert. In no case where it has been used has hemorrhage occurred; and in natural labour, when hemorrhage does occur, it has been given with great advantage.

A few cases, some occurring in his own practice, and others communicated by friends, have been added by Dr. Merriman; and, upon the whole, they are certainly in favour of the exhibition of this most active and powerful remedy. But it has been suggested by a writer in the New-England Journal of Medicine and Surgery, that the death of the infant is a more frequent occurrence, in cases in which the ergot has been employed, than where
its

its agency has not been used; and Dr. Merriman inclines to the same opinion. If this indeed be the case, it forms at once an insuperable objection to its use, except in cases where its safety is well defined; and the subject certainly demands deliberate attention and serious inquiry. But, in a matter of such importance, we ought not to be governed by conjecture; but should adopt or reject it, as its beneficial or destructive operation is tested by experiment. "My own experience (says Mr. Prescott) has been such, as to persuade me that the above suggestion is unfounded. It is true, that in 22 cases of first labour, in which this medicine had any effect, I lost four children; and in 35, where it was given to women who had been previously delivered, I have lost one. But all these deaths were attended with such circumstances as fully to exculpate the ergot from any agency in the event. And, when it is recollected, that this medicine is not used except in cases that are long protracted, or are likely to prove tedious and troublesome, it will not be thought, I conclude, that this unfortunate event happened more frequently, or in greater proportion to the whole number of cases, than might reasonably have been expected, had this medicine not been prescribed."

The uniform operation of the ergot to restrain uterine hemorrhage, has been noticed by other physicians. It has in consequence frequently been prescribed, a little previous to the birth of the child, or immediately after, to patients that have been accustomed to flood immoderately at such times, and it has always proved an effectual preventive. This singular property of the ergot, to diminish the enlarged cavity of the uterus, is never more strikingly exemplified, than when its agency is employed to restrain those floodings which sometimes appear in the early months of pregnancy, when the action of gestation has ceased, and abortion must follow. In such cases it speedily excites in the uterus such energetic action, that its contents are soon expelled, and the hemorrhage ceases.

In order to determine what operation it might have on a healthy male subject, the decoction of one drachm has been taken at a dose, but it produced neither nausea nor other perceptible effect. After a few days, the same person took a like quantity, which proved equally inert; neither did the larger quantity of two drachms, at a few doses, but all within the space of two hours, occasion nausea, vomiting, or pain in the female to whom it was prescribed, for deficient catamenia. Its operative powers, therefore, appear wholly confined to the uterine fibres, when lengthened from an enlargement of that viscus. In such case it speedily excites in them strong contractile action; and so long as the stimulating effect of the medicine lasts, this action is unceasing. The uterus is thus made to compress closely upon any substance whatever within its cavity; and this resistance to its further collapsing will cause violent pain in that organ; but, if it find no such resistance, the contractile action progresses without any uneasy sensations. The healthy unimpregnated uterus, having nothing within its cavity, will therefore not be affected by the ergot; neither is it calculated to restrain menorrhagia, proceeding from increased arterial action; as the size of the uterus, in such cases, is nearly at its minimum.

Until we clearly understand the reason why some medicines possess a greater affinity to one part of the system, or to one organ, than to another, it will be difficult to explain the *modus operandi* of the ergot. It is but a few years since it first attracted the notice of physicians, as being subservient to any useful purpose in medicine. Like all other active and valuable medicines, when first made known to the public, it requires a long series of judicious and attentive experiments, fully to develop its character, its qualities, and the precise manner in which it may affect different parts of the human system. Like them, while its use is beneficial, its abuse is destructive. A cautious direction of its powers cannot, therefore, be too strongly recommended. If properly administered, it

must be esteemed an important and valuable acquisition to our *materia medica*, and is unquestionably destined to hold a high rank among the means which Nature has provided for relieving the sufferings of her children.

PLURAL BIRTHS.—It is requisite, after the first child is born, (the funis being properly tied and divided to prevent bleeding,) and before any effort has been made to draw out the placenta, that the accoucheur should lay his hand on the abdomen of the mother, to ascertain whether there be another child left in the womb; and, when it so happens, the abdomen will feel nearly as large as before the first child was born.

All the signs by which the existence of more than one child in utero can be ascertained, previous to the actual commencement of labour, are fallacious; and, in general, it is not till after the birth of one child that it can be determined that another remains in the womb; and, unless under very particular circumstances, it is of no importance. The circumstances alluded to are where different parts of both children are forced into the passage at the same time. Of this a very remarkable case is recorded in the book of Genesis, chap. xxxviii. ver. 27.

When the womb appears to remain bulky and hard after the birth of one child, there is reason to suppose that it contains a second. But, if there be any doubt on the subject, the practitioner has it in his power to ascertain the point by internal examination: two fingers of the left hand are to be carried into the uterus guided by the funis; and, if its insertion into the placenta be felt, it is hardly possible for a second child to escape detection, taking care not to be misled by a distended bladder, enlarged ovary, or by the membranes containing coagula. If, therefore, the accoucheur still remains in doubt, he had better pass his whole hand into the vagina: but it will generally be observed, that, when there is no second child in the uterus, the further the fingers are carried up within the passages, the more contracted do they feel, whereas, if there be a second child, the more open they are found.

Each of the twins is commonly smaller than a single child: this often occasions the birth to be rapid, and gives to the practitioner the first idea that he is attending a case of twins. At other times, though it is evident to the touch that the child is small, and that there is plenty of room for it to pass, yet the pains, though frequent, do not propel it: hence the accoucheur is led to suspect that the uterine action is impeded or suspended by another child occupying the fundus uteri.

When it is ascertained that another infant remains, the woman's abdomen should be immediately compressed by means of a roller, in order to prevent faintness from the sudden relaxation of the parietes abdominis; and the portion of the navel-string remaining attached to the after-birth of the first-born should be carefully secured.

Much diversity of opinion has prevailed among practitioners of midwifery, respecting the best method of managing twin-cases: but this difference exists only with regard to the second labour; for the first requires to be conducted precisely as if it were a single child. Thus, if the foetus presents naturally, the case is to be left to nature; if it presents preternaturally, or if any other circumstances occur, constituting difficult labour, it will require the kind of management directed in the various sections of Preternatural Labour. Should, however, the case be of such a kind as makes turning necessary, the operator must take care not to mistake the parts of the two children, lest he bring down a limb of each, and add greatly to the embarrassment of the case.

It is very well known that repeated instances have happened where the second child has been retained many hours or days after the birth of the first, and no mischief, nor danger, nor much of inconvenience, has followed. In the London Medical Journal for April 1811, a case of twins is related, in which the second child was retained for fourteen days after the birth of the first; and the author

thor of that communication states, that another case had come to his knowledge, in which six weeks had elapsed between the births of the twins. Mrs. Dixon, of Middleton Place, was delivered, on the 27th of October, 1806, of a daughter, and on the 8th of December of a son. March 4, 1814, the wife of Mr. James Pickworth, grazier, of Sempringham, Lincolnshire, was delivered of two boys; after which she was so much composed, that she got up the next day, and remained in that state till the 6th, when she was delivered of two more boys. *Gent. Mag.* March 1814. From such cases as these, some have concluded, rather hastily, that the birth of the second child may always be safely trusted to nature, and that the interference of art is very seldom, if ever, necessary.

On the other hand, very dangerous, and not unfrequently fatal, consequences, having occurred from allowing the second child to be long retained after the first is born, many have argued, that it is always proper to accelerate by art the birth of the second child.

Others, again, steer a middle course, and teach us to wait a moderate or reasonable time, before we interfere by art, to effect the second delivery; and it seems to be the opinion of some authors of great reputation and judgment that about *four hours* is the proper time to wait.

It will hardly be denied, that some time ought to be allowed to recruit the woman's strength, and to give an opportunity for the second labour to come on spontaneously; but there will often be a difficulty in determining what space of time is to be considered as *reasonable*. There are many cases, in which it would be unadvisable to wait so long as four hours, before the birth of the second child is artificially excited; for, even when the first labour has been favourable, and the second child is in a proper position, it may be doubted whether any advantage is likely to accrue from letting it remain four hours before an attempt is made to facilitate the delivery. In general, indeed, under these favourable circumstances, the secondary pains come on shortly after the first birth, and expel the child; but, should this not happen, it may be prudent to excite them, by rupturing the membranes, in a much shorter space of time than four hours. "It has seemed to me, (says Dr. Merriman,) upon various occasions, when so long a period as this has been permitted to elapse, that the pains of the second labour have been more severe than they would have been had the action of the uterus been earlier excited. I should be very unwilling (the doctor adds) to appear the advocate of precipitation, in any part of the practice of midwifery; but, having known more than one instance of mischief arising from the delay of bringing the second twin into the world, I think myself justifiable in recommending an opposite mode of conduct, though somewhat different from that which other practical accoucheurs have taught.

"The following is an outline of the practice, which I have been in the habit of adopting. 1. When both the children present naturally, and the labour of the first terminates without artificial assistance, and without much fatigue to the patient, I wait for the spontaneous occurrence of the secondary pains; but, should these not come on soon, I rupture the membranes; and then commonly find, that the second child passes with comparative ease through the pelvis, the parts having already undergone sufficient dilatation. 2. If the first labour has been natural, and the second child presents in a wrong direction, I have deemed it generally expedient, with very little delay, to extract it by the feet. 3. If the first labour has been preternatural, or very difficult, or dangerous, this has always seemed to me an additional reason for terminating the second as expeditiously as circumstances will admit." In every case, the extraction of the placenta is to be conducted with great care; for it is to be noted, that every fetus has its separate placenta, though they are generally united at the edges.

It is an established rule, not to acquaint the mother that

there are twins, till both are born; for it is known that sudden emotions of the mind have been productive of ill consequences during labour, and some mischief or inconvenience might ensue from the apprehension with which the patient might contemplate the second labour. But, though it is proper to conceal this circumstance from the mother, if possible, yet it is right to acquaint the husband, or some friend of the patient, of the real nature of the case, as soon as it is certainly known to the practitioner.

The rules which are applicable to twin-cases, will equally apply to cases where there are three or more children. It very commonly happens, that twin-labours occur before the full term of nine months.

There seems to be a very extraordinary variety in the averages of twin and triplet births, in different countries, and under different circumstances. Thus the average of twin births has been stated,

By Dr. Clarke, at the Dublin Lying-in Hospital as 1 in 56½	
By Dr. Bland, at the Westminster Dispensary	80
By Prof. Boer, in the Vienna Lying-in Hospital	80
By Dr. Denman, at the British Hospital	91
By Dr. Denman, at the Middlesex Hospital	93
By Mr. Burns, in his own practice	95
By Mad. Boivin, at the Hôpital de la Maternité	132
By M. Tenon, surgeon to the Salpêtrière at Paris	96

Respecting triplets, the averages are still more various: many accoucheurs, of very extensive practice, have passed through a long life, without once witnessing three children at a birth. Dr. Bland kept a very exact register of 1897 women delivered at the expense of the Westminster General Dispensary, among which there was one case of triplets; while Dr. Merriman held the office of physician-accoucher to that charity, about 3500 women were delivered; among whom he was twice called to triplet-labours. In the first 18,300 women delivered at the British Lying-in Hospital, not a single instance of triplets had occurred; but there were three such cases among 20,357 women delivered at the Hôpital de la Maternité, at Paris, and 19 among 59,354 women at the Dublin Lying-in Hospital; or 1 in 3124.

The averages of four children at a birth can scarcely be ascertained, yet several such instances are known to have happened in this island.—In the year 1674, there was published in London a 4to. pamphlet, intitled, "The Fruitful Wonder; or a strange Relation, from Kingston-upon-Thames, of a Woman who, on Thursday and Friday, the 5th and 6th days of this instant March, 1673-4, was delivered of 4 children at one birth, viz. 3 sons and 1 daughter, all born alive, lusty children, and perfect in every part, which lived twenty-four hours, and then died, all much about the same time; with several other Examples of numerous Births, from credible Historians, with the Physical and Astrological Reasons for the same. By J. P. Student in Physic."—Dr. Plott, in his History of Staffordshire, mentions Eleanor, the wife of Henry Diven, of Watlington, who was delivered of 4 children at a birth in the year 1675.—Sir Robert Sibbald, in his *Scotia Illustrata*, after mentioning a case of three born at once, adds, "Imo in variis regni locis repertæ sunt mulieres quæ quatuor fetus uno partu ediderunt;" but makes no mention of more.—In the Gentleman's Magazine, which is reckoned a pretty authentic record of the times, we have the following accounts.—Ann Boynton, of Hensbridge, in Somersetshire, was this day, June 1, 1736, delivered of three daughters and one son; one of the daughters died, the rest are likely to live. The mother has been married but four years, and has had twice twins before, which completes the number of eight children at three births.—October 3, 1743, at Rate, in Berkshire, Joan Galloway was delivered of two boys and two girls, three of whom were alive.—In January 1746, the wife of Plumer, a labouring man, at Mill-Wimley, near Hitchin, Hertfordshire, was delivered of three

three living boys, and a dead one.—August 22, 1746, the wife of Williams, of Coventry-street, Piccadilly, was delivered of two boys and two girls, all likely to live.—June 1752, a woman in the parish of Tillicultrie, near Stirling, in Scotland, was delivered of four children, which were all immediately baptized, and all died at the same time next morning.—In September 1757, a poor woman, of Burton Ferry, Glamorganshire, was delivered of three boys and one girl.—Dr. Hamilton writes, that not many years ago a woman was delivered of four children, at Pennycuick, the seat of Sir John Clark, bart. near Edinburgh, when she was advanced to the middle of her last month of pregnancy, and that some of these children lived two or three years. He further says, that he attended a woman at Edinburgh, who, in the seventh month of her pregnancy, after a journey of thirty miles, was suddenly delivered of four children, all perfect and well grown for the time, of which one was born dead, and three alive; but those three died next day. He further adds, that these are the only cases of quadruplets, or any larger number, he had ever heard of, as born in Scotland in his memory.

Though cases of five children born at once are still much more uncommon, and though Haller's assertion of their not happening above once in a million of births may be reckoned a very moderate calculation, yet we are not altogether without such instances in this country. From the *Gent. Mag.* we learn that, on the 5th of October, 1736, a woman at a milk-cellar in the Strand was delivered of three boys and two girls at one birth; and that, in March 1739, at Wells in Somersetshire, a woman was delivered of four sons and one daughter, all alive, all christened, and all then seemingly likely to live.—In the *Commercium Literarium Norimbergense* for the year 1731, we have two such cases; one hapening in Upper Saxony, the other near Prague in Bohemia; in each of which five children were born and christened, all of whom were arrived to that equal degree of maturity which rendered it probable they were all conceived about the same time.—The following more recent case was communicated by Mr. Hull, the accoucher, at Blackburne in Lancashire, to Dr. Blane, and by him to Dr. Garthshore, who laid it before the Royal Society; and it was printed in the *Phil. Transf.* for 1787. p. 344.

"Margaret Waddington, aged twenty-one, a poor woman of the township of Lower Darwin, near Blackburn in Lancashire, formerly delivered of one child at the full term of pregnancy, conceived a second time about the beginning of December 1785, and from that period became affected with the usual symptoms that attend breeding. At the end of the first month, she became lame, complained of considerable pains in her loins, and the enlargement of her body was so remarkably rapid, that she was then judged by her neighbours to be almost half-gone with child. When the third month was completed, she thought herself fully as large as she had formerly been in her ninth month; and to her former symptoms of nausea, vomiting, lameness, and pain of the loins, she had now added a distressing shortness of breath. She continued to increase so rapidly in size, that she thought she could perceive herself growing larger every day, and was under the frequent necessity of widening her clothes. When she reckoned herself eighteen weeks gone, she first perceived somewhat indistinctly the motion of a child. By the 20th of April, 1786, all her complaints were become much more distressing; she had much tension and pain over all the abdomen, her vomiting was incessant, and she could not make water but with the utmost difficulty. The symptoms being palliated by medical assistance, she advanced in her pregnancy to Monday the 24th of April, when, being supposed to have arrived at the twentieth week, she was seized with labour-pains. These continued gradually to increase till the next day, about two in the afternoon; at which time Mr. Hull was sent for, and she was soon delivered of a

small, dead, but not putrid, female child. The pains continuing, this was soon followed by a second less child; to this very soon succeeded a third, larger than the first, which was alive; to these a fourth soon followed, somewhat larger than the first, and very putrid; last of all, there soon succeeded a fifth child, larger than any of the former, and born alive. These five children were all females; two were born alive; and the whole operation was performed in the space of 50 minutes; as the first child made its appearance at two in the afternoon, and the last at ten minutes before three. Each child presented naturally, was preceded by a separate burst of water, and was delivered by the natural pains only. In a short time after the birth of the last, the placenta was expelled by nature without any hæmorrhage, was uncommonly large, and in some places beginning to be putrid. It consisted of one uniform continued cake, and was not divided into distinct placentulæ, the lobulated appearance being nearly equal all over. Each funis was contained in a separate cell, within which each child had been lodged; and it was easy to perceive, by the state of the funis, and that part of the placenta to which it adhered, in which sex the dead, and in which the living, children had been contained. The two living children having survived their birth but a short time, Mr. H. was allowed to carry them home: he preserved the whole five in spirits, and they were exhibited to the R. S. when this paper was read, and were afterwards deposited in the Museum of Mr. John Hunter," which is now in Surgeons' Hall in Lincoln's Inn Square.

"The mother, in spite of the crowds with which her chamber was continually filled, continued to recover, and was able to be out of bed on the 27th and 28th, her third and fourth days; but, finding herself then weak, kept her bed till the 11th of May, when she went out of doors, and on the 21st walked to Blackburn, two miles distant. This was the twenty-seventh day from her delivery; she having entirely recovered her strength without any accident."

Though the females of the human species produce most commonly but one child at a birth; and though their formation with only two breasts, and one nipple to each, renders it probable they were not originally intended to produce in general more than two; yet, from what we know of the womb and its appendages, and what from the latest experiments we are led to conjecture as to the mode of conception, we cannot presume a priori to set limits to the fertility of nature, nor determine decisively what number of fœtuses may be conceived and nourished to a certain period in the human uterus at the same time. The present singular and well-attested case assures us, that five have certainly been born at once; and we have no title absolutely to reject all the testimonies of even more numerous births, or to say that, in some rare instances, this number has never been exceeded. Dr. Osborn is said to have once witnessed an expulsion of six abortive ova; and Borellus asserts, that about three years before he published his second Century of Observations, the wife of a nobleman in Languedoc was delivered of eight at a birth! But Borellus, it must be acknowledged, tells many marvellous stories. We will therefore not pursue the subject any farther, lest we should at length reach the history of the lady who had as many children as there were days in the year, without being able to inform our readers how many days there were (at that time) in the year.

We need hardly mention, that a greater number of twin-children, on an average, die during infancy than of single children; and this remark applies still more strongly to triplets, quadruplets, &c. for it is very seldom they are all born living; or, at least, they survive but a short time.

There are instances, however, of triplets living to mature age.—Three brothers at the same birth, by the name of John, Michael, and William, Dunn, aged 30

years, are now (1813) living in London. Three sisters, Anne, Susan, and Catharine, Howel, were born together at Malwyd in Merionethshire: at the age of fifteen years, in 1796, they were all three very beautiful, and so alike that the slightest difference could not be perceived. *Obstetric Studies*, p. 50.—Mary Baker, wife of Robert Baker, carrier, at Streatham, in the county of Surrey, was delivered on the 11th of December, 1796, of three children, one boy and two girls; the children all thrived well, have all grown up hale and strong, and are all now living, having on Thursday Dec. 11, 1817, completed their twenty-first year. The father and mother are also alive, and in the enjoyment of good health. *Morning Chronicle*, Dec. 13, 1817.

A most extraordinary instance of human fecundity is related in the *Menagiana*, tom. i. p. 332; which, if it does not convince, may at least amuse; it is the abbé himself who speaks. "Mr. D—— told me, the day before yesterday, that the wife of a petty shopkeeper, in his neighbourhood, of the name of Blunet, had borne twenty-one children in seven successive child-bearings. That these triplet-children had not only been baptized, but had lived, some several days, others several months, and that twelve of the most robust were still alive, who were all grown up, and in good health. He added, that as doubts might be entertained whether the husband or the wife contributed the most to produce this kind of prodigy, the man made a further experiment, by seducing a servant girl who lived with them. At the end of nine months, the likewise was delivered of three male children, who, notwithstanding their mother's youth and delicateness, lived a fortnight or three weeks."

M. Menage adds, that probably the whole ancient world could not produce another example of a fecundity so prodigious! But this Parisian father of multitudes must be considered as nothing, when compared with the wonderful Russian, who is mentioned in the *Gentleman's Magazine* for September 1783, p. 753. This man, Feoder Wafilief, a peasant, aged 75, is said to have had

By his first wife;	By his second wife;
$4 \times 4 = 16$	$6 \times 2 = 12$
$7 \times 3 = 21$	$2 \times 3 = 6$
$16 \times 2 = 32$	—
Births 27	Births 8
69 Children.	18 Children.

Births in all, 35; Children, 87; of which 84 are living, and only three buried. The above relation, however astonishing, may be depended upon, as it came directly from an English merchant at St. Petersburg, to his relation in England, who added that the peasant was to be introduced to the empress. The above letter is dated Aug. 13, 1782, at which time the man was said "to be alive, and in perfect health, in the government of Moscow."

Of SUPERFETATION.—The cases we have related, p. 680, of twins being born at remote periods, six weeks or more, from each other, have given rise to an opinion that they must have been conceived at different times; for the term *superfætation* implies a second impregnation whilst a child is in utero. But this cannot be, if the commonly-received theory of conception, which assumes the transmigration of the male semen along the uterus to the tubæ Fallopianæ, be correct; because, the os uteri being blocked up by coagulable lymph, and the entrance to the Fallopian tubes being obstructed by the decidua uteri soon after conception, render such an occurrence impossible. (See, however, Smellie's remark upon theories, p. 670.) "Those cases in which a plurality of children have existed, and in which superfætation is supposed to have occurred, are referrible, either (says Dr. Conquest,) to the premature death of one fœtus, which has remained in utero with the living child to the full period of utero-gestation; or, to the descent of the two ova into the uterus from the ovarium not observing the same order of time; one being more slowly evolved than the other, al-

though both might have been fecundated by the same coitus." *Outlines of Midwifery*, p. 141, 2.

Pliny, the naturalist, relates an instance of a female slave who produced twins, one of which resembled the master of the slave, the other another man with whom she had had sexual connexion. This fact, although it might lead to the suspicion of the possibility of superfætation, still it would by no means demonstrate it. That quoted by Buffon is more conclusive: In the year 1714, a woman of South-Carolina, when in bed, was approached by a negro, who, with a poignard in his hand, obliged her, by violent menaces, to submit to his desires: nine months afterwards she was delivered of two children, one of them black, the other a mulatto. This, being at that period a singular case in history, might be considered as doubtful; but similar instances have since occurred, to support it, and apparently to prove the possibility of superfætation.

Mons. Baudelocque relates, in the second volume of his *Traité de l'Art des Accouchemens*, a case of superfætation observed, in 1780, by Dr. Desgranges, of Lyons. On the birth of the first infant, the discharge from the uterus ceased immediately after delivery; no milk appeared in the breasts; and the belly remained more voluminous than ordinary. Twenty days afterwards this woman admitted the caresses of her husband, and a few days after that she felt the motions of a fœtus in the uterus. After the lapse of a hundred and sixty-eight days from her former accouchement, she gave birth to a full-grown infant; so that it is apparent that this was conceived about seventy-two days after the former. Both of the children were living in 1782.

A woman of Arles produced, November 11, 1796, a female infant, apparently at the full period of gestation, which lived seven months: The lochiæ were suppressed on the fourth day, and no milk appeared in the breasts, although measures were taken to solicit it, from the desire of the mother to suckle her child. Six weeks after her delivery, this woman, with much surprise, felt the motions of a fœtus in the uterus; but, recollecting that she had cohabited with her husband four days after her accouchement, she considered that she was pregnant from that period; but this conjecture was found to be incorrect, by her giving birth to another female child, of the full growth and development, at the termination of the fifth month from that of the former. The milk now appeared in her breasts, with which the mother suckled both her children. This fact is attested by two medical practitioners.

M. Delmas, a surgeon resident at Rouen, relates, that a woman of that city, thirty-six years of age, was delivered at the hospital at Rouen, on the 26th of February, 1806, of two male children, one white, the other mulatto. This woman had been pregnant eight months; the two placentas, united in the manner generally observed in the case of twins, were expelled within a few minutes after the birth of the fœtuses. The woman lived with a white man, but she had twice had connexion with a negro about the time when she believed herself to have been pregnant four months. The infants lived but three hours.

The following has been published, under the title of "a Case of Superfætation," by Dr. Maton, in the fourth volume of the *Transactions of the College of Physicians*, p. 161. A lady, who had previously borne children, had, on the 12th of November, 1807, another male child, which was brought forth under circumstances peculiarly distressing, being dropt on a bundle of straw at midnight in an uninhabited room. Though this infant had every appearance of health at the time of birth, he lived about nine days only. On the 2d of February, 1806, (not quite three months from the former accouchement,) she was delivered of another male infant completely formed, and apparently in perfect health. This child died in about three months of measles.

These

These facts, and many others that our limits oblige us to pass over in silence, seem to prove that superfetation, although rare, is yet a real phenomenon. Those physiologists who still deny its possibility endeavour to account for births occurring at periods too remote to admit of their being referred to the same period of conception, by asserting that it can only be explained by the existence of a double uterus, or by a division of that organ into two cavities; circumstances which anatomical investigation has shown to take place. Those who believe that superfetation may happen in the ordinary state of the uterus, may support their opinion by the case of the woman at Arles, in which the two placenta were united together by their broad surfaces, which could not have happened had they not been formed in the same matrix. The cessation of the lochia, which was observed in this as well as in that related by Baudelocque, tends to prove that the two fœtuses were contained in the same cavity. We refer our readers to the twenty-second, twenty-third, and twenty-fourth, volumes of the London Medical and Physical Journal for some further observations and reflections on this subject.

II. OF PRETERNATURAL LABOURS.

FROM the view we have given of human parturition under the most favourable circumstances, it must be obvious that many deviations from nature may occur. These deviations may proceed; first, from the propelling powers concerned in parturition; secondly, from the state of the child itself; or, lastly, from the state of the passages through which the child is forced. There may also be a combination of these causes.

I. The propelling powers concerned in parturition consist of voluntary and involuntary muscular action. The diaphragm and abdominal muscles furnish the former, and the uterus the latter. An excess or diminution of the action of those powers must interrupt the ordinary progress of labour.

Impaired action of the uterus during the first stage of labour is in many instances productive of no other inconvenience than the protraction of labour; and it has therefore been considered under the preceding head of Natural Parturition. But, if it exhausts the strength of the patient, it influences materially the subsequent process, so as to require manual assistance, and the use of instruments. When it occurs during the second stage, it occasions the most dangerous symptoms; if the head of the child continue to press for a considerable time on the soft parts within the pelvis, these parts must necessarily, from the impeded circulation, become swelled; and consequently the action of the uterus, though it should return, would then be totally insufficient for the expulsion of the child. This effect of the protraction of the second stage was first pointed out to the public in Dr. Hamilton's Letters to Dr. Osborne.

We have explained the effect of the ergot of rye in hastening labour-pains; but, when that remedy is ineffectual, or when some good reason may prevent the exhibition of it, and the child is detained so long in the passage as to endanger the health or life of the mother, it becomes necessary to extract the infant by mechanical means. Two contrivances have been thought of for this purpose, viz. the *vestis* or lever, and the forceps.

Roonhuysen, a Dutch practitioner, who flourished about the beginning of the 18th century, contrived the *vestis*; and, from the great success which attended its use in his hands, an edict was issued by the states-general, that no surgeon should practise midwifery without being possessed of the Roonhuysen secret, for the instrument was not publicly known. In the year 1756, however, the secret having been purchased by two liberal-minded physicians, Vischer and Van de Poll, was published by them for the benefit of mankind. Since that time the instrument has undergone a variety of alterations in its form;

for a particular account of which, the reader is referred to Mulder's *Historia Forcipis*. There can be no doubt that Roonhuysen and his successors employed the *vestis* as a lever of the first species, the head of the infant being the resistance, the parts of the woman the fulcrum, and the hand of the operator forming the moving power. The injuries arising from this practice have been well explained by Dr. Osborne in his *Essays on Laborious Labours*. Although Dr. Bland and Dr. Denman still recommend the same practice, there can be no doubt that, whenever the use of the *vestis* proves successful according to their directions, the fortunate termination is to be attributed to the action of the uterus being exerted by the pressure of the instrument; or, in other words, the delivery might have been completed without any mechanical interference at all. The lever in its present state, called Lounder's lever, is represented on the annexed Plate, at fig. 1. but it has now nearly fallen into disuse, having given way to the *forceps*, which is a double lever so constructed that the fulcrum of each blade is in the handle of the other. The common short forceps is supposed to have been invented by Dr. Hugh Chamberlen, who was physician to king Charles II. but its shape has been greatly altered since his time. The most approved form is that represented at fig. 2.

In order that this instrument be applicable, it is necessary that the head be completely, or nearly so, in the cavity of the pelvis; but sometimes a lengthened pair is used for cases where the head is situated high. In whatever situation the head is, the instrument is to be applied over the ears, otherwise there could be no safe and secure hold. In the process of extracting the child with this instrument too, it is to be observed, that the convex edge of the blades is to be brought along the hollow of the sacrum. The instrument being applied so cautiously over the ears of the infant that no part of the woman be injured by their introduction, the locking-parts are to be brought together, and secured by a ligature; after which the operator, supporting carefully the perinæum with one hand, is to draw gently in a direction of from blade to blade during a pain, or now and then to imitate labour-throes, while he at the same time favours the mechanism of labour by accommodating the child's head to the passage so as to make it take up the least possible room. If this be done with suitable caution and gentleness, no part of the woman should be injured, and the parts of the infant on which the instrument had rested should not even be marked. But, as there can be no doubt that, in the process of using the forceps, the parts of the woman are pressed upon by the blades, if much force be exerted, or if due attention be not paid to the adaptation of the head of the infant to the apertures through which it is to be brought, the most dreadful effects result from the operation.

Violent action of the diaphragm and abdominal muscles, if exerted at the beginning of labour, tends to exhaust the patient and to retard delivery; and, if induced when the head is within the vagina, may, provided proper precautions be not taken, lacerate the perinæum, and render the future life of the patient miserable. The action of these muscles, being quite voluntary, may be readily prevented by the patient submitting to proper advice.

Violent action of the uterus at the beginning of labour, is frequently productive of much mischief. It exhausts the patient, and renders the subsequent process of delivery exceedingly tedious and difficult. It also sometimes occasions an accident which generally proves almost immediately fatal, viz. rupture of the uterus, vagina, or perinæum; but, as these dreadful accidents happen from other causes also, they will be considered, with the proper treatment, farther on.

Violent action of the uterus during the latter stage of labour, although not productive of the same dangers which ensue from it at the beginning, is by no means exempt from hazard; for, if the soft parts be rigid or

not sufficiently relaxed, the woman may be miserably torn. The violent action of the uterus towards the termination of labour proceeds from some power of that organ itself, or from the stimulus communicated by the position of the child. This circumstance, however, is sometimes beneficial; as for instance, when the child is in an unfavourable position. Dr. Denman was the first who discovered this effect of violent uterine action, and published it in the fifth volume of the London Medical Journal.

II. The malposition or malpresentation of the child may occur in different ways; but they may be considered under two divisions, 1. Presentations of the lower extremities; 2. of the superior extremities. As in a natural labour the head always presents, it would seem most analogous that we should begin with noticing the presentation of the upper extremities, as the head (in a wrong position), arm, shoulder, &c. But, as it will be presently seen, that, in the greater part of malpresentations, it is thought advisable to turn the child, and deliver by the feet, the propriety of explaining that process first in order, is sufficiently obvious.

1. PRESENTATIONS of the LOWER EXTREMITIES.

Presentations of the lower extremities comprehend cases where one or both feet, one or both knees, or the breech, present.

Cases where *both feet* present, are more frequent than those where one only presents. It has been calculated that the feet present once in 105 cases of labour. This is moreover the most simple, and probably the safest to the mother, of all the preternatural positions: but the hazard to the child is considerable, particularly if it be a first labour. The danger to the child arises principally from the compression of the navel-string, between its own head and the parts of the mother, after the body of the child has passed through the pelvis. The great object of the accoucheur, then, is to prevent this compression; and this is to be effected, by getting the head of the child through the pelvis, with all proper expedition, as soon as the body is born. In order for this, it is not necessary to hasten the delivery of the body of the child: on the contrary, it is desirable that the delivery of the body should be effected slowly; for thus the parts of the mother will become more dilated and spacious, and of course there will be less resistance opposed to the passage of the head. But, if attempts are too early made to reach the feet, and to expedite the delivery by drawing them down, and afterwards to extract the body rapidly, it will be found, when the head comes to occupy the pelvis, that the soft parts of the mother will be too rigid and undilatable to let the bulky head pass through them; and thus so much delay will take place, and the funis will be so much compressed, as to destroy the child.

Some authors have divided labours of this kind into a great variety of species. There is, however, no necessity for such divisions, and they tend to mislead and embarrass practitioners. All the varieties may be reduced under three heads; for the toes must be either towards the side of the pelvis, or towards the sacrum, or towards the pubes.

1. Where the toes are towards the side of the pelvis, the child is generally placed in such a manner that the abdomen, breast, and face, pass in succession along the sacro-iliac synchondrosis of that side. This is the most favourable situation in which the child under such circumstances can be placed; for the largest parts of its body pass through the largest aperture of the pelvis.

In this case, then, the action of the uterus forcing forward the child, the feet are by degrees excluded through the external parts, the toes being situated between the point of the coccyx and the tuberosity of the ischium; the thighs follow, then the abdomen and thorax; but the farther progress of the child is for some time interrupted

by the arms passing up along each side of the head, which add considerably to its bulk; at last, however, the repeated contractions of the uterus force the face into the hollow of the sacrum, and then, the nape of the neck turning on the inferior edge of the symphysis pubis as on a pivot, the face is excluded, followed by the scaput and occiput.

2. Authors have generally considered that to be the most favourable position in which the feet can present, where the toes are towards the sacrum. But two disadvantages attend this position: first, the largest part of the child's body is forced through the smallest part of the outlet of the pelvis; and 2dly, The longest diameter of the head is applied to the shortest diameter of the brim of the pelvis. In such cases, therefore, the patient commonly suffers much pain, and the child's life is destroyed.

3. When the toes are turned to the pubes, it has been universally acknowledged, that the feet are in the worst possible position. Indeed not only do the disadvantages stated as resulting from the last position equally take place in this one, but another cause of difficulty and danger is added, viz. that, the face being applied to the pubes, the chin may project over, and rest upon the ossa pubis, and it will be difficult to extricate it from this untoward situation. To guard against this accident, it will be proper, as soon as the nates have passed through the os externum, to take hold of the nates and both thighs with a warm napkin; and, when the next pain comes on, to give such an inclination to the body of the child, by guiding it with the hands, as will direct the face towards the mother's spine. The napkin is necessary, in order to give the operator a sufficiently firm hold; without it, his fingers would slip, and his object be defeated. There is not much difficulty in effecting this turn, if it be done prudently and cautiously. Much force is not required; nor is it necessary that the fore parts of the child be turned quite round to the mother's back: an inclination towards the back is all that is wanted.

During the pain which, with the assistance of the accoucheur, produces this turn of the child, it is probable that the whole of the body will be expelled, and nothing will remain in the pelvis but the child's head, with the arms extended on each side above it. It has been a question much discussed, whether it be best in such cases to finish the delivery, leaving the arms thus extended on each side of the head, or to draw them down by manual assistance, before any attempt is made to bring the head into the world. Some writers have asserted that the arms should not be drawn down, because, while thus extended, they prevent the os uteri from contracting round the neck of the child, and impeding the passage of the head. But, if the early part of the labour has been permitted to proceed sufficiently slow to allow the os uteri to become properly dilated, such a contraction is little to be dreaded; and the arms need not be suffered to remain for this purpose.

A far better reason for not bringing down the arms, is, the danger of dislocating or fracturing them; and, if the practitioner will be so heedless and imprudent as to attempt to extract them at an improper time, or to employ violence and undue force in effecting it, this danger will be imminent; but, if the attempt be cautiously and judiciously made, no hazard need attend it. The operation consists in passing the finger over the shoulder of the child, as far as to the bend of the elbow; which is then to be gently depressed, and the fore-arm commonly passes through the vagina without much difficulty. One arm being brought down, the extraction of the second becomes more easy. In proportion to the rigidity of the soft parts will be the difficulty of the extraction: should it be found that the operator's finger cannot reach the bend of the elbow, or does not readily dislodge the arm, it will be better to defer the attempt, or to give it up altogether, rather than to do injury to the infant. With

first

first children, it will require some care to guard against a laceration of the perinæum, as the arm passes.

When the labour has proceeded so far, that only the head remains to be born, we are to extract this with all the speed that circumstances will admit; for little reliance is to be placed on the uterine efforts, solely, to effect the expulsion of the head; and, if it remains long in the pelvis after the body is born, the compression upon the funis will be so great, as speedily to cause the child's death. The extraction of the head will sometimes be more conveniently made, if the woman be turned upon her back, and if the operator stand while using his efforts.

It is desirable that this attempt be made during a natural pain, and that the operator cease from his attempt as soon as the pain goes off; but, if the case be urgent, the extraction must be made without waiting for the natural pains.

One foot may present in the same variety of directions as both feet. Where one foot presents naturally, if the pains be regular and strong, the case is attended with less pain to the mother and less danger to the child, than where under similar circumstances both feet present. It is less painful to the mother, because the child is formed into the shape of a cone, and the apex passes first through the pelvis, by which the parts are gradually prepared, and not suddenly forced open; and, it is less dangerous for the child, because, the one leg being folded along the belly and breast, the umbilical cord is protected from compression. From these circumstances a very erroneous inference has been deduced by some celebrated authors; viz. that in cases where it is necessary to perform the operation styled turning, one foot should be brought down in preference to both. But, as on such occasions the operator cannot be assisted by pains, it is obvious that he could not have a sufficient hold of the child by a single foot. With the exceptions just stated, the phenomena where one foot presents are the same with those which occur in cases where both feet are in the passage.

When the *knees* present, all the inconveniences of footling cases take place, with this additional danger to the child, that, if the legs be crossed, one or both may be fractured before the knees be expelled. The management of knee-presentations must depend on the advance which these parts have made at the time assistance is procured. If they be still at the brim of the pelvis, the feet should be hooked down; but, if they be fairly within the cavity of the pelvis, or in the vagina, they must be allowed to protrude without the parts until the feet be expelled.

Breech-cases occur more frequently than footling ones. It has been calculated that they happen once in 52 cases of labour.

The breech may present in the same variety of positions as the feet; viz. with the belly of the child to the back, to the belly, or to the side, of the mother. Certain advantages and disadvantages attend each of those positions.

When the belly is to the back of the mother, the thigh bones, being straight, pass with difficulty along the curved line of the sacrum; after that obstacle is surmounted, the largest part of the child is applied to the smallest diameter at the brim of the pelvis; and, after the body is delivered, the head is situated in such a direction that it cannot enter the brim; for the sinciput is opposite to the promontory of the sacrum, and the occiput to the symphysis pubis.

If the belly of the child be to the belly of the mother, then the thigh-bones pass very readily along the bones of the pubes, while the spine, bending, accommodates itself admirably to the hollow of the sacrum, consequently at first the labour proceeds speedily and safely; but, after the breech has passed through the cavity of the pelvis, it is applied with its largest diameter to the shortest diameter

at the outlet, and after it has at last overcome the resistance occasioned by that circumstance, and the body is expelled, the face, being towards the symphysis pubis, subjects the patient to all the pain, and the child to all the dangers, already enumerated.

When the belly of the child is placed towards the side of the mother in breech-cases, then the same advantages attend the situation which have been enumerated under the first footling-case; for the largest part of the child is uniformly applied to the largest aperture of the pelvis. Besides this, the child incurs less hazard in this position than where the feet originally present; for the legs being folded on the belly protect the funis umbilicalis from compression.

Breech-cases, where the pains are powerful, are to be left entirely to nature, taking care to support the perinæum till the infant be expelled. It is then highly important that the navel-string be immediately taken off the stretch, and the child accommodated to the passage on the same principle as footling-cases.

Labours of this kind were formerly very much dreaded, as it was supposed that there was not room for the child in this doubled position to pass through the pelvis. Hence some of the older accoucheurs attempted to turn the child, and bring the head to present; others, among the rest Celsus, recommend to bring down the feet. Dr. John Burton, of York, the cotemporary and rival of Smellie says, "When the buttocks come foremost, the more it is suffered to advance, the more dangerous and difficult will be the labour: therefore as soon as the operator perceives, by the softness and fleshy of the parts, what part presents, he must immediately thrust up against the buttocks with all his strength, but without committing violence to the child's os coccygis, or its parts of generation, which are often in this case swelled; and, as he thrusts up, he must endeavour to turn the child with its belly towards the os uteri, and then search for the feet."

Smellie was too fond of this pushing up; indeed it was the doctrine of the day; and Dr. Hunter, in the early part of his practice, used to follow the same plan, in breech-presentations; but, from a conviction of its impropriety, he afterwards discontinued it. "When I first began practice (says he), I followed the old doctrines in breech-presentation, although I did not like them, but yet dared not broach new ones, till I got myself a little settled in life: at this time I lost the child in almost all the breech-cases, but, since I have left these cases to nature, I always succeed." Hunter's Lectures, MS. 1768.

2. PRESENTATIONS of the UPPER EXTREMITIES.

The most natural position of the child, at the beginning of labour, is, as we have already seen, with the head placed at the brim of the pelvis, the face towards the sacro-iliac synchondrosis of one side, and the occiput towards the groin of the opposite side. But there are many deviations from this natural position.

Although the head be applied to the brim of the pelvis, it may be forced with the sinciput towards the promontory of the sacrum, and the occiput towards the symphysis pubis. In this situation the largest diameter of the head is opposed to the smallest of the pelvis; consequently the head remains firmly fixed in that position; for, as the sinciput cannot advance a point beyond the promontory of the sacrum, the occiput is forced just so much below the brim at the pubis as to wedge the head firmly between the sacrum and pubis. By the long-continued pressure the soft parts become much swelled, and at last the head is found so immoveably fixed, that it can neither be made to recede, nor can it advance in the same direction. This constitutes what has been styled the *caput incuneatum*, or, as it is called by French practitioners, *la tête enclavée*. This case most commonly is the effect of mismanagement; for, if a very little pres-

sure be made on the head when it presents at the brim of the pelvis in this unfavourable position, the pains will readily force it into the passage in the proper direction. When the *locked head* has actually taken place, the practice must be varied according to the circumstances of the individual case; hence the long forceps, and sometimes even the crotchet, are required.

The long diameter of the head may also be applied to the short diameter at the brim, in a different manner, viz. with the face towards the pubis, and the occiput to the base of the sacrum. The obstacles to the progress of the head are not in this case so great as in the former; for, as the occiput is round, and its surface inconspicuous, while at the same time the promontory of the sacrum is round, the labour-throes, after some time, force the occiput either a little to one side, or at least past the promontory. The case, however, is tedious, painful, and even dangerous to the patient; for, as the face presents a larger surface to the pubis than the occiput, it must require longer time to pass; and, as there are many inequalities on the face, the patient must suffer much pain from their pressure, and from the same circumstance must incur the hazard of having the urinary bladder or the urethra irreparably injured. Although in this case the natural efforts most ordinarily complete the process, yet in many instances the injury which threatens the urinary bladder renders the application of the forceps expedient.

Although the head may have entered the pelvis in the most natural position, yet it may not make those changes in situation which are required to accommodate it to the outlet; for the face may turn under the symphysis pubis instead of into the hollow of the sacrum. When this happens, the phenomena already described in the preceding paragraph take place.

It sometimes happens, that instead of the smooth part of the cranium being forced first into the pelvis, the *face* presents. In this case it may be situated in three positions, viz. with the chin to the sacrum, or to the pubis, or to the side.

The first case is esteemed the most dangerous both for the mother and child. For the mother, because the child in this position requires more room than the pelvis affords, consequently the soft parts in contact with the chin and smooth part of the cranium are much compressed; and hence, if the delivery be not speedily accomplished, much injury to those parts will ensue. As the chin too must pass along a curve line formed by the sacrum and coccyx, the obstacles to delivery are very great; and, even after the face has been forced so low as to press on the perinaeum, that part is in much hazard of being torn by the violent distension which it undergoes. The delivery in such cases is very rarely accomplished naturally; and Dr. Conquest recommends the employment of the lever, which is to be fixed over the occiput, and during each paroxysm of pain by drawing down the back part of the head, and at the same time elevating the forehead, so as to cause a closer approximation of the chin to the chest, the termination of the case may be materially accelerated.

The second case, viz. where the chin is placed towards the pubis and the sinciput to the sacrum, is neither so dangerous for the mother nor child. For, if by the force of the pains the face be pushed so far forward that the chin becomes engaged within the arch of the pubis, then the inferior edge of the symphysis pubis forms a fulcrum on which the inferior jaw moves, by which the sinciput and occiput pass readily and easily along the hollow of the sacrum, their surface being well adapted to that of the sacrum, and the several parts of the face pass in succession through the vulva. But, should the uterine energy not be adequate to the completion of the labour, assistance is to be given; either first, if the resistance be trifling, by disengaging the forehead and chin, so as to convert it into a vertex-case, by steadily pressing the

face upwards and sideways, with a semi-rotatory motion during pain, so that the occipito-vertex shall be placed against the sacro-iliac symphysis; or, secondly, if the case be discovered early, the lever may be most advantageously used as a hook fixed on the occiput, which it is to depress, whilst the face is gently raised by the fingers. This method of managing such cases refers exclusively to them when discovered early, and when the resistance is inconsiderable: but lastly, if the face be low down, and firmly wedged in the pelvis, then the process adopted by nature must be imitated, and with the lever fixed over the side of the face, the chin must be made first to emerge; or the forceps may be applied as in a vertex case, only that the blades, running in a line from the face to the occipito-vertex, will have their extremities at the occipito-vertex, and the locking part at the face.

The third case, viz. where the chin is to one side, is still more favourable than the second; for the face passes readily through the oblique diameter of the pelvis till stopped by the tuberosities of the ischia, when the chin turns into the arch of the pubis, and then the same phenomena which occur in the second case take place.

On some rare occasions the side of the head presents, so that one *ear* is in the centre of the pelvis. In such a case, the strongest contractions of the uterus cannot make the head enter the pelvis, and the woman would generally die undelivered were it not for the interference of art. Cases of this kind are remarkably rare. The hand of the operator must be carried up in such cases, and moderate pressure must be made in such a direction as shall allow the contractions of the uterus to push the smooth part of the cranium into the cavity of the pelvis. If such presentations be discovered early, we may so employ the lever as very materially to improve the relative situation of parts. This instrument is to be carried over the vertex laterally; and, whilst traction is employed during every parturient exertion, the base of the cranium is to be raised by two fingers.

Sometimes the *hand or arm descends with the head* into the pelvis.—Independent of the awkwardness of position which the head may assume, from the circumstance of the hand or arm descending with it, there will be so much increase in the bulk of the part, as to render its passage slow and difficult. Yet, if the case be not interrupted by mismanagement, it will terminate favourably; for this complication of presentation seldom happens but in a wide pelvis.

There will be some difference in the difficulty of the labour, according to the manner in which the superior extremity enters the pelvis. If it be only the fingers or hand coming down in a flattened shape by the side of the head, the difficulty will not be very great. If the elbow be the part, with the fore-arm bent back upon the humerus, the difficulty will be increased. And it will be still more perplexing, if the hand and arm have descended before the head; the head resting upon the arm at the bend of the elbow. Occasionally it will be practicable, by means of the operator's fingers, to prevent the hand or arm from descending below the brim of the pelvis, till the head has sunk so low as to be clear of the impediment; but, in attempting this, care must be taken not to make the case more embarrassing by drawing the arm down lower, or forcing the head above the brim; for this might convert the case into a truly preternatural labour, and render the turning of the child necessary. The arm of the child is often very much bruised and tumefied in consequence of this position; and it is sometimes difficult to persuade the attendants that it is not fractured or dislocated. However, it seldom fails to recover itself in a few days.

There are no presentations more dangerous, nor more difficult to manage, than those of the superior extremities; for, whether the part presenting be the hand, the elbow, the shoulder, or both hands, it is clearly impossible that a full grown foetus should pass through the pelvis, unless this position be altered.

It was the practice of the ancients to endeavour to push back the arm, and bring the head into the pelvis; but this method could seldom succeed, and it was, after a time, laid aside, principally upon the authority of Ambrose Paré, who directed that the feet should be sought for, and brought down, in all preternatural presentations. It seems now generally agreed, that the preferable mode is to turn and deliver footling; for though it is sometimes practicable to return the arm, and bring the head to present, yet the chance of success in this way is very trifling. The established practice, then, is for the operator to pass his hand into the uterus to take hold of the feet, and bring them without the os externum; thus converting the presentation of the arm into a presentation of the feet.

Under this head we may also include those preternatural and very rare presentations called by Merriman *Dystocia transversa*, transverse or cross presentations; as of the neck, breast, back, belly, or side: for it is quite obvious that a full-grown child cannot possibly be expelled through the natural passages in such positions as these; and consequently, unless nature perform the operation of spontaneous evolution, first described by Dr. Denman, both mother and child must be destroyed; for the unavailing contractions of the uterus will first operate in impeding the circulation of the child; and then, by pushing forward its body with great force on the soft parts of the mother, will induce such a degree of pain and inflammation, that the must at last sink exhausted.

The practice of *turning*, as it is called, that is, of bringing down the feet in cases belonging to this division of preternatural labours, originally suggested by Pierre Franco, but first properly established by Ambrose Paré, has been the means of saving many valuable lives. Indeed the superiority of this practice to that of making the head present under such circumstances must be very obvious; for, after the operator has got hold of the infant's feet, he can complete the delivery without requiring the assistance of pains.

The dangers to be dreaded in performing the operation of turning are—rupture of the uterus, or subsequent inflammation of the passages, and loss of the child. When it is added, that a perseverance for several hours is sometimes necessary for accomplishing this operation, it must be obvious, that it demands in many instances a greater degree of patience, as well as dexterity, on the part of the operator, than most cases of surgery. We shall therefore offer a few observations on the method of proceeding in four different cases, which will be sufficient to enable the young practitioner to regulate his method of management in all others.

1. If it should be ascertained, before the membranes are ruptured, and the waters discharged, that the arm is the presenting part, it will be right not to introduce the hand till the os uteri is sufficiently dilated to allow the hand to pass with tolerable ease into the uterus; for, till the membranes are ruptured, no danger exists, and the dilatation of the parts is more easily and conveniently effected by the bag of waters than by any other means. But, though it may not be expedient for the operator to proceed to the introduction of his hand till the os uteri is favourably dilated, yet he must on no account quit his patient; for he may be obliged to proceed to artificial dilatation, without delay, should the membranes suddenly give way. As soon as the os uteri is sufficiently dilated, (and the more complete the dilatation of this part, the more safe will be the delivery,) the operator must dilate the external parts artificially, till they oppose no further resistance to the introduction of his hand. Then, slowly carrying his hand through the vagina to the os uteri, he must gently insinuate it through this part, in the absence of a pain. If he should find the os uteri less relaxed than he expected, or than is necessary, he must proceed to use artificial dilatation here too, very slowly effecting this, and intermitting his endeavours,

from time to time, as he shall judge prudent. Having obtained room to pass his hand through the os uteri, he must rupture the membranes by pressing a finger firmly against them; when his hand will immediately come in contact with the body or limbs of the child. He is then to pass his hand forwards till he reaches the feet, which he should be careful to draw down along the belly, not over the back of the child; and, proceeding slowly, he will find, that, as the feet are brought lower, the presenting arm will be retracted; and, when the nates are brought to occupy the hollow of the sacrum, the arm will be drawn nearly or completely within the uterus. The case now becomes precisely similar to a feet-presentation, and is to be managed accordingly. This is the easiest and safest case of turning; for the uterus is kept distended all the time by the liquor amnii, which, after the membranes are ruptured, is prevented from passing off by the operator's arm plugging up the vagina and os externum. So that the efforts of the accoucheur to turn are not impeded by the contraction of the uterus upon the body of the child.

2. Sometimes it will be found that the arm is lying in the vagina, or without the os externum, the liquor amnii having been some time discharged, the os uteri nearly or quite dilated, and the patient either quite free from pains, or having pains seldom occurring. Here is another case in which it is advisable to proceed, without delay, to deliver by turning the child: but the turning will not be so easily effected in this as in the former case, because the uterus will be in a state of contraction on the body of the child. There will therefore be greater difficulty in passing up the hand to reach the feet. Still, if there be only the passive contraction of the uterus, the delivery may be effected without much trouble. By *passive contraction* is understood that contraction of the uterus which always takes place in consequence of the discharge of the waters, and which may be considered "as the exercise of that inherent disposition, by which efforts are made by the uterus to recover its primitive size and situation, when any cause of distension is removed:" this passive contraction admits of different degrees of intensity. By *active contraction*, is meant the occurrence of strong muscular action, whether regular, as in labour-pains, or irregular, as in spasm. For a further elucidation of this, see Denman's Introduction to Midwifery, 4to. p. 440.

The hand is to be passed cautiously as before. It must be insinuated, in the most gentle manner, through the os uteri, and slowly conducted over the surface of the child, till it reaches the feet. Should uterine action be excited during the time that the hand is in the uterus, it must be kept in a flattened form close upon the body of the child; or may be a little withdrawn while the pain continues; and, when the pain has subsided, the hand may again be cautiously carried forwards. It is generally more difficult in this than in the former case, to lay hold of *both* the feet; we must sometimes, therefore, be content with *one* only; but the turning is always much more safely and easily accomplished when we can command both feet than when we have only been able to reach one.

3. It may happen, that a superior extremity presents, the liquor amnii is evacuated, and the os uteri but little dilated, perhaps very firm and rigid. In this case, a cautious attempt may, if the attendant thinks fit, be made to produce artificial dilatation; but it will probably be found necessary to wait with patience till the parts become more relaxed or dilated: for, as there would of course be great resistance to the introduction of the hand, it is probable that the attempt to force it into the uterus would excite inordinate or spasmodic action; and a laceration of the uterus, or other serious mischief, might ensue. By allowing time, however, the rigidity would diminish, the parts would dilate, slowly and untowardly indeed for want of the mechanical, or wedge-like,

like, action of the bag of waters; yet at length there would be so much of softness and dilatability, as to authorize the practitioner to proceed to the operation, which must be slowly and cautiously performed, as before described.

4. Suppose the waters to have been early evacuated, the os uteri to be more or less dilated, the pains recurring often, and inordinately strong and forcing. To attempt the turning under such circumstances, would probably be unavailing, and might be attended with great hazard to the mother. Here then nothing remains but to watch the patient attentively; and either to wait till the uterus, having exhausted its strength in its fruitless endeavours to expel the child, becomes torpid, and incapable of further exertion; or to lessen the vigour of the system by bleeding, or other depleting means, or to diminish the uterine action by a large dose of laudanum. This is the method recommended by Dr. Hamilton of Edinburgh, who speaks of it as attended with the most obvious good effects. The dose that he gives is eighty drops. In patients of a plethoric habit it will be frequently expedient to take away from fourteen to sixteen or twenty ounces of blood, before exhibiting the opium. M. Capuron recommends the warm-bath in such cases; but it has not been extensively tried in this country. It seems well deserving of a trial. When, from either of these plans, the action of the uterus becomes suspended, the earliest opportunity is to be taken of proceeding to deliver.

Some practitioners object to delay in either of these last cases, upon the following grounds.

First. They say, that, where the child is thus placed and there are strong pains, much danger is incurred of a ruptured uterus; for that this accident frequently happens in such cases, from the head or one of the limbs of the child forming a protuberance, against which the uterus is so forcibly pressed, that at length its fibres give way, and a laceration ensues. Now it is contended, that the danger of this occurrence can be prevented by one method only, viz. changing the posture of the child, which must therefore be effected at all hazards. That the danger of a rupture of the uterus under such circumstances is very great, we shall not attempt to deny; but how will it be diminished by the means proposed? Will there be less hazard in the efforts of the operator, to push forward his hand, in opposition to the powerful resistance of the uterus? Nay, is not the attempt to introduce the hand likely to excite the uterus to still more inordinate action, and consequently to increase rather than to diminish the danger? An appeal to facts will prove, that rupture of the uterus has occurred, at least as often, from the violent and persevering attempts of the operator, as from the untoward position of the child.

Secondly. It is argued, that, if the uterus be not ruptured by its own powerful action, yet that the labour-pains will, by degrees, force the arm, shoulder, breast, and perhaps the head, of the child, so firmly into the pelvis, as to render it impossible to pass the hand into the uterus after the pains become suspended. Dr. Hamilton, in his "Select Cases," gives an instance of this, and has subjoined some very judicious remarks upon the subject. But since, in the practice of midwifery, as in other branches of the art of healing, we have sometimes only a choice of difficulties, much must of necessity be left to the discretion and judgment of the practitioner, in each individual case that he attends. We are not disposed to think lightly of the hazard that attends having the fœtus, thus preternaturally presenting, wedged into the pelvis; yet we are strongly inclined to believe, that there is less danger in this, than in forcing the hand into the rigid unyielding uterus, in a state of active contraction and irritability. "Upon the whole, therefore, (says Dr. Meriman,) I am of opinion, that there is a greater probability of doing good by delay, and by using such means as are likely to control the excessive action of the uterus,

than in persisting to introduce the hand, when the uterus opposes a resistance so obstinate and impetuous. But, as soon as this excessive action is subdued, the turning should be cautiously undertaken." The doctor has added, in the Appendix to his "Synopsis," two cases to show the effect of patience and laudanum: in one of which, owing to an over-dose, the uterine action was so completely suspended, that it could not afterwards be excited so as to expel the placenta, and the patient died; in the other case, the treatment had the happiest issue, though under the most untoward circumstances.

A curious phenomenon, first accurately noticed by Dr. Denman, and since by other authors, may perhaps, under some circumstances, be admitted as a farther justification of delay. It has occasionally happened, in these presentations, that the labour-pains have had the effect of forcing the nates or feet so low into the pelvis, that they have been precipitated through the os externum, and thus the turning of the child has been produced without the interference of the operator. In one or two such cases, the children have even been born alive. This Dr. Denman calls "the spontaneous evolution" of the child. Dr. Douglas, of Dublin, has published a very interesting pamphlet on this curious subject, the process of which he explains most satisfactorily and clearly; and he is rather sanguine in his belief, that the spontaneous evolution would more frequently take place, if it were more frequently trusted to by the obstetric attendant. The recurrence of the spontaneous evolution has however been comparatively so rare, that no man would be justifiable in implicitly relying upon it. The knowledge that it has sometimes happened, may indeed, under some circumstances of extreme resistance to the passage of the hand into the uterus, reconcile us to delay, as above recommended; but we should never allow it to operate upon our minds, so as to induce us to neglect the proper means and proper time of turning, when we have it in our power.

Dr. Denman, although, in the later editions of his valuable work, he lays less stress upon this point, yet his observations on the management of preternatural labour of the second order, are evidently influenced by his former opinion. He says, "The knowledge of this fact, however, unquestionably proved, does not free us from the necessity and propriety of turning children presenting with the superior extremities, in every case in which that operation can be performed with safety to the mother, or give us a better chance of saving the child. Under such circumstances, the instructions given by former writers, and the observations we have before made, must still be considered as proper to guide our conduct. But, when we are called to a patient with a preternatural labour, in which there is no room to hope for the preservation of the child, or in which we are assured of its death, or when the operation of turning cannot be performed without violence, and some danger to the mother, then the knowledge of this *probability of a spontaneous evolution* will set our minds at ease, and disengage us from the consideration of making any hasty attempts to perform a hazardous operation, from which no possible good can be derived, except that of extracting a dead child, and which at all events might be effected by a method much more safe to the mother." Introduction to Midwifery, vol. ii. p. 249.

We have not attempted to lay down any rules for the position of the patient, while the operator is endeavouring to turn the child; because that position, which gives him the most free use of his hand and arm, is to be preferred; and under some circumstances one position, under others a different position, will be found most convenient.

In all cases of turning, it will be found necessary for the operator to make the entire arm bare, because the feet will seldom be within the grasp of the operator's hand till his elbow is even with, or has passed through, the os externum. The hand and arm should be well smeared over with lard or pomatum, or other greasy substance, before

before the attempt to introduce them, as this considerably facilitates the passage. The late Dr. Thynne recommended to rub the arm with soap and water, so as to form a strong lather upon it; this answers very well. Some have recommended decoctions of marshmallow-roots or linseed, some the white of eggs, and others have proposed to inject warm oil into the uterus, preparatory to turning.

Presentations of the back, belly, or sides.—Each of these presentations is stated in the report from the Maison d'Accouchemens to have occurred once in 5833 labours. Madame Boivin, in her *Memorial de l'Art des Accouchemens*, has given delineations of these positions; but admits, that, in 20,517 cases, delivered at the Hospice de la Maternité at Paris, no instance of such presentation occurred at the full term of gestation. Dr. Bland takes no notice, in his "Calculations of Accidents in consequence of Parturition," of these presentations. Dr. Denman says, "I do not mention the marks by which the back, belly, or sides, might be distinguished, because these, properly speaking, never constitute the presenting part; that is, though they may sometimes be felt, they never advance foremost into the pelvis, in the commencement, at least, of a labour." Dr. Hunter says, "I have read much in authors where the navel is said to present, or, on the contrary, where, on introducing the finger, you feel the middle of the spine: I do not believe there is the possibility of such a thing in nature: the shape of the uterus, pelvis, &c. all deny it." MS. Lectures 1765.

In the very extensive practice of the late Dr. Merriman, and in that of his nephew, amounting together to nearly 20,000 labours, no instance has occurred of either of these presentations, except in one or two cases, where the mother had not completed her seventh month of utero-gestation, and in these the children passed doubled through the pelvis.

A case of a back-presentation is given by Dr. Merriman, Appendix N^o 18. The mode of proceeding is not at all clearly explained. The operator says, "As the pains were not strong, even at an early period of the labour, by introducing the finger, I could distinctly feel the spinous processes of the vertebræ of the child, passing in a direction towards the left ilium of the mother. As the os uteri was by no means in a fit state for the introduction of the hand, I determined to wait; the pains, however, did not increase but in a very slight degree. After waiting from eleven in the morning till about two the next morning, finding the os uteri in a more relaxed state, I determined to deliver her, which was done without much difficulty;" he does not say how. "The child was born alive and of the full size; the mother is doing well." He very justly concludes, "I do not know that much practical information can be obtained from this case." We may therefore just observe, that, should such an unusual presentation occur, it is very probable that in the course of the labour the position would be changed to one more favourable. If no alteration took place spontaneously, the introduction of the hand would be necessary, as soon as the parts were sufficiently dilated, to bring down the feet, and to deliver before the strength of the patient was too much exhausted; and this we suppose was the course pursued in the case we have mentioned.

Smellie, Leake, and some others, speak of having attended in presentations of the *umbilicus*; but, if it ever occurs, it is extremely rare.

Presentation of the *funis umbilicalis* does, however, often occur. This kind of presentation appears to have been much misunderstood formerly. It was supposed, when the funis came through the os uteri into the vagina, or without the os externum, that the child lay across the pelvis, the belly being over the os uteri; and this is the representation of the position given in Smellie's plates; nor is the opinion yet abandoned: M. Maygrier supposes, that the prolapsion of the funis always indicates

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the presentation of the abdomen: "Un signe qui ne laisse aucun doute sur la présentation du ventre, c'est la présence du cordon ombilical." *Methode pour manœuvrer les Accouchemens*, 1804. This, however, is seldom or never the case. When the funis presents, there will be found beyond it, either the head, the nates, or one of the extremities.

The difficulty in this case is not on account of danger to the mother, but because there is a great probability of losing the child. Attention must be given to the pulsation in the funis. If no pulsation is to be felt, the child is already dead; and the case is to be managed precisely as if the navel-string were not prolapsed.

Should there however be a pulsation, we are assured that the child is yet alive; and it becomes us to consider, in what way we can best proceed, so as to preserve its life. Three expedients for this purpose have been recommended. First, To let the labour advance, till the head of the child is within reach of the forceps, and then to hasten the delivery by means of this instrument. Secondly, To remove the navel-string out of the way of compression. Thirdly, To hasten delivery, by turning the child and bringing it by the feet.

The first method probably possesses but little advantage, beyond what may be gained by trusting the case entirely to nature. In some instances, where the mother has had children before, where the pelvis is very wide, the fœtus small, and the pains strong and quick, the child has passed alive without extraordinary assistance. But the probability of this being effected is so remote, that it would be wrong to trust to it, did any other means of affording assistance present themselves. Should it, however be found impossible to remove the funis out of the way of compression, or should the child's head have sunk too low into the cavity of the pelvis, or should any other circumstance be present, so as to render it hazardous to attempt turning, the application of the forceps might be admissible, as the only remaining resource. See Merriman, p. 242.

The second method would be the most eligible, could it always be put in practice; but the means of effecting a reduction of the prolapsed funis are not very easy. It has been proposed, to carry it upon the points of the fingers, or upon a forked piece of cane or whalebone, through the os uteri, and above the head of the child, so as to prevent the funis being pressed upon, as the head descends through the pelvis. But this expedient has been often found to fail; for, upon withdrawing the fingers, or the forked stick, the funis usually sinks again into the vagina. Dr. Mackenzie once succeeded, by drawing without the os externum as much of the prolapsed funis as he could bring down, and inclosing the whole in a small bag, which was slightly tied at the neck. This he passed into the uterus beyond the child's head, where it was retained, and the child was born alive. This method seems deserving of farther trials; but Dr. Mackenzie never succeeded in it but once. The late Sir Richard Croft has related two cases, in which he succeeded, by carrying the prolapsed funis through the os uteri, and suspending it over one of the legs of the child. In both these cases the children were born alive. Mr. Hogben and Mr. Hopkins recommend sponge to be introduced, so as to keep the funis from sinking below the head, after it has been carried, as far as possible, above the brim of the pelvis, either by the fingers, or any other contrivance.

The third method proposed, viz. the hastening of the delivery by turning the child *in utero*, and bringing it by the feet, can only be resorted to under certain favourable circumstances. It is to be recollected, that no possible advantage can accrue to the mother by turning the child; it is the benefit of the child alone that we have in view. In case then of a want of pulsation in the navel-string, which is a certain indication of the child's death, turning ought on no account to be attempted. Or,

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should there be any circumstances in the case, rendering it very improbable that the child could be preserved, even if it were turned, it would be injudicious practice to attempt the operation. For, as turning the child *in utero* is an operation always more or less hazardous to the mother, it is not justifiable to put her to this hazard, unless there be a well-grounded expectation of saving the child.

What has been said hitherto, applies chiefly to the presentation of the *funis* along with the head: when it presents together with any other part, the accoucheur will be guided in his practice by the peculiarities of the case. If the arm and *funis* should present together, turning must of course be had recourse to; for this operation will then become necessary, not because the *funis* presents, but because the arm has sunk into the vagina.

3. MONSTROSITY of the FÆTUS.

It has been seen, at p. 676, that monstrosity does not necessarily take the case out of the class of Natural Labours. Most frequently, however, it does. In the following most extraordinary case, the sufferings of the mother were so great, that she survived the birth only two days. But we have no particulars of the nature of the pregnancy, nor whether the birth was premature, nor in what manner the delivery was effected; so that perhaps what we shall relate may rather be considered as a supplement to our account of MONSTERS, vol. xv. than as strictly appertaining to the present article. The account was transmitted by Mr. John Livingstone, surgeon to the British factory, China.

"A-ke was born sixteen years ago, in the district of Yun-lang-yuen, with another male child of nearly the same size united to the pit of his stomach by the neck, as if his brother had plunged its head into his breast;" presenting an appearance, as we should suppose, something like fig. 9. on the engraving which accompanies the article referred to. "The skin of the principal here joins that of the upper part of the neck of the parasite, quite regularly and smoothly, excepting the superficial blood-vessels, which appear somewhat turgid. A careful admeasurement of the parasite was made: the trunk and neck measured about eleven inches, and the longest limb thirteen inches, making the extreme length two feet; but, as the modellers in China do not work by any scale, it would be useless to deduce any *exact* measurement of the whole figure by knowing a part.

"Since that time the parasite has not much increased in size, and at present is not much larger than new-born infants usually are; but the bones are completely formed. The shoulder-bones are remarkably prominent. But all this plumpness has disappeared from the original, whose bones seem only to be covered with skin. The attachment of the neck of the parasite to the chest of the principal, admits of a semi-rotatory motion. The natural position of the bellies is towards each other; but A-ke can turn his brother so far round, that he can bring either side towards his own belly. He also shows that his brother's arms can be moved freely. The thighs and legs remain stiffly bent; the thigh being ankylosed with the ossa innominata above, and the tibiæ below. In sciagraphia, genitalia nimis perfecta apparent; quoniam in archetypo, testium vestigium nullum, scrotique exiguum tantum, videndum sit. At penis proportionaliter crassus est; et præputium glandem semivelat. Tentigo interdum observatur; quo tempore fluidum viscidum ex urethra stillat, quapropter Sinenses semen copiose secerni credunt. Renes officia rite perficiunt; anus deest.

"A-ke is now about four feet ten inches high, of a feeble frame and sickly appearance; but, excepting the incumbrance above described, he is in all respects perfectly formed. He appears to be sufficiently conversible and intelligent; and says that he has the same feeling of pain, if any part of his brother's body is hurt, as if it was the same part of his own body: even the slightest

touch, which would be perceptible if applied to his own person, is equally perceptible if applied to his brother. This statement was most satisfactorily confirmed by an ingenious medical gentleman; who, observing A-ke's attention to be fully employed, and his head turned away in a contrary direction, pinched quickly the hip of the parasite: A-ke instantly struck the same part of his own person, just as if that had been the pinched place.

"Formerly he had reason to imagine, from certain obscure motions which he perceived within his brother when he was himself in pain, that all their feelings were reciprocal; but for some time past he has not been sensible of this, nisi micturis sit. Frater ejus nunquam eodem tempore, seu urgente naturâ, seu curiositati adstantium satisfaciendi causa, urinam reddere deficit.

"A-ke's respiration is never perfectly free: on the contrary; it is commonly laborious; and, on the slightest exertion, such as walking to a little distance, ascending a flight of steps, or the like, he breathes quickly, and with difficulty. To relieve this, he supports the parasite with his hands; but, to obtain any considerable degree of ease, a recumbent posture is necessary. His pulse is commonly quick and small. Mr. Gomez felt distinctly the pulsation of the carotids in the neck of the parasite; it was feeble. He also examined carefully the pulse at the wrists; it was very slow. The usual temperature of both is natural. A-ke wears an unusual quantity of clothes, yet he never appears to perspire, even in the warmest weather. His usual gait is unsteady and feeble: when he walks up or down stairs, he supports himself with one hand, and his brother with the other, and brings both his feet upon the same step before he attempts to advance another foot.

"When in his best state of health, he informed Mr. Gomez his appetite was so good that he could take as much food as any three of his age; at present, his health in general is much impaired. He complains of weakness of stomach, loss of appetite, defective and painful digestion; so it is commonly thought that he cannot live long." London Med. Journal, Aug. 1821.

III. The third class, or order, of impediments to natural labour, consists also of various species. The chief of these are

DEFORMITIES of the PELVIS.

1. When the apertures of the pelvis are too large, the mother incurs much danger, and the child is not totally exempt from hazard.

The danger incurred by the mother arises from there being no resistance to the passage of the child, so that, when the action of the uterus begins, the child may be pushed by the force of the pains through the passage before the soft parts are dilated; hence the uterus may be ruptured, or the soft parts lacerated. If, on the other hand, the external parts be soft and yielding, a considerable portion of the uterus may be excluded without the parts. There is a very wonderful history of a case of this kind alluded to by Saxtorph in the following words: "Memorabilis adhuc exemplum est illud à cel. Wolfg. Mullnero allatum, ubi *totus uterus* una cum fœtu extra genitalia dilapsus, fœtusque vivus extra pelvim versione extractus fuit, matre post reductionem uteri superstite." Diss. de Diverso Partu; Nuremb. 1771.

The hazard which the child undergoes is that of being suddenly expelled, included within the entire ovum, so that it may be lost before proper assistance can be afforded. Another danger is, that, the membranes having given way, it may be dashed with violence upon the floor on which the patient walks. Whenever, from the great width of the hips, there is reason to suspect that the pelvis is too large, the practitioner should continue in constant attendance from the very commencement of labour, and should carefully adopt the appropriate and obvious means to prevent the hazards just enumerated.

2. But

2. But deficiency of space in the apertures of the pelvis occurs much more frequently than excess.

A general explanation of the shape and situation of the pelvis has been given under the article ANATOMY, vol. i. p. 548, 9, 561, 617, 646, 7. And thus, by a knowledge of the parts where, and the manner in which, the bones of the pelvis are connected together, we are enabled to explain many uneasy sensations which women have, and many infirmities to which they are liable, at the time of pregnancy and after their delivery. It was for many centuries a received opinion, that these bones, though joined together in such a manner as scarcely to afford any suspicion of a separation, were always separated at the time of parturition; or that there was a disposition to separate, and an actual separation, if the necessity of any particular case required that enlargement of the cavity of the pelvis which was consequent to it. The degree of separation was also supposed to be proportionate to such necessity; and if it did not take place, or not in such a degree as was required, distending instruments were contrived and used to produce or increase it; and upon the same principle the section of the symphysis of the ossa pubis, of which we shall hereafter speak, has been lately recommended. This opinion ought probably to be assigned as one reason for the superficial notice taken by the early writers in midwifery, of those difficulties which are sometimes found to occur at the time of parturition, from the smallness or deformity of the pelvis.

But this opinion has been controverted by many writers, who assert, that there was neither a separation nor a disposition to separate; but that, when either of them did happen, they were not to be esteemed as common effects attendant on the parturient state, but as diseases of the connecting parts. The disputants on each side have appealed to presumptive arguments, and to facts, proved by the examination of the bodies of those who have died in child-bed, in justification of their several opinions. But, though we are not authorized, by the experience of the present time, to say that a separation, or a disposition to separate, prevails universally at the latter part of pregnancy or at the time of labour; yet that these effects are often, if not generally, produced, may be gathered from the pain and weakness at the parts where the bones of the pelvis are joined to each other, before and after delivery. In some cases pregnant women are also sensible of a motion at the junction of the bones, especially at the symphysis of the ossa pubis, and the noise which accompanies it may be sometimes heard by an attentive by-stander. We may, however, leave the question to be completely settled by future observations. To insist either that the changes occur in every case, or that they never occur, seems an attempt to support opinions repugnant to daily experience. For no person, who has been conversant in the dissection of women who have died in child-bed, can have wanted opportunities of seeing every intermediate state of these parts; from a separation in which the surfaces of the bones were loosened, and at a considerable distance from each other, to that in which there was not the least disposition to separate. Thus it appears, that the degrees of separation at the junctions of the bones of the pelvis to each other may be very different; and that, when it takes place beyond a certain degree, it is to be considered as morbid. "Several cases of this kind, which have occurred in my own practice," says Dr. Denman, "and many for which I have been consulted, have laid me under the necessity of considering this subject with the most serious attention; and I presume that it may be produced by two causes; first, a spontaneous disposition of the connecting parts; secondly, the violence with which the head of the child may be protruded through the pelvis." Of a separation from each of these causes the doctor then gives an example, to prove the fact, and to show its consequences. These cases, however, we shall not transcribe; because we are of opinion that, if the part does yield during par-

turition, it is in a very small degree, and soon recovers itself by rest; or, if it yield more considerably, it is attended either with fatal consequences or with incurable lameness. We shall therefore proceed to consider the pelvis according to its (unyielding) dimensions.

The form of the superior aperture of the pelvis has been described by some as triangular, and by others as oval, with the widest part from one side to the other. But the inferior aperture, independent of the ligaments and soft parts, cannot be said to resemble any known or general form, on account of its irregularity, though the widest part is from the inferior edge of the symphysis to the point of the os coccygis, allowing for the regressive motion of that bone. The dimensions of the superior aperture of the pelvis, from the upper part of the sacrum to the upper edge of the symphysis, are generally stated to be rather more than four inches; and between the two sides they somewhat exceed five. Of the dimensions of the inferior aperture it is difficult to form a judgment; but, if the ligaments are preserved, it may be said that the proportions are reversed, the narrowest part being on each side. But in the form and dimensions of the pelvis, in different women, there is an endless variety, not depending upon any alteration which may be produced by disease. The depth of the pelvis, from the upper part of the sacrum to the point of the os coccygis, is about five inches; but this will be increased when the latter bone is pressed backwards. From the margin of the pelvis to the inferior part of the obtuse process of the ischia the depth is about three inches, and at the symphysis about one and a half. It appears that the depth of the pelvis, at the posterior part, is rather more than three times the depth at the anterior; and that there is a gradual change between the two extremes, if we admit the ligaments to make a part of the outline of the inferior aperture.

Of the distortion of the pelvis there are two general causes. The first is that disease incident to children in the very early part of their lives, known by the term *rachitis*, rickets, which preventing the bones from acquiring their due strength or sufficient firmness to support the weight of the superincumbent body, they bend in different directions and degrees, according to their weakness and the weight imposed upon them. The second is a disease which may occur at any period of life, and from its effect is called *osteoporosis*, or *mollities ossium*, softness of the bones. It is far less frequent than the rachitis, but more dreadful in its consequences; which no medicine hitherto tried has had sufficient efficacy to prevent or to cure. In this disease the ossific matter is not thought to be dissolved or altered, but to be re-absorbed from the bones into the constitution, and carried out of the body by some common excretories; or deposited upon some other part where it is useless or prejudicial. The bones, thus losing the principle of their stability, become soft, according to the degree and continuance of the disease; are unable to sustain the weight of the body, and change their natural forms, in proportion to their weakness; so that in some instances the most distorted and frightful appearance of the whole body hath been exhibited. The effect of either of these diseases is not indeed confined to the pelvis; yet it is scarcely possible that either of them should exist for any length of time without producing their influence upon it.

The pelvis is more commonly distorted at the superior aperture than at any other part. This is particularly occasioned by the natural projection of the upper part of the sacrum, and the lowest of the lumbar vertebrae; though, in very bad cases, a considerable deviation from their natural position is given to several of the vertebrae. Should a disease exist in the constitution which is capable of weakening the bones, it will not appear extraordinary that the sacrum should be distorted, if we recollect, that its texture is originally spongy; that it supports, both in the erect and sedentary position, a great part of the

weight of the body; and that, by the manner of its junction with the last of the vertebrae, a considerable angle is made, which, if but little increased, will cause a very important change in the form and dimensions of the superior aperture of the pelvis. In some cases an irregular convexity, and in others a concavity, are produced by the bending of the os pubis in different ways and degrees; by which, together with the projection of the sacrum and lumbar vertebrae, the dimensions of the superior aperture of the pelvis, which in the narrowest part should exceed four inches, are reduced to less than one, and altered in every possible direction.

Various means have been recommended for accurately measuring the dimensions of the pelvis; and the ingenuity of foreign accoucheurs has produced a number of different instruments, called *pelvimeters*, which are supposed to ascertain this point with great precision. But there is, probably, more of inaccuracy in this mode of admeasurement on the living body, than at first sight may appear; and certainly the inferences drawn from such admeasurements, and the modes of practice in consequence recommended, have sometimes been grossly unscientific. In England we are more in the habit of examining the size of the pelvis by our fingers than by pelvimeters; and Dr. Conquest says, that "all pelvimeters but the fingers are ridiculous and useless;" but, upon a point of so much consequence, we should do well to take every possible means of ascertaining with precision the real dimensions, and might therefore advantageously call to our aid the occasional use of the *pelvimeter*.

Dr. Osborn, who took great pains in investigating the best method of procedure in cases of distorted pelvis, considers, that a foetus at full maturity cannot pass alive, if the dimensions of the pelvis, from the pubes to the projection of the sacrum, be only $2\frac{3}{4}$ inches; and Dr. Clarke of Dublin says, that $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches from the pubes to the sacrum is the least diameter through which he has known a full grown foetus to pass entire; but, as it has been ascertained by Dr. Hamilton, that children have been born living, though the pelvis in this diameter was "manifestly under three inches," it is necessary, that practitioners of midwifery should be very much upon their guard against being deceived in their estimate of the actual dimensions.

When, however, the distortion is so very considerable, as must satisfy us, upon the first examination, of the impossibility of effecting the birth, alive, in the usual way, we are then reduced to the dreadful alternative, of either killing the child, and bringing it away piecemeal, to save the mother, by the operation called *embryotomy*; or *embryulcia*; or of (most probably) killing the mother to save the child, by that most shocking of all operations, the *Cæsarian section*.

For women who are known to have a narrow or deformed pelvis, or who have previously suffered the operation of *embryotomy*, three modes have been proposed for avoiding the dangers we have mentioned.

1. *Abstinence*.—This measure was recommended by Mr. James Lucas, surgeon to the infirmary at Leeds, in a paper published in the second volume of the *Memoirs of the Medical Society of London*; and he has related several instances, by which he attempts to show, that abstemious diet, with occasional blood-letting, and a moderate use of aperients, has tended to restrain the growth of the foetus, and to render the bones of the head more yielding. There can be no doubt, where well-formed women are accustomed to have difficult labours, from the large size of the child, that this method may be occasionally useful; and in a few cases of deformed pelvis, where the deformity is not very great, some good might result from it. But the expected benefits seem to be confined within very narrow limits, and therefore this plan can only be occasionally useful.

Signor Aspalini relates a case, (1811.) in which abstinence was usefully enjoined; but remarks that no great

reliance is to be placed upon it; for women who constantly reject by vomiting every particle of food they swallow, have, notwithstanding, on many occasions large children; and Dr. Merriman has, in his Appendix, given three cases, from which it may be inferred, that slender diet, besides the injury it may do to the general health, is by no means to be depended upon for preventing the growth of the foetus, or for producing a child worth rearing.

2. *Premature Labour*.—The practitioners of midwifery could not fail to have observed, that on many occasions of distorted pelvis, children at seven months, when labour was accidentally excited at that period, have passed with comparative ease, and been born alive; though, when they reached the full term of utero-gestation, they fell sacrifices to the difficulty of the labour. Smellie mentions several such cases, particularly of a woman whose pelvis measured less than two inches and a half of conjugate diameter; she had been five times delivered, "and only one child was saved by being born in the eighth month, of a very small size."

When it was once ascertained, that spontaneous or accidental premature labour, was thus serviceable in preserving the lives of children in cases of distorted pelvis, it was natural to consider whether the artificial inducement of labour would not be attended with equal success; and accordingly, as we are informed by Dr. Denman, there was, in 1756, "a consultation of the most eminent men in London at that time, to consider of the moral rectitude of, and advantages which might be expected from, this practice, which met with their general approbation."

To say that no danger is incurred by the mother from such an operation, would be to assert what is contrary to fact; for no doubt can be made, that several women have lost their lives by it; but it may be truly said, that the woman, who is to undergo the operation of having the child extracted piecemeal, is always placed in at least as much, if not in more, danger. What has been the success of this practice in preserving the lives of children, cannot perhaps be exactly ascertained; but Dr. Merriam has given the particulars of 33 cases of labours prematurely induced, in the eighth month of pregnancy, on account of extreme distortion of the pelvis. In 21 of these the children were born dead; 4 were born alive, but incapable of living more than a few hours; 9 were born alive, and capable of being reared. Thus nearly one-third of the children were saved, who must have lost their lives, had the women gone to their full times, and been delivered by piecemeal: and all the women recovered, the majority of whom must have been lost, had the *Cæsarean* section been performed.

It is of the utmost consequence, in recommending this practice, that the principles, upon which alone it seems justifiable, should be duly weighed and considered. It ought not to be concealed, that it has been had recourse to, by wicked and unprincipled persons, for the atrocious and criminal purpose of procuring abortion: and sometimes has been unnecessarily adopted by the ignorant or incautious. It is therefore incumbent upon all, who wish to steer clear of either of the above imputations, so to act, that, should any judicial inquiry be instituted, they may be able to assign a just and satisfactory reason for their conduct. The possibility of such an inquiry is by no means to be treated slightly. A physician, whose motives could only be praise-worthy, was lately threatened with a prosecution, for proposing such an operation; and it is not long since an accoucheur of eminence was, on an occasion of this kind, called before a coroner's jury, to account for his conduct, which he did most satisfactorily and honourably.

As the primary object is to preserve the life of the child, the operation should never be undertaken till seven complete months of utero-gestation have elapsed: and, if the pelvis of the mother be not too much contracted

tracted to allow of it, the delay of another fortnight will give a greater chance to the child of surviving the birth. The utmost care should be taken to guard against an attack of shivering and fever, which seems to be no unusual consequence of this attempt to induce uterine action, and has often proved destructive to the child, as well as alarming with regard to the mother. The peculiar circumstances under which the operation is performed, and the habit of body of the patient, will determine the accoucheur either to adopt a strictly antiphlogistic plan, or to exhibit opiates, or antispasmodics and tonics. In order to give every possible chance for preserving the life of the child, it will be prudent to have a wet nurse in readiness, that the child may have a plentiful supply of breast-milk from the very hour of its birth.

We shall subjoin a very successful case, which was communicated by Mr. Marshall, of Half-moon-street, to the London Medical Journal for August 1814. We shall give this case at full length, with Mr. Marshall's explanatory introduction.

"Before entering upon a description of the successful termination of this case, I think it expedient to give the heads of two dreadful labours that preceded, the more satisfactorily to prove the relief obtained by adopting this mode of practice.

"Mrs. H. H. D.—was taken in labour of her first child on Tuesday morning, seven o'clock, on the 5th of May, 1809, and was not delivered until the Friday morning following, about two o'clock; the child was still-born, and at the commencement of the labour was felt to move distinctly, and with considerable vigour.

"On the 13th of September, 1810, she was taken in labour of her second child, on Saturday night at eleven o'clock, and was not delivered until the Friday after, at seven in the morning, of a still-born child, which seemed to have but very recently died. After each of these labours, she was so much weakened, that her voice was lost for ten weeks, and she was incapable of walking for nearly four months.

"On the 8th of October, 1811, I first visited this lady; and, hearing attentively her description of the former labours, I proposed to examine the pelvis, after explaining my reasons, and my suspicions of the state of the parts concerned in parturition. On examining, I found, by measuring the pelvis, a considerable contraction of the pubis at the symphysis, so as to allow only the middle finger to fill the curve; the capacity of the pelvis at the brim formed a long triangle, causing a preternatural distance from the symphysis pubis to the sacrum: this mal-formation of the pelvis immediately satisfied me of the great difficulty a full-grown fœtus must have to pass, and the total impracticability of my patient's ever completing the full period of gestation without a result similar to what she before experienced. I calculated, as near as possible, the period she had then completed; and proposed to puncture the membranes of the womb on or about the 19th of November following, which would bring the time to seven months and rather more than a fortnight, with a view to be nearer the eighth than the seventh month, to give the child a better chance of being reared, and to favour the probability of a head-presentation.

"On the 19th of November, about twelve at noon, I punctured the membranes of the womb, by means of a probe half as long again as the usual size, and stouter in proportion, conducting the point with my left hand along the middle finger of the right hand; the liquor amnii began immediately to run off, and was caught in considerable quantity in an earthen vessel before I left the room: and, upon the patient's moving, continued to come away in larger or smaller quantities until the beginning of her pains, which commenced the next day, twenty-six hours after the operation of puncturing, i. e. at two o'clock in the afternoon. The pains were very

feeble; and occurred about every half hour; but at a quarter before eight in the evening the real strong pains of labour began, and continued equally strong and frequent until the birth of the child, which took place at a quarter past eleven that night, making the short space of three hours and a half. The head presented; and, as soon as it escaped the contracted part of the pubis, it required only two or three pains to be delivered. My patient was fully able to suckle her child; and four days after delivery, to use her own words, she felt as well as if nothing had happened.

"I observed during the progressive state of labour, that a considerable quantity of a mucilaginous fluid was given off from the glands situate in the neck of the womb, which appeared to make up for the deficiency of the liquor amnii, and to facilitate the passage of the fœtus. This circumstance I have noticed in every case wherein I have performed the operation. The child is now living, and remarkably strong and healthy."

3. *The Sigaultian operation.*—Mons. Sigault, a surgeon at Paris, submitted, in the year 1768, to the Academy of Surgery, a proposal to divide the *symphysis pubis* during labour, as a mode of facilitating delivery; and in the year 1777, assisted by M. Alphonse Le Roy, he performed the operation on a woman named Souchet, who had borne four children before, but not one alive. On this occasion, however, the life of the child was preserved; but the woman was placed in a state of great danger, and the urethra and bladder were seriously injured by the operation.

Perhaps there never was a surgical operation more enthusiastically received and commended than this. The operator was immediately honoured with a pension from the French government, and a medal was struck to commemorate the invention. So eager were many accoucheurs to adopt this operation, that in a comparatively short space of time, it was performed on a great number of women. But the admirers of this new method soon discovered, that they had been too hasty in forming their opinion. Forty-four women had undergone this operation in different countries; fifteen only of the children were preserved, and thirty of the mothers; and of these, many remained infirm, or suffered from want of power to retain their urine, or other grievous complaints, during the remainder of their lives.

At length the ill success of this practice occasioned it to sink into complete disuse; and therefore we proceed to describe the operation of

EMBRYOTOMY.—When it is determined to have recourse to the operation of embryotomy, the instruments required are—the *perforator*, which, as its name implies, opens the head and breaks down its contents; and the *crotchet*, or sharp-pointed hook, to extract the cranium; or, as a substitute for the crotchet, the craniotomy forceps. Of the craniotomy forceps, as the competitor of the crotchet, Dr. Conquest speaks as follows: "The venerable lecturer on midwifery at Guy's Hospital (Dr. Haighton) has for many years been in the habit of exhibiting a pair of lithotomy-forceps, a little altered, and which he represents as a very valuable substitute for the crotchet, in some cases of difficulty in parturition, arising from the impaction of the cranium at the superior aperture of the pelvis, after the operation of cephalotomia had been performed. Fourteen years back it forcibly struck me, that these forceps, somewhat modified, possessed all the advantages of the crotchet, without having appended to them any of those flagrant defects which fully justify the exclusion of that vile and dangerous instrument from obstetric practice, in all those cases which require the application of considerable extracting force to bring down the perforated cranium. Midwifery is indebted to several continental writers for very similar suggestions; and gentlemen who have attended the lectures of Dr. Hamilton, of Edinburgh, must be familiar with Dr. Lyon's forceps, which are so strongly recommended

mended by him. But it is to Dr. D. D. Davis that the profession is laid under the deepest obligations for the very great improvement which this instrument has attained under his direction. The progressive steps by which it arrived at its present improved construction are detailed in the eighth volume of the London Medical Repository, and the instrument itself is exhibited in an engraving contained in the same volume. By comparing the craniotomy forceps there sketched with those represented in the engraving which accompanies these pages, (see fig. 5.) the mechanism of the two will be seen to be different, whilst their principle of action is the same. To the instrument exhibited in the plate preference is given merely on account of its simplicity, easy application, and adaptation at once to ordinary cases, and to such as require peculiar management."

The operation is to consist of two different processes; first, the diminution of the head; and, secondly, the extraction of the mangled child. In many cases the latter should be performed immediately after the former is accomplished; but, whenever the resistance is very considerable, an interval should be interposed between the two. The advantages resulting from this practice were first publicly noticed by Dr. Osborn, though there can be little doubt that the practice itself was the effect of necessity. By waiting after the head has been opened, the woman's strength will be restored, so that the assistance of the pains in the expulsion of the child may be obtained; the swelling of the soft parts will subside, by which the resistance may be greatly lessened, as well as the danger of inflammation removed.

In opening the head, which is to be done by means of the perforator, the two great points to be aimed at are, to avoid injuring any part of the woman, and to make a sufficiently large opening of the head. On the complete accomplishment of the latter, the eventual success of the operation must depend in all cases of extreme deficiency of space.

Should it be found expedient to delay the extraction of the infant after the head has been opened and its contents evacuated, the teguments are to be carefully brought over the ragged edges of the bones, so that, in the event of labour throes recurring, there shall be no risk of the parts within the pelvis being injured.

After the head has been sufficiently reduced in bulk, it has been usual to fix the crotchet at first on the inside of the cranium; and, while *two fingers of the left hand* are to be kept constantly so applied, that, if the instrument should slip in the process of extraction, it shall be received on the fingers, and not touch any part of the mother, the operator is to draw down with a suitable exertion of force, in such a direction that the largest part of the head shall be brought through the widest part of the pelvis.

In some cases, much time and very violent exertions are required to accomplish the delivery with the crotchet; but these inconveniences we think are likely to be obviated by the substitution of the craniotomy forceps, of which Dr. Conquest farther says, "Some such contrivance as this must, ere long, altogether supersede the crotchet with every scientific practitioner; though for some little time it (the crotchet) may be continued in use, to the manifest danger of both patient and operator. That the craniotomy forceps will soon be generally substituted for the crotchet, is inferred from the following important data. First, because with them the accoucheur may obtain so firm a purchase or hold of the foetal cranium, as will enable him to rectify any thing that may be unfavourable in the position of the head, and also to regulate the degree of power which it may be necessary to employ for its extraction; two highly important advantages, which it is evident the crotchet can never confer. Secondly, because with this instrument there is no danger of injuring the vagina, even should it slip from its hold, whilst considerable extracting power

is being employed. On the contrary, not only is the crotchet much more likely to slip, but many most deplorable instances are recorded in which it has torn the soft parts of the mother, or lacerated the fingers of the accoucheur. And, lastly, because it is essential to the security of the vagina and contiguous organs, that, whenever the crotchet is used, the precautionary measure of *keeping a hand in the passage* should always be had recourse to; a precaution extremely painful to the patient and practitioner, and one altogether needless when the craniotomy forceps are employed."

Thus armed, Dr. Conquest directs the operation to proceed as follows. When the cerebral mass is well broken down, some hours, unless circumstances imperatively forbid, may pass without any thing further being done, during which time uterine contractions will force out the contents of the cranium, so that the bulk of the head becomes materially diminished; and, the difficulty being overcome, the labour may be terminated by the unaided powers of the mother. If this should not take place, by waiting a few hours more; the tumefaction of the soft parts of the mother have time to subside, and the head will have descended more or less into the cavity of the pelvis. The craniotomy forceps are now to be passed up the vagina; and, on reaching the perforation, the handles are to be opened a little way, and the blade without teeth is to be introduced within the cranium so that the cavity of the shanks shall be opposed to the perineum. On closing the handles, the teeth transfix the bones of the head, which is to be extracted in the line of the axis of that part of the pelvis through which it is passing. It is well only to co-operate with uterine efforts; and every attempt must be made to overcome any remaining obstacle by improving the situation of the head, and by the steady employment of extracting power. The extraction of the body is to be effected as under other circumstances; and, when the child is separated from its mother, the mangled head ought to be stuffed and sewed up neatly.

Sometimes, the mere adaptation of the shoulders to the longest diameter will not much facilitate their passage; and the obstruction may be so considerable as to justify assistance with the blunt hook fixed in the axilla. In other instances, it becomes necessary cautiously to perforate and remove the contents of the thorax and abdomen before the body can be extracted.

Should extreme difficulty exist in obtaining the passage of the head through the brim of the pelvis, the bones of the summit of the cranium and of the face must be removed *separatim*, so that the base alone shall remain. The chin is then to be brought through first, by which means there will be rarely more than an inch and a half from the chin to the root of the nose to enter the pelvis. But even this space cannot always be commanded; and there are cases wherein the operation of embryotomy is absolutely impracticable, so that we seem to be absolutely driven to the Cæsarian operation, in order to have a chance of saving one life at least.

In this dreadful situation, Mr. Simmons of Manchester has proposed a revival of the Sigaultian operation, not with the hope of saving the child, but to assist the action of the crotchet or of the craniotomy forceps.

"When a case shall arise in which the child cannot be delivered by the crotchet, from the brim of the pelvis being no more than *one inch* in diameter: I propose to combine the two operations, and to *divide the symphysis pubis to make way for the crotchet*. Dr. Osborn has urged several objections against this proposal, although he admits that the operation at the symphysis is not so certainly fatal as the Cæsarian section. Weighty objections doubtless press against it; but, whilst there are no other means for preserving life, bad as the chance is, it becomes a question whether it be worth risking; and, after maturely considering the case, should an attempt for saving the life of the mother be judged expedient, as the last resource

it may be adopted. The space gained has been differently stated at from three to eight or nine lines in the diameter; the medium distance would probably be sufficient to accomplish the delivery by the crotchet.

"The objections urged against this mode of delivery, when the head is of the full size, will not apply to its reduced bulk; and it should be remembered, that the symphysis is formed of cartilage and ligament; so that whatever pressure shall be made against the divided edges, will not be made against the sharp angles of bone. That much injury may be done anteriorly will not be denied; but, does the continued pressure of the child's head never produce mischief in other cases? By the introduction of a female sound for a guide, a cautious and steady operator will avoid wounding the urethra; and, as the base of the skull will probably be turned sideways, it will suffer less in extraction than in other cases of the crotchet; in which it must in general be injured from pressure against the pubis. If the separation, however, be carried beyond a certain length, laceration will probably ensue; and, should this accident occur, I see no reason to apprehend more danger from it than follows the extraction of a large stone from the bladder through a small opening, which will induce a lacerated wound, but which we know will not uncommonly heal. The sacro-iliac ligaments would certainly not be injured by choice, but the consequences, I believe, are not generally fatal; and, should it be urged that great pain and lameness will afflict the patient for a long time after, a reply will readily occur, that life was at stake; and surely there are few who would not compound, for the prospect of temporary pain and inconvenience, to have it preserved to them.

"A spontaneous separation sometimes occurs, both there and at the pubis; and yet the patient has been again restored to health. I do not see, in other respects, in what this compound operation differs from the most difficult crotchet-case. The section of the symphysis is neither so formidable nor so fatal as the Cæsarian section; and the crotchet has been successfully applied in dimensions which will probably be thus acquired.

"Upon the whole, then, in that supposed case of distortion (which I hope will never happen) in which the mother must be doomed to death, from the impossibility of delivering the child by the crotchet, the compound operation I have recommended will furnish a resource, approved by reason and sanctioned by experience; inasmuch as the section of the symphysis pubis has been made, and the crotchet has been used, though separately, yet with safety. Such a case will be attended, unquestionably, with additional hazard; but it offers the only chance to the mother, to the preservation of whose life our chief care should be directed: and, I hope that in future all trace of the Cæsarian operation will be banished from professional books; for it can never be justifiable during the parent's life, and stands recorded only to disgrace the art."

We are aware that Mr. Simmons's reasonings have been controverted by Dr. Hull, also of Manchester, and by other persons, (see Mem. of the Med. Soc. p. 463.) and that the section of the symphysis is very generally abandoned by the profession. Indeed it never can be said to have obtained here: and Dr. Merriman says, that "the remembrance of it can now be beneficial only as it may serve to caution us against the inconsiderate and hasty adoption of modes of practice, unsupported by just reasoning, and unsanctioned by experience." Yet we have been induced to give a fuller account of this practice in our pages; firstly, on account of the reasoning of Dr. Denman, which is favourable to it; and secondly, because, though the current of professional opinion is now decidedly against it, yet the tide may turn, and this operation may in time become again the substitute for that which we must now proceed to describe. But, for a

further account of the practice in cases of extreme deformity of the pelvis, the reader is referred to Osborn's Essays; Hamilton's Letters to Osborn; Simmons's Reflections, and Hull's Detection of Simmons.

THE CÆSARIAN SECTION.—This is the name given to an operation which consists in making an incision through the parietes of the abdomen and uterus, sufficiently large to admit the introduction of the hand, and the extraction of the fœtus and placenta.

The term *cæsarian* is said to be derived from the operation "*cæso matris utero*;" and Pliny even deduces the title of *Cæsar*, given to the Roman emperors, from one of them having been brought into the world by means of it. Whether this was the case or not, it seems not improbable, from the prevalence of the opinion, that the operation had been performed prior to his time, (on the dead subject,) although no account of it is to be found in the works of Hippocrates, Celsus, Paulus Ægineta, or Albucasis, who all of them treat largely on the mode of assisting in difficult parturition. The only method recommended by these writers for extracting the fœtus when it was too large to pass entire by the natural passage, was to diminish its bulk with scalpels, or other cutting instruments, and then to draw it away with hooks or crotchets; a method, in fact, which is now followed, but with instruments more artificially constructed, and thence less likely to injure the woman, than the more rude ones contrived by the ancients.

The earliest account we find of the cæsarean section in any medical work, is in the *Chirurgia Guidonis de Cauliaci*, published about the middle of the fourteenth century; but the author only speaks of it as resorted to after the death of the woman, as was practised, he says, on the birth of Julius Cæsar. Vigo, who was born towards the end of the 15th century, in the short chapter he gives on difficult birth, takes no notice of this mode of delivery; and Paré, who greatly improved the practice of midwifery, thinks the operation only allowable on women who die undelivered. He had heard, he says, not without astonishment, of women who had been more than once subjected to the cæsarean section, it not being practicable to deliver them by any other means; but he considered the operation as much too dangerous to be adopted. Rousset, however, who was contemporary with Paré, having collected accounts of a number of cases in which the operation was said to have been successfully performed, published, in 1581, 8vo. "*Traité nouveau de l'Hysterotomotomie, ou Enfantelement Césarien, qui est l'extraction de l'enfant par incision laterale du ventre et de la matrice de la femme grosse, ne pouvant autrement accoucher; et ce sans préjudicier à la vie de l'un et de l'autre, ni empêcher la fécondité naturelle par après.*" But, though Rousset speaks with great confidence of the safety of the operation, and is warm in its recommendation, it does not appear that he had ever seen it performed, or that more than one of the six persons, whose cases are related by him, were known to him. The book, however, soon became popular; and, being some years after (viz. in 1601) translated into Latin by Caspar Bauhine, with additional cases and observations, it was quickly circulated over Europe. As this book is now become scarce, we shall direct the reader's attention to the First Part of the "*Medical Records and Researches of a Private Association, 1798.*" in which there is An Inquiry by Dr. Haighton, concerning the Cæsarian Operation; which contains a review of some authors who have written in support of that operation, and the accuracy of whose evidence appears very questionable. Rousset is a principal object of Dr. H's criticism; and, from the view here given of his credulity, his authority seems to be very light indeed. He mentions one woman who had undergone the cæsarean operation seven times, and another who underwent it three. Another advocate for the section relates, that a physician at Bruges performed this operation seven times on his

own

own wife. This kind of accumulated evidence does indeed remind us of Butler's

Sir Agrippa, for profound
And solid lying much renown'd.

Marvellous stories at this time, however, met with a ready credence; and hence the operation began to acquire a certain degree of vogue, particularly on the continent, where it is said to have been frequently performed with complete success. Laying out of our minds the ridiculous exaggerations noticed above, it appears from an elaborate memoir by M. Baudeloeque, translated into English by Dr. Hull of Manchester, that, during the 50 years preceding 1802, the operation has been had recourse to on the continent 95 times, and that 37 of these cases proved successful. In Great Britain, on the contrary, this operation has been in almost every instance fatal to the mother. Records of *twenty-two* cases are to be found, and *twenty-one* of the mothers perished. The solitary case of recovery is related by Mr. Barlow of Blackburn, in the Medical Records and Researches (1798); but doubts have been entertained, whether in this case the incision was actually made into the uterus. Of the children, ten were born dead; and of the twelve extracted alive, four survived only a few days. The whole number of lives preserved does not therefore exceed nine. See Merriman's Synopsis of Difficult Parturition, p. 292.

A very astonishing case is stated to have occurred in Ireland. The patient's name was Aliee O'Neal, and the operator was an illiterate midwife, one Mary Dunally; the instrument used was a razor, with which she first cut through the containing parts of the abdomen, and then the uterus. "She held the lips of the wound together with her hand, till some one went a mile and returned with silk and the common needles which tailors use. With these she joined the lips in the manner of the sitch employed ordinarily for the hare-lip, and dressed the wound with whites of eggs." The woman recovered in twenty-seven days. However incredible this story may appear, there seems no reason to doubt its truth. It is related by Mr. Duncan Stewart, surgeon, in Dunganon, who saw the patient some days after the operation; and the account is confirmed by Dr. Gabriel King, of Armagh, who says, that he drew out the needles, which the midwife had left to keep the lips of the wound together.

It has often been an object of inquiry, why this operation should have been more successful upon the continent than in this country. Some writers have attributed it to the climate of England; but this cannot possibly have had sufficient influence to prevent a recovery; nor can it very well be attributed to the want of skill in our surgeons, since they succeed in other operations, apparently as hazardous. Perhaps the only satisfactory reason that can be assigned for the remarkable difference in the result of the operation performed in this country and on the continent is, that it has scarcely ever been determined on in England until after long-continued fruitless efforts have been made by the mother to expel the child, so that her constitutional powers, and the parts to be operated on, have been in the most unfavourable possible condition; for it has been observed, and with apparent reason, that if it had been performed earlier, before the strength of the woman had been exhausted, and a feverish indisposition induced, or before the bladder and other soft parts had been injured by distension and pressure, a more favourable termination might have been expected. It is at any rate certain, that all over the continent practitioners have less horror at performing the *cæsarean* section than British practitioners have commonly shown; and it is resorted to in cases where the operation of *embryotomy* is preferred in this country, and where of course the women are not in such a precarious state of health as those commonly are who have extreme narrowness of the pelvis. This is evident from the accounts published of women, who, after being subjected

to the operation, have borne living children by the natural passage, which could not happen if the pelvis were considerably distorted or misshapen: and hence Dr. Haighton seems to think it probable, that the extraction of an extra-uterine fœtus (as to which see farther on) has repeatedly passed for an instance of the *cæsarian* section. But two modern French surgeons, Messrs. Stein and Plenek, have laid down rules, calculated upon accurate, or supposed accurate, admeasurements of the pelvis, as to when the *vestis* should be employed, when the forceps, when the perforator, when the section of the symphysis pubis, and when the *cæsarean* operation. See Merriman, p. 297.

But the consideration of the propriety of performing this awful operation has not been left solely to the judgment of medical men. It has been made the subject of ecclesiastical discussion; and the doctors of the Sorbonne, and the heads of theological schools and colleges, have freely given decisions upon it. By these authoritative teachers, it has been ruled, that the *cæsarean* operation ought to be performed, whenever it is known that the child is living, and it is impossible by other means to extract it alive; for they assert, that it is a *deadly sin* to perforate the head of a living child in the womb. The clergy are instructed, in the event of the mother refusing to submit to the operation, to omit no means of persuading her: they are to point out all its advantages, and to intimate, that the operation is not so painful as might be thought: they are directed to speak of submission to it, as an act of the greatest love to God, and resignation to his will, that can possibly be shown: it is even suggested, that under some circumstances, the patient might be forcibly confined, and the operation be performed against her will. It is further declared, that physicians or surgeons refusing to recommend or to perform the operation, when they should think it necessary, would thereby render themselves guilty of a deadly sin, and ought to be reprimanded by the magistrates; and praise is given to an edict, in force in Sicily, which declares, that no person shall be admitted to practise as a surgeon till he has been carefully examined as to the manner of performing the *cæsarean* section on the living mother.

These causes combined will explain the reason, why this terrific operation is more readily acceded to on the continent than in this country; and we are happy to say, that cases requiring it are with us very rare; that is, there are very few women whose pelves are so distorted as not to allow a passage for the fingers of the accoucheur to conduct the necessary instruments for opening the head of the fœtus sufficiently to allow its contents to be squeezed out, and its bones to collapse so far as to allow the operator to fix a hook or crotchet, with which it may be gradually drawn down, and extracted. Through how very narrow a space this may be done, we have a remarkable instance related in Dr. Osborne's Treatise on Laborious Parturition. This gentleman has rendered himself particularly conspicuous on the subject of the *cæsarean* section, and uses very strong language in reprobation of it. His arguments are—its acknowledged fatality; the capability of completing the delivery by means of the crotchet, in cases of such deformity of the pelvis that there is no more than one inch and a half between the pubis and sacrum, or to one side of the projecting sacrum; and, *the impossibility of impregnation taking place in cases of greater deficiency of space.*

Much controversy ensued upon Dr. Osborne's arguments; and some of them perhaps were shown to be untenable. But his reasoning has so far prevailed, that British accoucheurs are always extremely reluctant to propose this operation; and recourse is never had to it, except in such deplorable cases as preclude the possibility of delivery by any other means. Such instances have been met with; and a specimen is now to be seen in the museum of Mr. Charles Bell, in which the distortion of the pel-

vis is so extreme, that a marble, measuring less than one inch in diameter, cannot be made to pass through it in any direction. In this case, and some others of a similar nature, the cesarean section was the means of preserving the child.

Perhaps this was the deformed pelvis taken from the body of Mary Rhodes, on whom the cesarean operation had been performed by Mr. Thompson of the London Hospital, October 21, 1769. She expired five hours after the operation. The child was taken from the uterus alive. See London Medical Observations and Enquiries, vol. iv. in which the particulars of all the symptoms previous to and at the operation are related, with two separate engravings of the pelvis. Mr. Hogben has given a figure of it, which is different from either; it exhibits a front view; although the symphysis pubis was not bent, it was so close to the vertebrae, that the distance between it and the projection of the sacrum measured only seven-eighths of an inch; from the termination of the coccygis to the lower part of the symphysis pubis, one inch and seven-eighths. Dr. Cooper observes of this case: "Martha Rhodes was much deformed, being only about four feet four inches high; her back very hollow, her hips narrow, and lower extremities crooked." She was married in October 1768, and miscarried the Christmas following. She became soon afterwards a second time pregnant, and was attacked with labour-pains about the time her reckoning expired. Upon introducing a finger into the vagina, the first thing that presented itself to the touch was an unusual projection of the os sacrum and inferior lumbar vertebrae; which, being extremely prominent, had very much the feel of a child's head. For farther particulars, we refer to the above-quoted volume of Med. Obs.

The following is a still more remarkable and deplorable case. The patient's name was Mrs. Elizabeth Forster; her age 36 years; and the deformity was occasioned by that dreadful and unaccountable disease, the *mollities ossium*. The operation was performed by the late Mr. Hunter, Aug. 13, 1774. The patient did not survive more than twenty-six hours; but the child was preserved. The particulars are mentioned in the London Medical Observations and Enquiries, vol. v. p. 217. 1776. Mr. Hogben, in the Plates to his Obstetrical Studies, has given a figure also of this pelvis; upon inspection of which, it must readily be conceived that a child could not pass through it, by reason of its contracted shape. The distance from the nearest projecting part of the spine, to the part where the pubes and ilium unite on the right side, measured only one inch; and that on the left one inch and three-eighths. From the internal distorted point of the os pubis on the right side, to the centre of the vertebrae, one inch and three-eighths; and between the same of the left side, one inch and a half. The distance from the two bent-in parts of the ossa pubis, only a quarter of an inch. "Upon a careful examination during a pain, (says Dr. H.) I found the os tincta thin; yielding, and dilated to nearly the bigness of a shilling: the liquor amnii had come away about an hour, and the head of the child was just perceptible to the touch; but the pelvis appeared to me so extremely narrow and ill-formed as not to admit of a possibility for the child to be delivered even by embryulcia; the cesarean operation seemed therefore the only alternative." She was married April 16, 1759; at which time she enjoyed a tolerably good state of health. Previous to the operation she had miscarried once, and had borne many children; but in her two last labours the head of the child was obliged to be reduced before delivery could be accomplished. Latterly her indisposition (which she attributed to a severe cold contracted by going into a damp house recently repaired) was accompanied with a violent rheumatic fever, which continued about six weeks; and from that period she dated her extreme weakness and deformity of body.

There was nothing particular in her general diet, except

that she abstained from fish, cheese, and fruit; she used a great deal of salt, but very little acids. The pelvis was very singular, as having but little of the cretaceous matter in the substance of the bones; on which account they were so soft and spongy when fresh, that a finger might very easily be passed through most parts of them, and there was no difficulty in cutting them with a knife; but, when perfectly dried, their substance became considerably firmer. This disease had diminished her stature. At the time she married she was perfectly straight, very thin, and measured five feet four inches in height; some months before her death she measured four feet four inches only, and she stooped so much latterly as to appear to be little more than three feet high. Mrs. Elizabeth Forster was born Nov. 25, 1738. During her infancy she was of very weak habit of body, but never attacked with rickets: as she grew up, she still retained rather a feeble constitution, but a great share of natural spirits and vivacity; she was an uniform pattern of temperance and sobriety. Her lower extremities were not at all bent, probably through her inability to use them since her violent rheumatic fever; so that the diminution of her stature must have been caused entirely by the various distortions of the spine and pelvis.

We shall, in a future article, give a most remarkable instance of general deformity produced by *mollities ossium*, brought on by the eating of salt.

Whenever, on repeated examination of a woman in labour, the accoucheur finds the pelvis distorted to the degree described above, he should apprise the husband of the dangerous state of the woman, and desire the assistance of one or two of the most experienced persons in the profession; and, if on a consultation it should appear that it is impossible to bring the child by the natural passage, the husband should be made acquainted with the nature of the impediment, and should be informed that there remains no hope of preserving the life of the woman and child, but by opening the abdomen of the woman, and extracting the child through the wound. At the same time acquainting him, that the operation, though hazardous, is not necessarily fatal, many women who submitted to it having recovered; and that the hope of a favourable termination depends on its being performed early, before fever comes on, or any material injury is done to the uterus or neighbouring parts. If the husband should be satisfied of the necessity of the operation, the woman should then be apprised of her situation, in the most cautious manner; and, having obtained her consent, a clyster is to be thrown up to evacuate the contents of the bowels, and the bladder emptied through a catheter, and a few drops of the tincture of opium given to quiet pain as much as possible, prior to the operation, the manner of performing which, is thus described by Mr. Thompson, late surgeon to the London Hospital, in the same volume of the Med. Obs. which contains the first of the above cases.

An incision is to be made on the right or left side of the navel, whichever happens to be most prominent, six inches in length; the middle of the incision to be about level with the navel, from which it should be distant a hand's breadth. First cut through the skin, then through the tendinous expansion of the abdominal muscles, and the peritonæum. The uterus being now brought to view, a small opening must be made, to enable the operator to pass his forefinger as a guide for the knife, in extending it to the size of the external wound; an assistant must then introduce his hand, and bring away the child, and the placenta. This being effected, an assistant must keep in the bowels, which would otherwise protrude, while the operator makes the gastrotomy, or future of the belly. Proper bandages are then to be applied, and the woman put to bed. The cure to be conducted in the same manner as after other operations. *Medical Obs. and Enquiries*, vol. iv. p. 271.

A case in which the operation was performed with a favourable

favourable issue to the mother, is related in the *Annali Universali di Medicina* of Dr. Omodei, (April 1820.) by Dr. Genfani of Saluzzo. The subject was a labouring peasant, thirty-two years of age: she had been five days in labour of a mature child, (it is not stated whether or not it was her first,) when the advice of a surgeon was required.

The fœtus, according to the account of this surgeon, Mr. Alliprandi, was wedged-in between the ossa-ilia; and the mouth of the uterus was nearly closed, from being, as well as the vagina, extremely tumefied and inflamed, in consequence of the repeated and improper manual efforts of an inexperienced country midwife. The surgeon immediately employed blood-letting, tepid fomentations, and emollient clysters. No good arose from these means; and, the patient becoming affected with convulsions, the surgeon soon determined to resort to the cesarian operation, although he could not obtain the advice of any other surgeon, nor the aid of any assistant. He made an incision along the side of the linea alba through the integuments, parted aside the muscles, and, opening into the uterus, extracted a fœtus nearly in a state of putrefaction. He remarked, that the uterus was inflamed in an extraordinary degree, as well as the whole of the abdominal viscera. After this operation the lochia appeared, to which, in the progress of time, was joined some purulent matter. The wound cicatrized perfectly in a short space of time; and a tumor which presented in the left groin, which was opportunely opened, gave vent to pus collected in it, and was reduced and firmly cicatrized in twenty days. The patient in the mean time was re-established, became again pregnant, and had a most fortunate parturition.

It need hardly be observed, that, in the event of a woman, near the full time of pregnancy, dying undelivered, the cesarian operation ought always to be performed, with as little loss of time as possible; since by this measure a chance of preserving the child will be afforded; and several cases of such an operation, after the death of the mother, have been recorded, with the desired effect of saving the infant. "Wednesday, July 15, at Eddecastle, Staffordshire, the wife of Mr. Prescott, an exciseman, being killed by a flash of lightning, was opened, and a living male child taken out, which was immediately christened Jonah, and is like to live." *Gent. Mag.* 1747. See also Spence's *Midwifery* 1784, p. 495.

How long, after the death of the mother, the child may survive *in utero*, it is perhaps impossible to say; some authors mention twenty-four or forty-eight hours! In the late Dr. S. H. Jackson's *Cautions to Women* (1798), mention is made of a child extracted by the forceps, which, by the very praise-worthy and persevering exertions of Dr. Jackson, was restored to life, though the mother had been dead full half an hour before it was born.

The subject of the cesarian section is treated in an ample and ingenious manner by Dr. Denman in his *Introduction to Midwifery*, so often quoted; and by Dr. Hull of Manchester, in his *Defence of the Cesarian Operation*, 8vo. 1798. See also the *Memoirs of the Medical Society of London*, vol. v. for the curious case of Elizabeth Thompson, which is connected with the dispute between Osborne, Hull, and Simmons.

OF EXTRA-UTERINE GESTATION.—Gestation carried on in some other parts than the uterus, as in the abdomen, Fallopian tube, or ovarium, is scarcely less curious and mysterious than the subject of superfœtation.

In these matters, theory must be a most uncertain guide; and it is only from a well-arranged accumulation of observations that we can expect light to be thrown on these occasional deviations from the ordinary progress of nature in the situation and evolution of parts.

As yet, no facts have been advanced which are conclusive on the reality of extra-uterine abdominal pregnancy; and it is more than probable that those cases

which are termed abdominal or ventral, did not exist in the belly from the commencement of utero-gestation; but are the consequence of ova having escaped into the cavity of the abdomen, either by ulceration or laceration of the uterus.

Dr. Merriman has published two cases, which seem to establish the fact, that a *retroversion of the uterus* may exist at the full term of utero-gestation, and which go far to prove, that many cases on record, of supposed extra-uterine gestation of the *ventral kind*, were in reality cases of retroverted uterus. "There is something so repugnant (says the doctor) to all that we know of the processes of conception and generation, in supposing that an ovum, accidentally conveyed into the cavity of the abdomen, can there be lodged and nourished, and brought to perfection, altogether unconnected with the uterine system; that, unless the fact be clearly and unequivocally proved, it will hardly be believed."

In the majority of such cases, if the woman has not sunk under the first shock, such has been the constitutional disturbance that she has soon died; whilst, in several well-authenticated instances, a secretion of coagulable lymph has formed a new receptacle, in which the fœtus has quietly reposed for many years, until, by the rectum, or by an abscess pointing externally at some part of the abdomen, the different bones of the child have been expelled.

The three following cases are from the sixth, xxiid, and xlth, volumes of the *Philosophical Transactions*. We do not attach any great importance to them, especially to the second; yet we think them worthy of being presented to the notice of the student.

In the island of Nevis, in the West Indies, there was a negro-woman belonging to one Capt. Mead, who after being with child a year and a half, was at the last relieved by the navel, in this manner: about the 17th month, the woman being thought hydropical, her navel began to swell and imposthume. It swelled and grew livid of itself, and then broke and voided some quantity of ichorous matter, by which the woman had some ease. In about a month more it imposthumated again, to a far greater degree than before; on which the surgeon opened it, where it seemed most jetting out, which was the navel itself; and then, after voiding a great deal of thin ichor and matter, there appeared some bones, which startled him, not having seen the like before. It proved to be a child, the flesh of which was decayed. After the extraction of the bones, the woman was easy, and in a little time began to recover, she being very low, by reason of the great burden she had carried for a long time. She recovered; and had a child afterwards in the natural way. *Phil. Transf.* for 1697. p. 580.

The wife of Mr. Roper, at Coxwold, twelve miles from York, falling in labour, the midwife extracted the secundines, which offered first, but could not perceive any thing remaining. The woman's body falling, and being pretty easy for some days, and the uterus being contracted, the midwife took the secundines for a *mola*, or false conception; but in about a week more the patient began to discharge plenty of fetid matter by the vagina, which continued, and, in process of time, she felt a troublesome hardness on the hypogastrium, which increased daily for above six weeks; and so reduced her, that they despaired of her life. This lump and soreness wrought upwards to the umbilical region, and continued fixed there for about a month. At length, being very painful, the neighbouring women took it for a great boil, or imposthume, and applied what they usually do in such cases, to assist its suppuration and breaking; which had its effect, and it broke rather under the navel, discharging then, and afterwards, a great quantity of a thin fetid discoloured liquor. The part about it mortified, and the ulcer enlarged so that a man's hand might be introduced in it. It continued exceedingly painful, and emitted such a stench, that neither herself nor any one

she else could endure to look on it. A short time after they found some little bones wrought out of it, which being shown to me, (Mr. Christopher Birbeck, who transmitted the account,) I found them to be the bones of a child's finger, which made me curious of going to see her. When I examined the place, I perceived the fœtus in a confused heap, or mortified lump; for with my probe I felt several bones, and at that time extracted (after I had separated and dilated the mortification about it) above half the ribs, some vertebrae of the back, and other bones, and cut out above a pound of the child's mortified substance, as black as ink, with an extreme nauseous smell. And every second or third day for a month, I extracted what I could, being obliged to do it very slowly on account of the exceeding weakness of the patient, who certainly would have died in the operation, had I forcibly extracted it, and not given her time; for we were obliged every moment to support her with cordials; and after every operation she found herself lighter, and by degrees sweeter, which for the first time gave me hopes of her recovery. For not only the linea alba and muscles of the abdomen, but the peritonæum and omentum, were mortified to a great breadth, and the intestines lay fairly in view, and exposed to the air a long time. After extracting a part, and having a plentiful discharge of thin fetid matter, the other discharge downwards began to lessen and abate, so that I endeavoured to assist it by bandages and compresses, with detarging and drying injections up the vagina; by which means in a little time there was no discharge that way, and those parts soon became perfectly well; and in some time after the ulcer separated from its putrefaction, contracted and united, and has now been quite cicatrized near three months, all the abdomen being soft, easy, and well-conditioned. The woman laboured all this season at hay and corn harvest. I presume that, by the forcible extraction of the secundines, the uterus had been lacerated, and so ulcerated; and the woman being extremely weak, and constantly lying in bed, gave the more liberty for its working upwards. *Phil. Transf.* for 1701. p. 1000.

Sarah M'Kinna, living at Bentram, two miles from Clogher, in Ireland, was married at the age of sixteen years. Before her marriage she never had the appearance peculiar to women; but in a month after her marriage, those appearances showed themselves. Ten months after her marriage, she found the symptoms of pregnancy, and bore a child at the expiration of the usual time. Ten months after she was delivered of another; and each time had a speedy and easy delivery.

Two months after her second delivery, symptoms of pregnancy appeared again, and increased in proportion to the time; but at the end of nine months those symptoms began to abate, and in a little time she had no other reason for thinking she was with child, but an absolute stoppage of her catamenia. Nor had she, during the space of six years and some months, any one return of them; but for the greatest part of that time, especially the first four years, she was perpetually afflicted with most violent pains in the middle region of the abdomen. Some time in the seventh year after her last pregnancy, which ended in such an unusual manner, a swelling in her belly, and other symptoms, made her conclude she was again pregnant. About seven months after this uncertain account, a boil, as she thought, appeared about an inch and a half higher than her navel. During this time of her pregnancy she often found the symptoms of her being quick with child, till about six weeks before this boil, as she called it, appeared. It was attended with very great pain. She sent for one O'Neill, a butcher. This man came to her the Sunday after her message, and found her in an expiring condition. By this time the imposthumation had broken, and an elbow of the child had forced itself through it, and appeared in view. At the request of herself and friends, he undertook to administer relief to her, and made so large an incision above and be-

low the navel, as enabled him, by fixing his fingers under the jaws of the fœtus, to extract it; in which operation he met not with the least impediment. He afterwards looked into her belly, and, seeing something black, he put in his hand, and extracted, by pieces, a perfect skeleton of a child, and several pieces of black putrefied flesh. After the operation, he swathed her up; and in six weeks she pursued her business about the house. She had been in good health ever after; only she had a navel rupture, owing to the ignorance of the man in not applying a proper bandage. *Phil. Transf.* for 1741. p. 814.

An account has been inserted in the Medico-Chirurgical Transactions, vol. v. of a fœtus having been taken from the body of a woman where it had remained 52 years. The woman was a native of Gloucester, had been taken in labour as usual; but, owing to the unskilfulness of the midwife, was not delivered; in a few days after the woman got well, and lived to the age of eighty years, when she died of paralysis. Dr. Cheston, having learned the history of the case, opened the body, and found an ossified globe, which contained the perfect child, the legs and arms of which were somewhat compressed by this osseous mass, and in some parts absorption had taken place. The fœtus was livid, but not putrid; the bony shell in which it was enveloped was thick and hard. The labour occurred in December 1738; the woman died in February 1790.

Other, and very serious, impediments to labour are obstructions arising from the *soft parts*; such as, extreme narrowness or cicatrix of the vagina, or cohesion of the labia; collection of feces in the rectum; or malformation and extreme rigidity of the external parts. More serious impediments are—tumours in the uterus, thickening and induration of the mouth of the uterus, inversion of the uterus, laceration of the uterus, &c. &c.

Malformation or straitness of the external parts does not often prevent conception. Women have conceived though the orifice of the vagina has not been capable of permitting the introduction of even the little finger. And accidental obstructions, such as the presence of a hymen, or a cohesion of the labia, will not probably occasion much embarrassment to the accoucheur. The action of the uterus will alone be sufficient, in most cases, to overcome the difficulty. Should it, however, be found necessary to do more, an incision must be made through the obstruction; very great care being taken not to wound or injure any contiguous part.

Cicatrix of the vagina, in consequence of former injury, may appear at first to impede the progress of the infant; but it will always be found to yield to the pains, if the strength of the patient be supported, and proper means be adopted to counteract the effects of the long-continued labour throes. A case occurred some time ago to Dr. Hamilton, where a substance, of the hardness of gristle, as thick as an ordinary-sized finger, placed between the vagina and rectum, and apparently extending from the ramus of one ischium to that of the other, presented an unsurmountable obstacle to the passage of the child. He was called in after an unsuccessful attempt had been made to tear away the infant, and found the woman in a state of extreme danger. He was informed that five years before that period, she had had a very severe tedious labour, followed by great inflammation and suppuration of the external parts. The indurated part was cut through without the patient making any complaint, and the child was very easily extracted; but she survived the delivery only two days. The relations would not permit the body to be opened.

A collection of feces within the rectum has been known to occasion such resistance to the passage of the child, that the woman has died undelivered. In general, however, it is in the power of an active practitioner to empty the gut at the beginning of labour. (See Duncan's *Med. Com.* 1795. p. 340-47.) But if, from neglect, the head of the child be jammed in the pelvis, and immove-

ably

ably wedged in consequence of an accumulation of feces, it then becomes necessary to open the head.

Extreme rigidity of the external parts is one of the most frequent causes of obstruction which depends on the state of the soft parts. It takes place, in a greater or less degree, in the greatest number of women who lie in for the first time: and generally in all women who are considerably advanced in life before they have children. It is seldom that the resistance opposed by the external parts is so very great as to prove an invincible obstacle to labour. But, on many occasions, the long-continued pressure of the child on those parts produces the most disagreeable consequences, as inflammation of all these parts and of the bladder. Inflammation in those parts is always dangerous, for there seems to be a remarkable tendency to gangrene. Cases are on record where the whole parts have sloughed off, and where the rectum, vagina, and bladder, have formed one canal. Perhaps death is much preferable to life under such circumstances. Copious blood-letting, and the liberal use of some unctuous application, with time and patience, in general overcome the rigidity of the external parts. Placing the patient over the steam of hot water was formerly recommended in such cases; but this practice is now exploded.

DISORDERS of the UTERUS.

It is a curious fact, not only that conception sometimes takes place when there is a tumour within the womb, but also that pregnancy goes on to the full period. When this has happened, the tumour has been pushed down before the infant, and has filled up the passages. If this obstacle be ascertained at an early period of the labour, which it must be if the practitioner be in any ordinary degree skilful and attentive, the tumour may be pushed back, and the feet of the child may be brought down.

The following singular case of an excrescence on the *os uteri*, is stated by Dr. Denman, vol. ii. p. 65. "In June 1770, I was desired to see a patient in the eighth month of her pregnancy, who in the preceding night had a profuse hemorrhage. Her countenance showed the effects of the great loss of blood she had sustained; and, from the representation of the case given me by the gentleman who was first called in, I concluded that the placenta was fixed over the *os uteri*. On examination I felt a very large fleshy tumour at the extremity of the vagina, representing and nearly equalling in size the placenta, which I judged it to be. Had this been the case, there could not be a doubt of the propriety and necessity of delivering the patient speedily; and with that intention I passed my finger round the tumour, to discover the state of the *os uteri*. But this I could not find; and, on a more accurate examination, I was convinced that this tumour was an excrescence growing from the *os uteri*, with a very extended and broad basis. I then concluded that the patient was not with child, notwithstanding the distension of the abdomen, but that she laboured under some disease which resembled pregnancy, and that the hemorrhage was the consequence of the disease. A motion which was very evidently perceived when I applied my hand to the abdomen, did not prevail with me to alter this opinion.

"It was of all others a case in which a consultation was desirable, both to decide upon the disease, and the measures which it might be necessary to pursue; and several gentlemen of eminence were called in. That she was actually pregnant, was afterwards proved to the satisfaction of every one; and it was then concluded, that such means should be used as might prevent or lessen the hemorrhage, and that we should wait and see what efforts might be naturally made for accomplishing the delivery.

"No very urgent symptom occurred till the latter end of July, when the hemorrhage returned in a very alarm-

ing way, and it was thought necessary that the patient should be delivered. There was not a possibility of extirpating the tumour, and yet it was of such a size as to prevent the child from being born in any other way than by lessening the head. This was performed; but, after many attempts to extract the child, the patient was so exhausted, that it became necessary to leave her to her repose, and, very soon after our leaving her, she expired.

"We were permitted to examine the body. There was no appearance of disease in any of the abdominal viscera, or on the external surface of the uterus, which was of its regular form; and, when a large oval piece was taken out of the anterior part, the child, which had no marks of putrefaction, was found in a natural position. An incision was made on each side of the cervix to the vagina, and then a large cauliflower excrescence was found growing to the whole anterior part of the *os uteri*. The placenta adhered with its whole surface; so that the blood which she had lost must have been wholly discharged from the tumour. Were such a case again to occur, there could be no doubt respecting the propriety of fixing a ligature round the neck of the tumour."

In two cases, where a great thickening and induration of the neck and mouth of the womb, approaching to the nature of schirrhosity, had taken place previous to conception, the natural action of the uterus, though after a very considerable time indeed, assisted by copious blood-letting, eventually overcame the resistance. One of the patients died ten months after, with all the symptoms of real cancer uteri. The other was restored to perfect health after lying-in.

Dr. Denman has recorded (vol. ii. p. 73.) two cases, where the *enlarged ovarium* impeded the progress of the child. In the one case the head of the infant was opened, and the delivery completed by the crotchet; but the patient died at the distance of three weeks. In the other, a trocar was passed into the tumour, and a living child was born. The patient recovered from her lying-in; but died hectic at the end of six months. In such cases, the ovary may be pushed back, if the circumstance be discovered early enough.

References to sixteen other cases of this kind may be found in the 10th volume of the *Medico-Chirurgical Transactions*. These tumours have been of various sizes and degrees of firmness. Sometimes they have contained only a thin fluid; sometimes the contents have been of the consistence of honey; and sometimes there has been fatty matter, intermixed with long hair and teeth.

Whenever such tumours have been detected during labour, much doubt has generally been entertained respecting their nature and the proper mode of management. On some occasions the medical attendants have not thought it right to take any immediate step towards accelerating the delivery, because the patient was not considered to be in immediate danger; and it was hoped that the tumour would prove sufficiently compressible to allow the child to pass, when strong pains should come on. And, where the tumour was not very large nor very firm, this method has been successful. Some have taught, that, in such cases, there should be no delay in employing the perforator; considering it more advisable to sacrifice at once the life of the child, than to hazard that of the mother. If, by this sacrifice of the child's life, the mother's could be always ensured, the practice might be defensible; but, unfortunately, it has happened, that in three cases out of five, in which the perforator was employed, the mother did not recover; and in one of the other cases the mother's recovery was very incomplete. Sometimes with the view of preserving the child, or from some other reason, the operation of turning has been undertaken; but this does not appear to have been a successful mode of practice, either to the mothers or the infants. Sometimes the tumours have been opened with the view of diminishing their bulk; but in several instances

instances it has become necessary afterwards to perforate the fetal head, and even then the delivery has been extremely difficult, and ultimately destructive to the mother. But upon the whole, the evidence we at present possess, is more in favour of opening the tumours, when they contain a fluid, than of any other mode of procedure. The first plate in Merriman's Synopsis represents a case of an ovarian tumor impeding delivery: it has indeed a very formidable appearance; but the doctor does not inform us what mode was pursued, nor with what success.

Lacerated or ruptured Uterus.—The most fatal accident perhaps to which parturient women are liable is rupture of the uterus. This occurrence most usually takes place in protracted labours, where the uterine contraction has continued for a considerable time, though in other respects the labour often appears perfectly natural. The laceration occurs in different parts of the uterus; but its most general seat is near the cervix, the fundus rarely being torn. The peritoneal coat of the uterus is sometimes ruptured without involving the structure of the uterus itself; and, vice versa, the uterus may be lacerated without the peritoneal covering participating in the injury; in which cases (it is hardly necessary to add) the symptoms connected with the escape of the fœtus into the abdominal cavity are not manifest.

We are not acquainted with any certain symptoms by which this mournful occurrence may be foreseen; nor is the cause of it known with precision. In many instances, however, it is produced by extensive injuries, as blows, falls, kicks, &c. and not unfrequently by the incautious use of instruments or by forcible attempts to turn the fœtus in utero: it is likewise brought on by tumours in the vagina, exostoses, cartilaginous hardness of the os uteri, or by an unusual sharpness of certain processes of the pelvic bones. Dr. Rambotham is disposed to think that a *thinning* of some part of the uterus, from undue pressure during pregnancy, may be a common cause; and Mrs. Boivin, a French midwife, mentions that, in a woman who died soon after delivery at the Maternité, whose pelvis measured only two inches and three quarters from pubis to sacrum, the uterus, at a few lines above its neck, in the situation corresponding with the sacro-vertebral angle, appeared to be very nearly *worn through* for the space of two-thirds of an inch, being in this part not above the eighth part of a line (96th part of an inch) in thickness. The cases of Denman, Bye, and several others, show also the effect of undue pressure on some projecting point of the bones of the pelvis, in the production of this accident.

The following are the symptoms of this affection.—During the continuance of an expulsive effort, the patient complains of an excruciating pain at some particular spot in the abdomen, which she describes as much differing from common labour-pains, and is so severe that it makes her shriek loudly; it is accompanied by a sensation of something bursting internally, and the burthen appears to rise up from the pelvis into the abdomen; vomiting succeeds immediately afterwards, and uterine action becomes suspended at once, or is gradually rendered weaker: syncope, great prostration of strength, coldness of the extremities, and hemorrhage, occur; respiration is hurried and anxious; the pulse sinks, is rapid and tremulous, and the patient expires in the course of a few hours. Sometimes death is quicker in its progress; for the woman has been observed to become extremely restless after the accident, to gasp and expire immediately: in other cases she is destroyed more slowly by inflammation; and instances are mentioned in which the fœtus has found an exit in process of time through the parietes of the abdomen.

With respect to the treatment of this malady, it was recommended by Smellie, Denman, and Hunter, not to attempt delivery, but trust to the efforts of nature. Recovery however so seldom occurred with this management, that it was afterwards thought more advisable to

extract the fœtus; and the favourable results of such practice seem to place the propriety of it beyond doubt. The delivery may be effected according to the circumstances of the case, by turning the fœtus and bringing down the legs, by means of the crotchet, or by gastrotomy. In the selection of these methods we must be guided by the size of the pelvis, the size and situation of the child, and by the degree of hemorrhage or contraction of the uterus.

We shall insert one curious and recent case, which occurred to the observation of M. Bertrand, a surgeon at Méry-sur-Seine, in France. E. Laurent, 40 years of age, having arrived within a fortnight of the completion of the ninth month of her eighth pregnancy, used some powerful exertions in loading a cart, on the 9th of July, 1811. During this effort, she suddenly experienced very severe uterine pains, accompanied with the escape of some water, and afterwards of blood, from the vagina. The pain and hemorrhage ceased on the patient being placed in bed. This state of calmness continued until the 15th, when the abdomen became tumefied, painful, and symptoms of the presence of inflammation were developed. Towards the end of the month, symptoms of extreme debility succeeded this inflammatory state, and the patient seemed to be on the verge of death. At last, a red circular spot appeared between the navel and the pubes, which was soon converted into an eschar surrounded by a red circle, which separated on the 13th of August, and gave vent to a large quantity of flocculent, puriform, and extremely fetid, fluid; and then to the decomposed body of a fœtus, which appeared to be of the full period. The severity of the symptoms soon disappeared; the strength of the patient was restored; the wound gradually diminished, and, towards the end of September, perfectly healed. Menstruation appeared four months afterwards, and has continued regularly ever since. It should be remarked, that, on the escape of the fœtus, M. Bertrand passed his left hand into the cavity of the uterus, which he could fully explore; and, carrying the fore finger of the right hand into the vagina, he encountered with it that of the left, which had been directed towards the mouth of the uterus. M. Bertrand thinks that the infant lost its life at the time when the violent exertion of the mother gave rise to the severe pains and the rupture of the membranes; that it remained in the uterus; and that some projecting part of its body pressing forcibly against some point of the uterus, produced inflammation of that organ, which was communicated to the adjacent parts, and terminated in the eschar comprising the paries of the uterus and the corresponding part of the abdomen. *London Med. Journal*, vol. xliii. p. lxxxv.

A case occurred to Dr. Bromfield, of rupture of the uterus, where the patient died undelivered; respecting which, he thought it expedient to make an affidavit, which was sworn before Charles Marsh, esq. one of his majesty's justices of the peace for the city and liberty of Westminster; declaring, "that he never passed either of his hands into the vagina, or more than one finger of either hand; and that he used no instrument or force of any kind." On what account this affidavit was thought necessary, from a physician of Dr. Bromfield's rank and eminence in his profession, does not appear.

The most extraordinary accident of this sort on record, is that related in one of the volumes of the Edinburgh Medical Essays, where not only the uterus, but the abdominal parietes also, burst, and exposed the fœtus.

Inversion or Retroversion of the Uterus.—This accident usually happens during the enlarged and dilated state of the uterus, immediately after delivery, and is commonly attributable to a hasty and incautious attempt to bring away the placenta. It has been supposed, that the exploded practice of dragging at the funis, to extract the placenta immediately after the birth of the child, was the principal cause of this misfortune; but there can be

no doubt, that a spontaneous inversion has sometimes occurred.

When the uterus, with the placenta attached to it, is drawn in an inverted state without the vagina, no doubt can exist as to the nature of the accident; but, if it should happen after the exclusion of the placenta, more difficulty in forming an opinion would arise. The following rules, however, would lead to a correct judgment. If a globular tumour is found soon after delivery, in the vagina, or protruded through the os externum, it must be supposed to be, either a polypous excrescence, a prolapsed uterus, or an inverted uterus. If it were a polypus, it would be known by its insensibility, its mobility, and its pedicle, which a careful examination could hardly fail to discover: the edges of the os uteri surrounding the tumour would likewise be perceptible. A prolapsed uterus may always be known, by the os uteri being situated at the most depending part of the tumour. The inverted uterus is sensible to the touch, is less moveable than the polypus, has no pedicle, nor a dependent mouth; in a recent state it is entirely covered with a grumous discharge, proceeding from numberless blood-vessels upon its whole surface.

The presence of an *inverted uterus* being ascertained, it becomes the accoucheur to use the most prompt and decisive means of relieving his patient: and this can only be done by immediately re-inverting the uterus. To effect this, he must first return the uterus within the vagina; then, having his arm bare and well smeared with lard, he must pass his hand through the os externum, and, resting the backs of his folded fingers against the *fundus uteri*, he must carry it forward, till he finds his hand within the cavity of the uterus; and, still pursuing his object, he must push his hand onwards, till he is fully satisfied that he has completely re-inverted the uterus, and that the contraction of the os uteri will prevent any future mischief.

Puzos, Dionis, and others, have recommended to remove the placenta from the inverted uterus, before any attempt is made to revert the womb: but Dr. Denman and other writers, consider it better to return the inversion, while the placenta is still attached.

A case of the latter kind, which occurred in the practice of Mr. Browne of Camberwell, is related in the Memoirs of the Medical Society of London, vol. v. Elizabeth Emmett, a woman of a good habit of body, and tolerably well proportioned, sent for me to attend her in labour, between two and three o'clock in the morning of Monday, Sept. 19, 1796. About nine o'clock, a rupture of the membranes took place, and it appeared clearly to be a footling case, which I delivered in the usual way. The child was dead, and in a very sphacelated state. After the delivery some pain ensued; and, by a very slight effort to extract the secundines, the funis broke (it being also very putrid). The pains, however, not only continued, but became more, excessive, with a degree of bearing-down hardly to be conceived; and an actual inversion of the uterus, with the placenta completely adhering, took place. The dangerous state of the patient admitted of no delay; and having considered whether I should separate the placenta, and return the uterus, or reduce both together, on passing my finger round the placenta, finding it in no part detached from the uterus, I determined on returning them together, and happily succeeded. During this time no hemorrhage ensued, and I was therefore very averse to excite one, which a hasty separation of the secundines, in that relaxed state of the uterus, must have occasioned; having therefore waited a considerable time, (the patient being as little disturbed as might be expected, considering what had occurred,) I endeavoured to impress on the minds of the friends present, that no inconvenience would result: I gave her an anodyne, and directed proper nourishment, and such febrifuge aperient medicines as were requisite to prevent inflammatory symptoms, which, indeed, did not

intervene; and on Thursday, September 22, in the evening, four days from the time of her delivery, a sanguineous discharge, to no great degree, took place, which gave me hopes that the contraction of the uterus was spontaneously occurring: the expulsion of the burden (which I anxiously waited for) happened on Friday the 23d, after a retention of five days, and at this time, (now more than a month from her being put to bed) she has every appearance of recovering as favourably as in any of her former labours, she having had thirteen children.

"The death of the fœtus, by the mother's account, appears to have taken place about the 20th of August, she having on that day accidentally received a severe blow on the abdomen, and never felt it move from that period. The fœtus and funis, as before observed, were highly putrid and offensive; the placenta, on the contrary, was perfectly sound, and had acquired its original size, no doubt, from the maternal circulation being continued till its expulsion."

In the two following cases, the placenta was separated before the uterus was replaced. We do not, however, quote them merely on that account, but because they are related with great perspicuity, and exhibit the highest skill, judgment, and dexterity, in the operators, Dr. Squire and Dr. Merriman.

Case by Dr. Squire.—"Mrs. Schroeder, Green-court, Brewer-street, aged about 21, after the birth of her first child, had the uterus completely inverted, with the placenta adhering to the fundus. The midwife, who attended her, sent for me, and I was with the patient about twenty minutes after the accident; and, on enquiring into the situation of the poor woman, I was informed there had been a profuse hemorrhage, and the people about her supposed her really dead; nor had she indeed much appearance of life, for there was no pulse at the wrist, nor could it be perceived that she breathed.

"Examining, I found the uterus completely inverted, and immediately separated the placenta; and, whilst I was attempting to replace the uterus, Dr. Douglas, who had been likewise sent for, came into the room. By keeping a steady and firm pressure at the fundus, the uterus passed gradually before my hand; but, when getting just above the arch of the pubes, it shot up suddenly *with a kind of spring*, as is frequently perceived in a rupture, when a part of the contents has been returned. Dr. Douglas assisted me, and we were both satisfied that the uterus was replaced. We remained with the poor woman for some time, it being long doubtful whether she would not have died from the great loss of blood; and it was near an hour before it could be pronounced that there was a probable chance of her recovery. The day following, a fever supervened, with a tense abdomen and great pain, which lasted several days. Dr. Douglas visited with me till we saw the patient free from danger. At the end of the month she was perfectly recovered. About fourteen months after this accident, she brought forth another child without any untoward symptom in or after labour."

By Dr. Merriman—"In January 1802, Mrs. Edwards, residing in Brick-street, Piccadilly, was delivered of her first child by Mrs. Cobb, a midwife of much practice. The labour was natural, and of no considerable duration. Some little time after the child was born, the midwife endeavoured, by tightening the navel-string, to extract the placenta, when a violent pain came on, and the uterus was completely inverted, the placenta remaining attached to it. On this, my friend the late Dr. Seares was immediately called in; and he, finding things in this state, desired that I might likewise be sent for. When I arrived, which was in about fifteen or twenty minutes after the accident happened, the body of the uterus, with the adhering placenta, was lying without the os externum; blood was flowing profusely from the internal surface of the uterus, especially from those parts where the placenta was detached; and the woman was in such an exhausted

state, that we doubted if she could survive till the uterus should be replaced. We perfectly coincided in opinion respecting the plan to be pursued; and, as no time was to be lost, Dr. Seares removed the partially-separated placenta, and returned the uterus within the vagina, while I was laying bare my arm. I then introduced my hand, carrying the fundus uteri before me, till I had passed my arm *quite to the elbow* within the vagina; at this moment I found the fundus uteri *spring from the back of my hand*, and the os uteri began to contract; I therefore cautiously withdrew my hand, and soon had the satisfaction to find that the hemorrhage ceased. Mrs. E. during the whole operation, was in a state of syncope; but, on our giving her some wine and other cordials, she revived, and afterwards recovered perfectly without a single bad symptom. She has since borne several children, and has never found any inconvenience from this alarming and dangerous accident.

"Had a very little time longer been suffered to elapse, before this inversion was reduced, either the patient would have sunk beyond recovery, from the profuse hemorrhage; or, had the hemorrhage been stopped by the contraction of the uterus, that very contraction would have prevented us from making any impression on the fundus, and the os uteri would have been closely shut against any attempt we could have made to relax it. Delay indeed, in such cases, is, above every thing, to be deprecated; for sometimes the contraction of the womb is so rapid, that, unless the inversion be reduced in a few minutes after the accident has happened, all attempts to return it will be ineffectual." Yet in White's Midwifery, 5th ed. (1791.) a case of inversion is recorded, in which, by grasping with the hand, and thus compressing the uterus, Mr. W. succeeded in re-inverting it, though as much as *two hours* must have elapsed after the accident. In general a much shorter space of time than this is sufficient to render the reduction impracticable.

A case of *spontaneous inversion of the uterus* occurred in the practice of the late Dr. Merriman.—Mrs. Bishop was so much distorted in the pelvis, that it was found impossible for her to be delivered, till the child's head had been lessened by the perforator. Having several times successfully undergone this process, she was at last prevailed upon to have premature labour induced, when in the eighth month of pregnancy; but, the child presenting the nates, it was unfortunately dead born. Mrs. Bishop, however, suffered, comparatively, so little from this labour, and recovered so well and so speedily after it, that, in her next pregnancy, she was quite impatient for a repetition of the operation.

"On this occasion, the membranes were not pierced: but the connexion between the chorion and the uterus was destroyed, by means of the common long flat female catheter, carefully introduced between them. In consequence of this irritation, a muco-sanguineous discharge was produced, and the labour came on in two or three days. The child was born alive, and in health, and the placenta came away without any difficulty, and certainly without any suspicion of injury to the uterus. The mother recovered in the usual time, and was enabled to suckle her child, a fine boy. Between six and seven months after her delivery, and while the child was still living upon the breast, upon some slight strain, she suddenly felt something give way within her, and immediately afterwards was sensible of a weight or pressure low down in the vagina; upon which the late Dr. Rowley was sent for, who, upon examination, found the fundus uteri so low in the vagina as almost to protrude through the os externum. Dr. Rowley, finding matters in this situation, sent for Dr. Merriman, and they jointly endeavoured to re-invert the uterus; Dr. Denman likewise, and several other accoucheurs, saw the case; but no means that could be used were successful in restoring the parts to their natural state; and the patient remained with the uterus in

this state till her death, which occurred in about two years."

Mr. White, surgeon, of Paisley, after relating a case of inverted uterus which terminated successfully under his management, concludes as follows: As, in making the reduction in the above case, I experienced much inconvenience from the shortness and smallness of my fingers, I would beg leave to propose the trial of the following simple instrument, if the like difficulty should ever happen to any other practitioner. It consists of a bit of light wood, about fourteen inches long, not quite cylindrical, but slightly tapering from the ends to the middle, and the ends rounded, like the head of a walking-cane. The diameter of the one extremity is an inch, and the other an inch and three quarters; the one or the other to be employed as the particular circumstances of the case may seem best to suit. The whole of it is covered with smooth and soft leather, and the ends are thickly stuffed with wool or soft hair; so that they can hardly do any injury to the uterus, unless employed in the most inattentive and improper manner." Duncan's Med. Com. 1795.

Many writers, on the other hand, have suggested the propriety of amputating the uterus, when in a state of inversion; but, so great a dread has been generally entertained of such an operation, that, though cases have been cited from ancient authors to prove its possibility, yet in modern times, the excision of the uterus does not appear to have been attempted till of late years. Mr. Chevalier extirpated the uterus of a poor woman, in 1804, who lived many years afterwards: and other cases have been recorded by other surgeons. Notwithstanding, therefore, the incredulity of some writers, respecting the truth and accuracy of the cases cited, (and little doubt can be entertained, that mistakes have been committed on the subject,) the fact, that the operation has been several times safely performed, is fully established. The case furnished by Mr. Chevalier is given by Dr. Merriman, Synopsis, p. 286. with an engraving.

A case of favourable termination of parturition by the natural efforts, when there was complete *hernia of the uterus* has been related to the Royal Medical Society of Copenhagen, by Mr. Saxthorpe. There is not, it is suspected, a similar instance recorded in the annals of medicine. It was not precisely evident whether the uterus passed from the belly above or below Poupart's ligament. It reached nearly to the knee, on the right side. The mother declared that she felt the motions of the fœtus in it, as she had done in former pregnancies, when the uterus was within the abdomen. These motions were, towards the termination of the ordinary period of gestation, sensible to the physicians who examined her, on handling the tumour. The shape was precisely that of the uterus in ordinary pregnancies at the same period. The woman had had a tumour in the groin appear in her childhood, after a fall. Her last pregnancy had been four years previously. Soon after that, she remarked that the tumour was about the size of a turnip. About the usual epoch, pains like those of ordinary labour were experienced in the tumour; and this could be discerned contracting from the fundus. The mouth of the uterus (which could be felt as usual from the vagina, but not its neck) began to dilate; the head of the fœtus presented, and the labour was completed without the occurrence of any remarkable circumstance. The infant was dead; it was of the female sex, weighed five pounds and a half, was eighteen inches in length, and the head was five inches and a half in diameter from the occiput to the chin. The tumour was found to be much lessened in size immediately after the expulsion of the fœtus, and it could then be discerned that it did not escape from a natural opening, but between the fibres of the abdominal muscles. The history of this case is detailed in the London Medical and Physical Journal for March 1820. It terminated very fortunately: the delivery was effected on the 2d of October,

1817; and in twenty days the strength of the patient was completely re-established, and she returned home to her village.

Imperforated Uterus.—In the *Algemeine Medizinische Annalen* for 1819, a case is related by Dr. Bonisch of Leipzig, which is stated to have been an instance of want of mouth of the uterus. This point is, however, not well established. The subject was a woman who was married in her twenty fourth year to a healthy man; but, though they cohabited for eleven years, she did not become pregnant. She had every month the menstrual orgasm, and suffered much pain in the belly: but only a few drops of blood were evacuated from the vagina. After the death of her first husband she soon married again, and became pregnant. After she had been some time in labour, Dr. Bonisch was called to her. She was much exhausted. On making an examination, he could find no os uteri; but a spherical body presented in its place, which was evidently the uterus. He determined to make an artificial opening in this; which was effected. The head of the fetus presented, and was born alive. No very considerable quantity of blood was lost. No great degree of inflammation came on in the parts about the wound. The lochia were discharged from it in the ordinary way. The edges of the wound had healed at the end of eight weeks; leaving, however, an opening like an artificial os uteri. The mother has since been in good health, and has menstruated like other women; but, although three years had elapsed at the time this history was drawn up, she had not again become pregnant.

The want of the flow of the menses before the operation, and the appearance of them since, certainly somewhat favour the notion of the want of the existence of an os uteri: otherwise it might be considered merely as a case of retroversion of the uterus. The fact, however, of the favourable result of such an operation merits being recorded. *Dr. Hutchinson's Præmium to the 43d vol. of the London Med. Journal.*

Absence of the Uterus.—We can have little hesitation in referring the peculiarities of the female character and constitution to the action of the generative organs *taken all together*. But, although the great importance of the uterine system is so strenuously insisted on, and so universally admitted, that Van Helmont says *Propter uterum solum mulier est id quod est*;—yet we shall find, that, during the entire absence of the uterus, a woman may enjoy a good state of health, and perform all the functions of life except menstruation and conception; and live to a mature age, and marry, without being aware of the want of this important organ.

The history of this interesting case is related with much minuteness by Professor Stein, of Bonn in Prussia. A lady, twenty-four years of age, had been married five years without having ever menstruated; although the orgasm generally accompanying the appearance of the menses, with some distress about the pubes, had recurred at the ordinary periods. After having expected the establishment of this function until her hopes were almost lost, and perceiving her health to be on the decline, being affected with oppression of respiration, and occasional fits of fainting, she permitted a midwife to examine her, for the purpose of ascertaining if there existed any mechanical obstruction. A firm membrane, supposed to be the hymen in a state of unusual thickness, was detected; Professor Stein was consequently consulted. He describes the patient as presenting the most perfect characteristics of the female form: slender and delicate; with *full breasts*, a fair complexion, and an animated countenance, expressive of the finest sensibility: her manners were particularly delicate; and she seemed, indeed, to be a model for her species. On making a slight examination in the erect posture of the patient, the account of the midwife appeared to be correct; and the usual instruments were prepared for dividing the membrane in the ordinary way: but, on making pressure on it with the

finger and scalpel, it retreated inwards, about half the common depth of the vagina, and it was then discovered that this membrane formed a sort of sac. But, from the characteristic habit of the lady, and the maladies she had experienced, no suspicion of a want of the uterus was entertained: it was considered that the sac had been originally a plane membrane of the kind so commonly met with in the vagina of females, which had been stretched into its present form by sexual intercourse and by irritation, and from the same causes made to acquire the great thickness and firmness it presented. Difficulty attended the division of the end of this sac, from the firmness of its texture, and the narrowness of the vagina; but this was effected by making a perforation in it, and then bringing it down as far as possible by the finger introduced into the incision. A rather copious hemorrhage ensued. The absence of the uterus was now discovered: on introducing the finger beyond the opening in the sac, it encountered a soft, spongy, penetrable, substance, evidently a mass of cellular tissue. Some similar cases, which Professor Stein found by searching literary records, which we shall immediately notice, with a subsequent examination, confirmed him in his former conclusion. The wound united very well by the use of bandages, &c. and no serious accident ensued.

We shall here adduce the account given by Theden of a case precisely similar in character to that of Professor Stein; and then a description of the appearances discovered, on dissection, in two bodies, by Engel, and Schmucker.

Theden's case was that of a young woman who had never menstruated, although the orgasm had regularly been manifest. Marriage was advised, as a probable means for remedying this disorder: and it was accordingly resorted to. An obstruction of the vagina was then detected: but the husband had, before Theden was consulted on the case, distended the obstructing membrane into a sort of pouch of the size of a hen's egg: this was hanging without the external orifice of the vagina, and was removed by incision. On introducing the finger behind the pubes, a cavity was discovered, terminated by a mass of cellular texture, through which the pressure of the intestines was supposed to be discerned; but not the smallest evidence of the existence of a uterus could be discovered. The incised parts united very well, and no accident is said to have ensued.

Schmucker, in his *Vermischte Schriften*, speaks of a body that was brought to him, which had been found in a field, presenting, externally, the female characteristics: the breasts were remarkably prominent; but the genital parts were of small size, and the orifice of the vagina closed by a membrane, externally, apparently a continuation of the skin. The uterus and vagina were wanting; the place which the former should have occupied, was filled with a mass of loose cellular texture, in which the ovaries and fallopian tubes were situated. Engel's patient was also a woman whose habits were not known: it appears that the body accidentally came under his observation. The breasts were remarkably full; the orifice of the genitals was closed; there was neither vagina nor uterus: the ovaries and fallopian tubes were found attached to the bladder.

The physiological indications which those cases furnish had been already pretty well ascertained; but they serve to confirm the opinion that it is the *ovaries* in which the menstrual orgasm originates, and which, by their influence, give to the woman her characteristics in respect to form and manners. When the ovaries have been originally wanting, the hermaphroditical character of the body generally has been constantly present. A curious case in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1805, in which the ovaria were deficient, shows that such a deficiency occasions the female to approach in some points to the male formation. The subject of this narrative died at the age of twenty-nine. "Having ceased to grow at ten

ten years of age, she was in stature not more than four feet six inches high. Her breadth across the shoulders was as much as fourteen inches, but her pelvis (contrary to what is usually observed in the proportions of the female skeleton) measured only nine inches from the os ilia across the sacrum. Her breasts and nipples never enlarged more than in the male subject; she never menstruated: there was no appearance of hair on the pubes, nor were there any indications of puberty, either in mind or body, even at twenty-nine years of age." The removal of the ovaries has been most rarely practised in the human subject: probably the only case in which it has ever been done is that recorded by Mr. Pott, where these bodies were contained in inguinal herniæ. A healthy young woman, aged twenty-three, large-breasted, stout, and menstruating regularly, had a painful tumour in each groin, near the abdominal muscles. The ovaria were removed (by mistake it is said) from these tumours by a surgical operation: "She has enjoyed good health ever since, but is become thinner and more apparently muscular; her breasts, which were large, are gone; nor has she ever menstruated since the operation, which is now some years." Pott's Works, vol. iii. p. 329. Here, then, we have fairly reached the end of our enquiries upon this part of our subject; for, without ovaries and without uterus, there can be no conception, no PARTURITION!

OF LABOURS attended with CONVULSIONS.

In some irritable constitutions, the women become convulsed in the course of the labour. This accident more frequently occurs with first than with subsequent children. At whatever time convulsions make their attack, they never completely leave the woman until the labour is over, and sometimes not until the next or subsequent day. In very mild cases, the brain seems but little affected by the convulsions, which partake of the nature of hysterical convulsions: these cases are easily curable, or give way spontaneously when the labour is completed. Of whatever nature, or from whatever causes, puerperal convulsions may proceed, they assist very much in forcing down the child.

At whatever period or state of convulsive labour the accoucheur may be called in, he will generally find it expedient to take away six, eight, ten, or twelve ounces of blood from the arm; and in the space of two hours after, (unless the child is coming into the world,) this should be followed by a clyster to empty the bowels. After the operation of the clyster, from twenty to thirty drops of the tincture of opium may be advantageously given, which will generally succeed in making the fits less frequent and violent. The labour must now be conducted in the same manner it would have been, if it had not been interrupted by the convulsions. If the child presents in a natural posture, and the pelvis of the woman is of the natural form and dimensions, it will be found that the convulsions have assisted much in dilating the os internum, and in accelerating the completion of the labour. If any other part than the head of the child presents, as soon as the internal orifice is sufficiently dilated, the accoucheur will pass his hand into the uterus, and turn the child, and bring it by its feet.

Sometimes, however, the convulsions become so extremely violent as to occasion extreme danger both to mother and child. The woman is quite insensible during the fit, which consists of violent distortions of the muscles which move the body, and of those of the eyes, the face, and the lower jaw. The fit, as it may be called, lasts in some cases only a few seconds, and in others for several minutes. After the fit has ceased, it sometimes happens that the patient remains in a comatose state; in other cases, the sensibility returns.

Thus, then, what in a mild form may be called *convulsions*, will now acquire the name of *epileptic fits*, for such

they really are, and occurring with dreadful frequency: and accordingly, Dr. Merriman, who, in the early editions of his Synopsis, names this order of labours *Dyslocia convulsiva*, now calls it *D. epileptica*; and he adds, "The cases, alone deserving the appellation of *puerperal convulsions*, which have fallen under my observation, have borne a very exact resemblance to the epilepsy; and this accords with the description of the complaint by the best authors on midwifery."

Dr. Hunter, Dr. Lowder, and other teachers of midwifery, used to state in their lectures, that more than half of the women died, who were attacked with convulsions in their labours. Dr. Parr, in his Medical Dictionary, states even a larger amount of fatal cases; he says that, "six or seven in ten elude the most active and best concerted measures." And Jacobs, in his *Ecole Pratique des Accouchemens*, says that it is always fatal; scarce an instance of recovery is known. In modern practice, the proportion of deaths is by no means so great.

It is probable, that hysterical paroxysms have sometimes been mistaken for the true puerperal convulsions; at least, if we may judge from the rapid cures, that have been said to be made by, as it seems, very inadequate means. It is therefore of importance to distinguish genuine puerperal convulsions from hysterical paroxysms, which they often very much resemble. They may be discriminated by bearing in mind, that in hysteria the pulse is rarely affected; the paroxysms come on without the usual premonitory symptoms of convulsions, and attack feeble irritable women rather than those who are plethoric and robust, the usual subjects of convulsion. The fit of hysteria is associated with *globus hystericus* and palpitation of the heart, and is not followed by coma.

The management of puerperal convulsions divides itself into two leading indications: First, to unload the vessels of the brain; and Secondly, to remove the exciting cause, whatever it may be.

1. To secure the first indication, says Dr. Conquest, the *lancet* must be considered as the sheet-anchor on which the practitioner must depend. It is of the greatest moment that the blood be abstracted early, rapidly, and abundantly; that the vessels of the brain may be brought into a state of collapse. If possible, on the accession of the premonitory symptoms, the temporal artery or the jugular vein should be opened; if not, a vein in both arms, and the incision should be so large that a considerable quantity of blood can be withdrawn in a short time. In this formidable disease, the quantity of blood must not be measured by ounces, but by the effects it may produce on the convulsions; and it will often be necessary to repeat the blood-letting again and again within the first few hours. Having unloaded the cerebral vessels in some measure, by the rapid and early detraction of from forty to fifty ounces of blood, should the symptoms not be suspended, from fifteen to twenty ounces may be removed by cupping-glasses applied to the nape of the neck.

If the patient is able to swallow, a pill containing from five to ten grains of calomel should be got down; or the calomel, mixed with moist sugar, may be put into the mouth, and it will be swallowed involuntarily. This should be followed by a solution of salts, every three or four hours, till sufficient stools are procured.

The use of *emetics*, on the attack of puerperal convulsions, has been reprobated in very strong terms by Mauriceau, Levret, and others. But, when there is good reason to suspect an overloaded stomach, an emetic seems to be so appropriate a remedy, that we need not hesitate to employ it. "I do not recollect (says Dr. Merriman) to have given medicines expressly for the purpose of exciting vomiting, but have sometimes seen vomiting take place in consequence of the dose of calomel, and sometimes spontaneously; and have always thought it was rather beneficial than otherwise. Dr. Bard, of New York, in his *Compendium of Midwifery* (1808), says, 8 R "after

"after having emptied the vessels by bleeding, and the bowels by clyster, an emetic will frequently be found of great use, particularly if the stomach is distended, or it should appear that the patient had eaten freely not long before the access of the fit."

The head should be shaved, and a cold wash should be kept constantly applied upon it. Dr. Denman recommended to have the face of the patient frequently dashed with cold water, by means of a bundle of feathers, more especially on each attack of the convulsions. Dr. Hamilton, of Edinburgh, says, that both this remedy and the vomiting aggravate the symptoms; but Mr. Hogben recommends, in addition, the "ringing a large bell, springing a watchman's rattle, or beating a drum, close to the woman's bedside."

In our opinion, the exhibition of nauseating doses of *antimonium tartarizatum* will be highly conducive to the reduction of vascular action; and with this intention may be conjoined with the purgative medicines.

2. The second indication is to be fulfilled after ascertaining the exciting cause, which it is often very difficult to do. It will always be prudent to empty the bladder and bowels; and it will sometimes happen, that, after one or two copious and extremely-offensive and dark-coloured motions have been obtained, the paroxysms cease. But the condition of the uterus is the point now demanding the most attentive consideration; and it is to be feared, that in many instances too much importance has been attached to the immediate emptying of this organ, when it has led to the omission of blood-letting and purging. The result of careful observations made on the influence of delivery over puerperal convulsions seems to be,

First. That, if the os uteri be rigid and undilated, any attempt to empty the uterus by the introduction of the hand into the uterus to expedite delivery, aggravates the convulsions; and, even when the mouth of the womb is open, such an attempt will often bring back the paroxysms.

Secondly. In most instances, the os uteri dilates rapidly in these mournful cases, or is easily dilatable; and in general, the parturient efforts are so powerful and frequent, that little advantage can be gained by any manual interference, until the head descends so low in the cavity of the pelvis, as to be easily embraced by the short forceps.

Thirdly. Should very urgent symptoms appear to justify delivery before the head of the child has descended so low as to be within the reach of the short forceps, either the long forceps or perforator are to be preferred to the introduction of the hand into the uterus, should the attempt to turn produce any recurrence of convulsions.

It does not always happen, that the convulsions cease upon the termination of the labour; on the contrary, they often continue after the birth of the child, and sometimes increase in violence, and at length produce death. If, however, the intervals between the fits become longer, a more favourable prognosis may be formed; but it will be expedient to continue our exertions in relieving the symptoms. The application of the cold wash to the head should therefore be persevered in: a blister may be applied to the back, to the insides of the thighs, or calfs of the legs: sinapisms may be applied to the feet; and, if the patient can swallow, aperient medicines, antifebriles, and light cordials, should be given. Great attention must be paid to the state of the bladder, as the patient sometimes suffers under an inability of expelling her urine; in which case, the catheter should be introduced twice a-day.

When at length the patient recovers, she remains generally insensible of all that has happened to her; her strength slowly returns, and eventually no trace remains of the disease, nor is there much danger of its recurring in a future labour. But Dr. Merriman mentions two or three cases of mania occurring, as soon as the convulsions

ceased, and remaining for some weeks, yet the patients ultimately got well.

Dr. Merriman has stated the results of 36 cases of puerperal convulsions which came under his care, and in which the lancet was used with great freedom, as here recommended. Twenty-eight of the women recovered; and "several of them, from apprehension of a similar attack in their next pregnancy, were bled at their own request, when approaching the full term; and to others it was recommended, on account of severe pains in the head; and there has been no instance of a return of convulsions in their future labours." Synopsis, p. 141. 3d edit.

OF UTERINE HEMORRHAGE.

Hemorrhage from the uterus is always an alarming occurrence. In the unimpregnated state, it frequently evinces a disease of that organ. In the early months of pregnancy it often terminates in abortion; in the latter months it is full of peril both to mother and child; and, even after labour has been accomplished with, apparently, the utmost success, it sometimes bursts forth with sudden and uncontrollable violence, and almost instantaneously deprives the mother of her life; so that there are no cases within the range of obstetric science that demand more prompt, judicious, and vigorous, treatment, than labours of this order.

There are some general rules for the management of uterine hemorrhage, applicable to all cases in which it may occur. The patient is to be kept perfectly cool, in a recumbent posture, in a state of great quietude. If costive, the bowels are to be opened by saline aperients, or clysters of cold water, or salt and water, or vinegar and water, in the proportion of two table-spoonfuls to a pint. The diet must be very simple, taken in very small quantities, and often repeated. No stimulants of any kind are to be allowed. Refrigerant, sedative, and restraining, medicines must be exhibited internally; and in the event of profuse discharge, the topical application of cold water and vinegar, iced water, or ice, to the uterine region, must be made. Other plans of management apply only to peculiar states of hemorrhage. Thus bleeding, which may be sometimes usefully employed in the hemorrhages of unimpregnated women, or in those of early pregnancy, must be cautiously used in the floodings which accompany labour, and are altogether inadmissible in the cases of placental presentations, and in the hemorrhages after delivery. And the *plumbi acetat*, and many other internal remedies, which are efficacious in restraining chronic hemorrhages, cannot be at all relied upon in the floodings of parturition.

The hemorrhages which accompany labour may be either, 1. *Accidental*, as the consequence of some occurrence which partially detaches the placenta from its connexion with the uterus, to which it is usually fixed at some part of the fundus or corpus uteri. 2. *Unavoidable*; as the consequence of the implantation of the placenta over the os and cervix uteri. 3. *Atonic*; i. e. from the want of contractile power in the uterus after the child is born.

1. *Accidental hemorrhage* may be brought on by various causes; such as, passions of the mind; violent exertions in jumping; dancing; coughing, &c. It has also followed a blow or fall; and the lifting of a heavy weight. The quantity of hemorrhage and the degree of danger greatly depend on the area of surface of the placenta detached from the uterus; the force of the general circulation; and the degree of pain; those cases being most dangerous in which there is little or no uterine contraction.

Sometimes the placenta will adhere to the uterus at every point of its circumference, whilst it is so loosened at its centre, that a quantity of blood may be poured out into the space thus formed sufficient to produce syncope, or even death; and yet there may be very little appearance

ance of discharge from the vagina. The following extract shows not only the possibility of this fact, but likewise that sometimes the loss of a quantity of blood, by no means excessive, will produce fatal consequences: "A very singular case of uterine hemorrhage occurred a few months ago in the practice of Mr. Saumarez, which was also seen by Doctors Denman and Dennison. A lady, of a weakly constitution and delicate habit, was attacked in the latter months of pregnancy with a slight discharge of blood from the vagina, not amounting all together to half an ounce, accompanied with alarming symptoms of exhaustion and debility. The os uteri was scarcely dilated to the size of a sixpence, and was in such a state of rigidity as precluded the possibility of affording any manual assistance. The lady in consequence died; and on examination after death, it was found that a separation of the centre of the placenta from the parietes of the uterus had taken place, whilst its edges were completely adherent, forming a kind of cul de sac, into which blood had been poured, to the amount of a pint and half, which had become coagulated within the cavity thus formed." *New Med. and Phys. Journal*, December 1813.

From whatever cause flooding may arise, it should always be viewed as a perilous symptom, and as one demanding prompt and active interference. The following general directions must be universally and rigidly observed. The woman should be laid on a mattress in a horizontal posture, having the pelvis raised higher than the shoulders by some support less yielding than a feather-pillow. The doors and windows should be opened, and the patient have no other covering than such as decency demands. No fire should be permitted to be in the room, and every talkative friend ought to be excluded. As little food as possible is to be given, and that neither warm nor spiced. In fact, every thing that can diminish the momentum of the circulation of the blood must be sedulously employed. The pubes, abdomen, and loins, must have cloths dipped in the coldest vinegar or salt water applied to them repeatedly; or pounded ice in a bladder may be allowed gradually to dissolve on these parts. In addition to these means, salt, or vinegar, and water cold, may be injected into the rectum; and a piece of ice, if it can be easily obtained, may be introduced into the vagina.

Diluted sulphuric acid may be given freely, either in rose-infusion, mint-water, weak cinnamon-water, or any other convenient liquid. But little reliance can be placed upon the other vegetable and mineral astringents; for, though efficacious in cases of *chronic* uterine hemorrhage, their astringent virtues are not sufficiently active in the sudden and violent hemorrhages which accompany the separation of the placenta during labour.

Bleeding from the arm was formerly practised in these cases, with a view of making a revulsion from the uterus; but, unless the pulse is very hard, strong, and active, it can hardly be required; at all events, where the flooding accompanies labour, blood-letting must be very cautiously employed, as it is likely, under many circumstances, to be more injurious than beneficial.

Fortunately, in many cases of sudden and accidental separation of the placenta, a disposition to expel its contents is immediately imparted to the uterus, and the expulsion is facilitated by the relaxation which the hemorrhage has produced. The action of the uterus tends likewise to suppress the hemorrhage; if therefore pains come on, if the flooding in consequence diminishes, and if the patient in some measure recovers her strength and spirits, it may not be necessary to have recourse to any further means of relief; but the patient must still be very carefully watched, for the hemorrhage may suddenly increase, and a very little additional loss of blood may prove fatal.

But, should the means employed to suppress the hemorrhage prove unavailing; should no pains come on, or should they be insufficient to restrain the flooding, and

the danger of the patient augments; something more must be attempted: and, in this perilous situation, two modes of proceeding have been proposed. First, to deliver the woman by turning the child in utero, and bringing down the feet; or, secondly, merely to rupture the membranes that the liquor amnii may escape, and thus the uterus, by contracting on its contents, will so far diminish the hemorrhage, that the patient may go on with safety until the natural uterine contractions expel the child.

The first method appears to be best adapted to those melancholy cases in which there is an absence of all contraction of the uterus, or in which the pains are extremely feeble and inefficient, with a relaxed condition of the cervix uteri. When these two dangerous attendants on uterine hemorrhage are present, the operation of turning often produces some contractile exertions of the uterus, by which the danger is materially lessened. The second method is applicable to those cases in which there are labour-pains; and, from the concurrent experience of practical accoucheurs, it may be depended on as successful.

2. *Unavoidable hemorrhage* is the name given by Dr. Rigby to that species which is produced when the placenta is attached over the cervix uteri, so as to block up the passage.—This species of hemorrhage was not generally understood till of late years. It was formerly supposed, when the placenta was found presenting, that, having been accidentally separated from the fundus, it had fallen by its own weight to the os uteri, which it closed up, so as to prevent the child from passing. More accurate observations and dissections have proved, that, when the placenta presents, it has been *ab origine* implanted over the cervix uteri, so that flooding very naturally occurs at any time after the fifth month, when the expansion of the cervix uteri lacerates those vessels which pass between it and the placental mass. Hemorrhage from this cause places the woman in most imminent danger; for, on the accession of pains which dilate the os uteri, other vessels are torn, and the bleeding recurs.

This is a case in which we ought never to confide in the powers of nature, because expulsive uterine efforts only augment the peril of the patient, as will be extremely evident from considering, or figuring to yourself, the position of the parts: the child's head presenting for delivery, but pressing upon the interposed placenta which fills up the passage. Dr. Hunter's 12th Plate is a representation of this case of unavoidable hemorrhage, which proved fatal. The engraving has been copied by Dr. Merriman and Dr. Conquest, whose works are in every body's hands; it has also been copied in Dr. Parr's Medical Dictionary, but (very unfortunately) to show the natural position of the foetus in utero at the commencement of labour!

We have seen that, in the preceding species, the *accidental*, the hemorrhage is checked at least, if not stopped, by the labour-pains; but, in this, every pain tends to produce more dilatation of the os uteri, and consequently a greater separation of the placenta, and an increase of the hemorrhage; it is therefore in vain to expect that the natural pains will effect the delivery. The interposition of art is called for, and must be timely applied, or the patient will be lost. In all cases then of attachment of the placenta over the os uteri, it is incumbent upon the accoucheur to make up his mind to the operation of turning the child, and bringing it into the world by the feet.

Here and there women do well without the interference of art, but much more commonly nature is unequal to the task, and the patient would be lost for want of timely assistance; so that all the best practical writers are unanimous on this point, that the case of a placenta adhering over the cervix uteri is not to be trusted to nature. "This practice is no longer a matter of partial opinion, on the propriety of which we may think ourselves
at

at liberty to debate; it has for near two centuries met the consent and approbation of every practitioner of judgment and reputation in this and many other countries." *Deuman.*

Should the flooding be such as threatens to prostrate the powers of the system, the operation ought not to be deferred, or one gush of blood may close the painful scene; and, whenever it becomes essential to the safety of the patient to proceed immediately, although the os uteri may not be open, it will be found in so dilatable a state as not to oppose any hindrance to the introduction of the hand into the uterus. When the hemorrhage occurs between the fifth and eighth months, it is usually not very formidable at first, so that, if the os uteri be not dilated or dilatable, the operation may generally be deferred for some hours with safety; whilst at the same time it is of the highest importance not to permit the woman to be exhausted by the loss of blood before turning is effected.

If, on examination per vaginam, every part of the os uteri be found covered by the placenta, and no point be found at which it is thinner than another, the fingers must perforate the substance of the mass, and, the hand of the accoucheur being passed through, the feet of the child are to be brought down through the aperture, and the woman delivered as soon as circumstances will admit. Sometimes the os uteri is only partially covered with the placenta, so that the hand can be passed by its edge to the membranes without difficulty. Whenever this can be accomplished, it should be preferred to the passage of the hand through the substance of the placenta.

In whatever way admission may be obtained into the uterus, the operation of turning is to be performed under the guidance of those directions which have been already given.

The child being extracted, the placenta is generally found quite separated: this may therefore be removed, and the practitioner should then satisfy himself that the uterus is duly contracted. The patient will require very assiduous attention after such a labour, and is generally very long before she recovers.

3. *Atonic hemorrhage.*—The disorder here referred to is not that loss of blood which very frequently attends the contraction of the uterus which expels the child, and at the same time loosens a small portion of the placenta; nor that which merely circulated through the uterus, and which on the complete detachment of the placenta, and the contraction of the organ, is expelled from its vessels, now so diminished in their size; but it is those successive gushes, or more insidious but not less dangerous stillicidium, of the vital fluid, which, if not arrested sooner or later, fatally exhausts the subject of them.

Torpor of the uterus, or irregular contraction of its fibres, is almost an essential feature of uterine hemorrhage occurring after the expulsion of the child; except in those cases which arise from the placenta being partially detached, whilst the mass being still adherent and retained in utero, prevents the complete contraction of the uterus.

Some women are so liable to floodings, as to be attacked with them after every labour: such patients should always have a bandage placed round their body, before they lie down on the bed for the purpose of being delivered. This bandage should be made with several straps, which may be gradually and sufficiently tightened as soon as the child is born: by this means profuse hemorrhage will often be prevented.

Although the loss of a small quantity of blood is common on the detachment and expulsion of the placenta, and does not demand interference; it is of the highest moment not to defer the adoption of energetic measures until formidable consequences begin to appear, because, if hemorrhage is allowed to proceed, although it may not immediately endanger the life of the patient, the constitution may be so enfeebled as to be unable to restore

itself to its former vigour; or the foundation may be laid for chronic and fatal disease.

The primary object in the management of those cases of flooding which result from a loss of contractile energy in the uterine fibres, is to re-excite the contractions of the uterus, if they shall have entirely ceased; and to quicken their activity if they be continued feebly. Whether then the placenta be detached or not, the practice is the same; for surely nothing can be more culpable than the dangerous custom of some men, who recommend "that the hand must be immediately introduced within the uterus to grasp the placenta, and instantly extract it." The consequences of such irrational practice is an augmentation of peril; for the very obvious reason, that the open mouths of a great number of vessels are exposed. In some rare instances, the placenta is thrown off, and lies loose in utero, preventing the complete contraction of the organ. Whenever that is the case, there can be no hesitation about the propriety of carefully withdrawing it; but not unless the uterus has firmly contracted on it.

Internal irritation of the uterus with the hand; and external pressure and friction, with the application of cold; are the principal remedial means on which our dependence must be placed, to re-excite the action of the uterus; and without which a woman is not secure. Whenever the uterus is found to be uncontracted, the hand is to be gently passed into it; and, when introduced, to be freely but tenderly moved about within its cavity. Whilst this is being done, an assistant may employ friction to the abdomen or loins, round which the broad bandage has been previously applied, that it may be gradually tightened without disturbing the patient; or, whilst the left hand of the accoucheur is in utero, the right may grasp the uterus externally; a measure which is often eminently conducive to the attainment of the object so much to be desired. The hand is never to be withdrawn from the uterus, until it begins to contract, except it be to empty the organ of coagula, which, by distending it, will frequently prevent its contractions altogether until they are removed.

In less dangerous cases of hemorrhage, the application of cold to the pubes, perineum, abdomen, and loins, will frequently arrest its progress. This remedy may be applied by cloths wrung out of cold vinegar or salt and water; or by the more impressive method of dashing the parts with cold mixtures; or by the still more efficacious use of pounded ice in a bladder, allowed to dissolve gradually on the abdomen; or a piece of ice introduced into the vagina or rectum, as directed in the first section.

Should there be irregular contraction of the muscular fibres of the uterus, either constituting the hour-glass contraction, when the circular fibres are affected with spasm about the centre of the organ; or the oviform contraction, when all the circular fibres act spasmodically, whilst those which take a longitudinal course appear to be more than usually relaxed; the hemorrhage will be checked by such means as relax spasm, and induce regular and universal contractile efforts. Flooding from this cause must be attacked by a full dose of opium, (not less than forty minims of the tincture, or three grains of the gum;) and immediately on the cessation of spasmodic action, which is manifested by the diminution of pain in the back, the hand of the accoucheur must be introduced into the uterus, for the purpose of gently dilating the stricture, emptying the organ of its coagula, and stimulating it to more healthy contraction.

Syncope, or fainting, is not an unfrequent consequence of flooding; and, although it is beneficial when contrasted with continued hemorrhage, yet it must ever be viewed as an evidence of danger, and as indicative of extreme loss of energy in the vascular system.

It may be here observed, that there are three important agents concerned in restraining uterine hemorrhage; —uterine

—uterine contraction; the formation of coagula, which block up the mouths of the bleeding vessels; and the contraction of the vessels themselves; for, although muscular irritability may have ceased, the contractility of the arteries continues. It is therefore of great importance not to interfere with either of these powers; and, as syncope never exists without that diminished action of the heart and arteries, which cannot send the blood to the brain or extremities with sufficient power to prevent a collapse of them, it becomes highly momentous to regard *moderate fainting* as a salutary symptom, because, during its continuance, the mouths of the vessels may and often do become so sealed by the formation of coagula, that hemorrhage ceases.

Syncope, then, being useful in checking the momentum of the circulation, and, as a consequence, in putting a stop to flooding, ought never to be rashly interfered with, as it too frequently is by the exhibition of large and repeated doses of brandy, and other powerful stimulants. Still a woman must not be permitted to die from exhaustion, if it can be prevented; and therefore, when extreme prostration of the vital powers exists with syncope, small and repeated doses of such stimuli as brandy, or ammonia, must be given. Under such circumstances, sprinkling cold water on the face and chest will sometimes rouse the almost ex-animate woman. Ammonia may also be applied to the region of the heart, whilst the flow of blood is invited back to the extremities by the application of warmth.

In a few words then, it must be admitted that the administration of stimulants and cordials to a woman in a greater or less degree exhausted by uterine hemorrhage, is one of the nicest points in obstetric practice; and, as a general rule, it may be laid down, that they are admissible but in few instances, and only to be exhibited to such an extent as may be necessary to support or to restore the circulation.

It is not unusual for a woman to be apparently doing very well for some little time after delivery; and yet, although the uterus shall have contracted in a great measure, blood may be poured out into its cavity so as to re-distend it, and, in consequence of the *coagula* blocking up the mouth of the womb, no hemorrhage shall appear per vaginam. Such a woman will complain of being faint, with tinnitus aurium; her countenance becomes pallid; nausea and vomiting, with extreme restlessness, sometimes follow; the pulse sinks; and if she be not speedily relieved, after a slight convulsive paroxysm, or one or two gasps, she expires.

Such symptoms naturally lead to an external and internal examination, which detect a re-distended uterus filled with coagulated and fluid blood. Under these circumstances, no time must be lost, or vacillating and inefficient treatment may soon place the patient beyond the reach of means. One hand should be immediately introduced within the uterus, to empty it of coagula, and to stimulate it to contract, whilst pressure is made on the abdomen, and the uterus grasped with the other. Besides this, such other means as have been already recommended to restrain the flow of blood, should be promptly and perseveringly adopted.

The exhibition of very large doses of opium, to restrain uterine hemorrhage, has been recommended by several deservedly-eminant accoucheurs. Both reason and experience appear to concur in condemning this practice; for, whilst it is admitted that under some circumstances opium is highly beneficial, its indiscriminate employment is undoubtedly fraught with mischief. The result of calm and dispassionate investigation on this subject is, that opium in large doses in cases of uterine hemorrhage generally does harm, by paralyzing the contractile energies of the uterine and arterial fibres; and that this valuable medicine is useful, and only useful, under the existence of some such circumstances as the following.

It is decidedly beneficial, when hemorrhage has gone

on until the vital powers have become reduced extremely low; and when, with other symptoms of exhaustion, the stomach manifests great *irritability*. It is no less valuable an agent, when hemorrhage is the consequence of irregular contraction of the uterine fibres, whether of the circular or longitudinal. In either of these cases, it is a very efficacious article of the materia medica; but it appears most dangerous to attempt to maintain its utility, or to rely on its efficacy, in cases of active and alarming uterine hemorrhage. When exhibited under the before-mentioned circumstances, to secure its full effect, it is necessary to give it in doses of four or five grains, repeating it every second or third hour whilst necessary, with a diminution of one grain from each successive dose.

Dr. Copland (Lond. Med. Journal, Aug. 1821.) says, "I strongly entertain the opinion that the oleum terebinthinæ is calculated to be of the most essential benefit in puerperal menorrhagia, or flooding, if given in a dose of an ounce or upwards. If exhibited in this quantity, I have no doubts of its influence in promoting the contractions of the uterus; and by these means, producing the contractions and varied inflections of the vessels, affords a mechanical, but at the same time a natural, obstruction to the flow of blood, and soon terminates the mischief. Against this most alarming of all natural hemorrhages, I also consider an enema of at least two ounces of this substance ought to be immediately administered. I recommend this, with the utmost confidence of success, to those whose practice affords them opportunities of putting it to the test of experience."

Lastly, some writers have strongly recommended to *plug-up* the vagina with tow, lint, a soft napkin, or other convenient substance: and thus to prevent the blood from escaping through that passage. The advantages of this practice must be very limited. It may be useful in some of the slighter hemorrhages, that occur in the early months of pregnancy, when the uterus has neither acquired any great size, nor is very distensible. But it can never be relied upon, after the uterus has acquired much bulk, or is capable of being largely dilated; for, however completely the *vagina* may be closed, as no pressure can be made upon the open vessels within the *uterus*, these might continue to pour out blood into the uterine cavity, sufficient to destroy the patient's life, though not a drop of discharge was visible without the vagina. The arteries of the uterus cannot be closed, except by a due degree of contraction of that viscus; whenever the uterus is in a distended state, the arteries will continue pouring blood; and, the greater the accumulation of coagula within it, so much the greater will be the amount of hemorrhage. The presence of the *plug* then, by preventing the escape of the coagula, so far from benefiting the patient, adds to her peril. The *plug*, therefore, is inapplicable in all cases where the bulk of the uterus exceeds that of a pregnancy of three or four months, or when the parietes are so easy of distension as to yield readily to the accumulation within it.

Mr. Bishoprick of York, in a letter to Dr. Duncan, gives the following account of a medicine which he has found highly efficacious in cases of uterine hemorrhage. "I have had considerable experience and success in the practice of midwifery in this city and its neighbourhood for more than forty years; and, having in that time met with many very troublesome, and some very dangerous, cases of uterine hemorrhage, I beg leave, through your useful repository, to communicate to the public, for the benefit of mankind, a medicine which I have found of great efficacy in relieving such cases. This consideration, I flatter myself, will render it not unworthy of attention, especially as the health of that class of patients, who are the subject of this complaint, is of the utmost consequence to the happiness and welfare of both themselves and families."

Before we copy the formula, we must observe, that no great reliance can be placed upon the power of any medicine

dicine in sudden and dangerous floodings, such as have been the subject of the preceding pages; but, where the symptoms are not very urgent, it may be useful: we give it, therefore, merely as a family-receipt.

"Take of burnt vitriolated copper, commonly called blue vitriol, eight ounces; of dragon's blood two ounces; of rectified spirit of wine two pints. Let the ingredients, reduced to powder, and put into a matras containing the spirit, be digested in a sand-heat for four days, shaking up the vessel three or four times a-day, and then let the tincture be decanted off clear for use. The burnt vitriolated copper is prepared in the same manner as the burnt alum, according to the directions of the College of Edinburgh, in their Pharmacopœia, by putting the ingredients into a crucible, and suffering it to remain upon the fire until it ceases to bubble.

"This preparation first came into my hands as a nostrum; and, finding it upon trial to afford relief beyond my expectation, I have never ventured to make any alteration in it. With respect to the dragon's blood, if the gum kino were substituted in its stead, it would be an improvement similar to that which was made by the Edinburgh College, when they reformed the prescription for the styptic powder, now called the Compound Powder of Alum.

"My usual mode of administering the tincture was by giving from forty to sixty drops in an ounce of red-port wine mixed with an ounce of water three or four times a-day. The doses have sometimes been enlarged, although not often, but generally without any inconvenience. The tincture, in some cases, may likewise be given with propriety, in draughts coinciding with the general intention. In these, the principal ingredient may be either nitre, neutralized salt of wormwood, or the Peruvian bark, at the discretion of the practitioner. Patients with delicate stomachs will sometimes, though rarely, be affected with a slight degree of nausea from the use of the tincture. In such cases it will be advisable to omit five or ten drops, more or less, of the former dose, until the medicine shall sit easily upon the stomach. I know of no other operative effect, except that it sometimes proves rather astringent.

"In cases of considerable uterine discharges continuing after natural labours or miscarriages, likewise in cases of menorrhagia, or the overflowing of the menses in non-pregnant women, I have experienced the most extraordinary good effects from the administration of this medicine. Some good effects have generally been perceptible in the course of a few days; and I have met with very few cases which were not materially relieved by it, of which a considerable number have been perfectly cured. Indeed, my reliance on the efficacy of the medicine has been such, that for more than thirty years past I have very seldom given it in any other vehicle than a little red port and water, or with any other medicine coinciding with the same intention during its use." Duncan's Med. Com. 1795.

OF LABOURS attended with violent EMOTIONS of the MIND.

Practitioners of all ages have agreed, that the action of the uterus is very much influenced by the mental powers. Evidences of this are to be found in many medical records; and the fact is presented to our view in many occurrences of common life. It is, therefore, to be considered of importance, that the mind of the parturient woman should be kept as easy and tranquil as possible. See p. 680.

Dr. Merriman was one day sent for in great haste, to one of the villages in the neighbourhood of London; on his arrival at the house of the patient to whom he was called, he found her undelivered and quite dead. At the moment, little information as to the cause of her death could be obtained; but some time afterwards the following particulars were communicated to him:

The woman had been servant to a lady, who was Dr.

Merriman's patient; and left her to marry a man, in business as a poulterer. She soon became pregnant, and made up her mind to be attended by the doctor she had been in the habit of seeing at her former mistress's labour. But, when she mentioned this her intention to her husband, he objected to it; alleging, that Dr. Merriman would not attend her at such a distance, unless he received a larger fee than it would be prudent in them to pay; and that there was living in their own neighbourhood a most respectable apothecary, who was a customer; and who, on that and other accounts, was a more proper person to be employed. A great deal of unpleasant altercation took place between the husband and wife upon this subject, which was frequently renewed, and the relations of both parties were appealed to on the occasion; all, or the majority, of whom thought the husband right in maintaining his opinion, and censured the wife as pertinacious and self-willed; so that she felt herself compelled, though very reluctantly, to give way; and the gentleman in question, who of course knew nothing of these family-disputes, was engaged to attend her; notwithstanding her constant declaration, that "she hated the very sight of him."

When the first symptoms of labour came on, and her nurse and some female friends were assembled, it was proposed that her accoucheur should likewise be sent for; but she begged that he might not, as she was sure she was not bad enough yet. After a time it was again proposed to send for him, but she still objected. Again and again her friends tried to prevail upon her to see him, but all in vain: if it had been her own doctor, as she termed it, she would willingly, she said, see him; but, as it was, Mr. J.— should not come near her till he was really wanted. At length, one of the women in the room, disgusted with so much obstinacy, went down stairs, and told the husband, that the presence of her medical attendant was absolutely required; and accordingly he was immediately sent for. Unfortunately, and certainly very inconsiderately, he was, on his arrival, without being announced, introduced at once into her room. The shock of thus suddenly and unexpectedly seeing the man against whom she had been long nourishing such a perverse dislike, occasioned her to scream out, and she fell back upon the bed in a fit, from which she never recovered. In the confusion which ensued, a messenger was sent in great haste to London for Dr. Merriman; but, as already stated, before he arrived at the house, the woman was quite dead. No attempt had been made to extract the child, nor could leave be obtained to open the body; so that the immediate cause of her death was never discovered; but that the sudden emotion was the exciting cause, seems unquestionable.

Such extreme cases as this rarely occur; but various kinds of mental excitements continually prevail, and without producing the more violent ill-consequences, tend however to disturb and interrupt the favourable process of child-birth. The influence of mental emotions over the act of parturition was strongly and very extensively exemplified, not long since, on the occasion of the sudden decease, immediately after delivery, of an illustrious and most amiable personage. And indeed that calamitous event was found to operate unfavourably on the minds of patients in a certain rank of life for some considerable time afterwards. The death of Dr. Croft, in consequence of having met with some untoward accidents, is fresh in every one's memory.

MANAGEMENT OF MOTHER and CHILD AFTER DELIVERY.

The following directions are chiefly from Dr. Conquest's Outlines of Midwifery.

Supposing the child and placenta to be expelled, the accoucheur being satisfied that the uterus is well contracted; the bandage which had been passed loosely round the abdomen previous to delivery is to be moderately tightened; and, after the removal of any coagula that may

may have escaped from the uterus, soft and well-aired napkins are to be applied to the labia pudendi, and above and below the nates, so as to be interposed between them and the wet clothes.

Presuming that neither hemorrhage or any other circumstance requires a state of absolute rest for a longer time, the woman may remain for half an hour in the same situation as when delivered; after which, her soiled linen may be removed, and the clean clothes, which had been previously passed round her chest, may be drawn down, and she very gently moved up in the bed by one assistant at her shoulders, and another at her feet. Whilst these things are done, the patient should be a *passive* being; and on no account be raised from her horizontal position, as hemorrhage, syncope, prolapsus, or inversion uteri, may be the consequence.

After this, she may take some simple nourishment. The room should be kept dark, cool, well ventilated, and free from talkative friends; and the medical man, on seeing her before leaving (it being presumed that he remains in the house until the woman is comfortably in bed), should enjoin strict quietude of body and mind. Dr. Merriman relates the circumstances of a fatal accident which arose from inattention to this advice: The aged mother of a patient, contrary to the advice of her friends, was determined to be present at the labour, and was very much agitated and terrified by her daughter's outcries, though the labour was perfectly natural, and unaccompanied by any alarming symptoms. Soon after the accoucheur had left his patient, quite safe as he supposed, she complained of being faint; and begged to have some hartshorn to smell. The trembling mother hastened to the bedside with a phialful in her hand, and, in her hurry and perturbation, poured the contents into her daughter's mouth and throat, as she lay on her back, and instantly suffocated her. Before the physician, who lived but in the adjoining street, could reach the house, she was quite dead; and, though means of recovery were diligently used, they failed of success.—Watts, in his *Reflections on slow and painful Labours*, p. 69, mentions two similar accidents, from one of which the patient recovered.

Nothing can be more irrational than the too-prevalent custom of exhibiting large and repeated doses of opium to a woman after delivery. It is true that a patient after labour is found in a state of fatigue and irritability, and may therefore be benefited by a single and moderate dose of this article; but the frequent repetition of it is decidedly injurious, not only by producing the ordinary unpleasant effects of opium, but more especially by its influence over uterine action, which it so enfeebles or suspends, as to counteract the efforts which it makes to expel coagula, and perfect its restoration to its original dimensions by those secondary and very salutary contractions termed *after-pains*, and for the removal of which opiates are so universally and so generally prescribed. These should rather be encouraged (than counteracted) by the occasional employment of friction over the uterine and lumbar region, and by the exhibition of a purgative, which during its operation materially assists and accelerates the contractile energies of the uterus.

On the second day subsequent to delivery, the bowels should be acted on by a common domestic enema, or by the exhibition of a moderate dose of castor-oil, or any other mild aperient. The early employment of purgatives also moderates the secretion of milk, by which the woman is saved from considerable suffering. Should it happen that the breasts become extremely tumid, hot, and painful, it will be necessary to act more freely on the bowels, so as to obtain several loose motions daily, and this object will be best secured by repeated doses of some saline aperient. In addition to this, the breasts must be kept very cool, and, every few hours, gentle friction of them should be enjoined on the nurse. This

may be performed by the hand, between which and the mammae there should be interposed a little hair-powder or oil; and the latter may be medicated by the addition of camphor, as in the *linimentum camphora*.

The bladder now and then does not perform its functions as it should after delivery; and this inability occurs sufficiently often to render it a part of the duty of an accoucheur, on his first visit, to inquire of the nurse into the state of this organ, and to reiterate his inquiries until he is convinced by the most unequivocal language, that his patient has really emptied the bladder, and not merely parted with a small quantity of urine by *stillicidium*; and, should any doubt remain on his mind, he should examine externally above the pubes.

Many women suffer during the remainder of their lives from the very general and reprehensible custom of indulging themselves too soon in an upright position; and even those who are solicitous to remain longer than is necessary in bed, often do themselves much mischief by a half-recumbent posture, presuming that, if the lower extremities are kept horizontal, the position of the trunk is unimportant. The absurdity of this opinion is so manifest, that it needs no refutation; nor can it excite surprise that procidentia uteri, sanious discharge, and subsequently leucorrhœa, should be the consequences of such mal-practice, when the relaxation of the passages, and the size and weight of the uterus, are considered. Still there can be no necessity for a woman to be confined under the bed-clothes for a month; and, if the horizontal posture of the pelvis and body be preserved, it may be done as well on the outside of the bed, or on a sofa.

The lochial discharge (or *cleansings*, as it is called by nurses) is a sanguineous secretion from the extremities of the secreting vessels of the uterus, which, being mixed with detached and decomposed filaments of the tunica decidua uteri, continues to flow from the passages from five to thirty days after parturition. At first, it is decidedly sanious, but in a few days it becomes much paler and brownish, or of a dirty green hue, so as to acquire among women, the term of "green waters." The quantity of this discharge varies very much in different women; in some being extremely scanty, especially in those who have lost much blood by uterine hemorrhage; whilst, in others, the secretion is so profuse as to require medical interference. The internal exhibition of the mineral acids, with catechu, often does good; and sometimes benefit is derived from a combination of myrrh and iron, as in the *mistura ferri composita*.

With respect to the *domestic* management of the puerperal woman, it is important to observe, that, for some time after delivery, her food should be less in quantity, and more simple in quality, than she was accustomed to before, because though a lying-in room is not absolutely a sick room, yet so sudden and so great is the change in the habits of the patient, perhaps from high activity to perfect quietude, that the same diet which she has previously taken could not now be borne without inconvenience.

It is customary to compel a woman under these circumstances to live almost exclusively on gruel or broths; and it is no uncommon thing for her stomach to be most involuntarily distended with several pints of these articles daily. The practice seems extremely irrational, and is often highly injurious. It frequently not only enfeebles the stomach, but, by keeping up constant perspiration, debilitates the whole system, and renders it very susceptible of cold; and is one cause of an immoderate secretion of milk, which becomes a source of great distress to the patient. For some days after delivery, therefore, whilst these articles may constitute a part of her diet, their quantity may be less, if in the middle of the day a light pudding, containing an egg or two, be substituted. The components may be varied until the woman

woman resumes the ordinary family-diet, which, if nothing unfavourable has occurred, she may begin to do about the tenth day.

The diet of a nurse should be simple, nutritious, and such as is easily digested. It is an established fact, that, if plain and nourishing, a mother may, with impunity to a child, gratify herself in any article of food, if she at first habituate her stomach to it; and it will rarely be found that any thing will disagree with an infant which agrees with herself.

It is a common prejudice, and a great error, that nurses should "live well," in the abused acceptation of the words. Nutritious diet is certainly necessary, but rich living renders the milk gross and indigestible. It is of some importance that food be taken frequently, and in small quantities, as the milk is secreted in a few hours, probably in about five, after the stomach receives its nourishment. The milk is then fit for the sustenance of the child; but, if secreted much longer, it becomes unfit, because the serum, or thinner parts, become absorbed, and those parts only which are digested with more difficulty remain in the breast.

There is an evil too generally prevalent, and most pernicious in its consequences on individuals and on society, and by no means confined to mothers in the lowest classes of the community, which cannot be too severely reprobated;—it is the wretched habit of taking wine or spirits to remove the languor present during pregnancy and suckling. It is a practice fraught with double mischief, being detrimental both to mother and child. The relief afforded is temporary, and is invariably followed by a greater degree of languor, which demands a more powerful stimulus, which at length weakens, and eventually destroys, the tone of the stomach, deteriorates the milk, and renders it altogether unfit to supply that nutriment which is essential to the existence and welfare of the child.

Some young mothers greatly increase their fatigue in suckling, by the awkward manner in which they place their children at the breast. A woman should use her child to such positions in giving it suck as are most easy to herself. If in bed, the child should take the breast as it lies, and not incommode the mother by obliging her to sit up in bed; because, without any benefit to the child, the mother's fatigue is greatly augmented. When up, the mother should by all means sit upright, and raise the child to her breast. The distorted posture so commonly seen in suckling, produces excessive pain in the back and limbs, without relieving the child in any respect.

Fretfulness, agitation, and violent emotions of the mind, invariably do injury to an infant at the breast. The milk becomes vitiated, its secretion very often diminished, or altogether suspended, and the little sufferers have in many well-authenticated instances fallen victims to the indulgence of these passions by the nurse or mother. Unless very peculiarly urgent reasons prohibit, *a mother should support her infant on the milk she herself secretes*. It is the dictate of nature, as well as of common sense and reason. Were it otherwise, it is not probable that so abundant a supply of suitable food would be provided to meet the wants of an infant, when it enters on a new state of existence. It is difficult to estimate the mischief resulting from infants being deprived of their natural nourishment; for, however near the resemblance may be between food artificially prepared and breast-milk, still reason and observation demonstrate the superiority of the latter to the former.

No children exhibit such unequivocal signs of health, or bear up so well under disease, as those that live exclusively on the breast. Wherever instinct and nature are permitted to teach, such is the course which they point out; and happy would it be for mankind, if parents would so far return to a state of nature, as to regulate their own diet, and that of their children, by her simple and salutary dictates. In many parts of the world where children attain to the greatest beauty and

vigour, they are not permitted to have any other nourishment but the mother's milk, till they have attained the age of twelve months; and some of the finest and most robust children to be seen in this country are those that are reared in a similar manner. And, as a further inducement, it should be remembered, that medical men concur in their opinion that very rarely does a constitution suffer from giving suck; whilst the health of many women is most materially improved by the performance of the duties of a nurse. Delicate females are generally strengthened by nursing, and many of the complaints incident to women are removed by it. Fewer women die whilst nursing than at any other period of life; and it is a very common observation that their spirits are more lively and uniform, their tempers milder and more even, and general feelings more healthy and pleasant, than under any other circumstances.

A very serious evil resulting from a woman neglecting this imperious duty, is the probability of her becoming more frequently pregnant than the constitution of most females can sustain without permanent injury. A woman who suckles her children, has generally an interval of a year and a half, or two years, between each confinement; but she who, without any adequate cause for the omission, does not nurse, must expect to bear a child every twelve months, and must reconcile her mind to a shattered constitution and early old age.

Presumeing that the laudable determination is formed to indulge the child with that nutriment which is designed for its support, it becomes necessary to state, that, unless very strong objections should exist, *twelve hours* should never elapse before the infant has been put to the breasts. Instinct directs it what to do; and the advantages of allowing it to suck soon after birth are many and important, both to the mother and child. By this commendable practice, the parent is generally preserved from fever, from inflamed and broken breasts, and from the distressing and alarming consequences resulting from these complaints.

If the breasts should not have secreted milk previous to delivery, the act of suckling will encourage and expedite the secretion. Thus the mother will be saved from much of the pain connected with distended breasts. Besides which, if the infant be not put to the nipple till the breasts become full and tense, the nipple itself will sometimes almost disappear, on account of its being stretched; and, without much and often ineffectual labour on the part of the child, it cannot be laid hold of; and even then the pain endured by the mother is exquisitely severe, and not unfrequently the cause of sore nipples.

It must be admitted that some mothers cannot suckle their infants. Still it should be attempted, unless it is altogether impossible; for, though a woman may not be able to persevere for any considerable time, yet suckling, if but for three or four weeks, may avert those local and general complaints which have been before named. Many nurses are too often discouraged when children are awkward in taking the breast, or when the nipples are flat and sore: but not unfrequently, if the mother has but resolution to make the attempt, she will be able to suckle, though she may have been foiled in two or three, or more, previous confinements. *Conquest, 173-182.*

Females are subject to what is called the *milk-abscess* during the whole period of suckling, but they are more especially liable to be affected with it immediately after delivery; and it is to the abscess which is wont to occur at this particular time that our remarks will be confined. The character of this abscess is phlegmonous, more or less; and its formation in the breast is attended by the same phenomena as the formation of phlegmonous abscess in any other part of the body. On the second or third day after delivery, when a copious secretion of milk has begun, the attack commences, and is marked by fullness, general tension with more or less hardness, and an uneasy sense of weight in one or other of the breasts: these

symptoms are shortly succeeded by tumour, heat, redness, pain in some part, very commonly the upper and outer, of the breast affected, together with symptomatic fever. Slight shiverings now quickly supervene, and the suppurative process is established. The abscess, if not interfered with by the officious surgeon, bursts spontaneously, usually between the ninth and fourteenth days; the matter then escapes, and all the symptoms, local and constitutional, are alleviated.

The treatment of milk-abscess is very simple; the less, indeed, is done the better. Emollient fomentations with scalded plant-leaves suffice for the inflammatory stage, and oatmeal or linseed poultice for the suppurative. The same kind of poultice should also be continued after the bursting of the abscess, and until it be perfectly healed, be the length of time what it may. Unguents and greasy dressings do not sufficiently encourage discharge; whence it happens that, where they are employed, inflammation and suppuration again take place, and these occasionally more than once; whereas, if the poultice be uninterruptedly continued, all does well. The indisposition of the milk-abscess to heal may possibly be owing to the great determination to the breasts during the first months of suckling; and, indeed, it is not unreasonable to suppose that nature keeps this as it were natural issue open, to counterbalance the dangerous plethora that might otherwise happen from the suppressed secretion of milk.

Such is the course, and such the treatment, of milk-abscess; but the point of the greatest moment, and to which we are anxious to draw the attention of the profession, is the *prevention* both of abscess and of inflammation. The frequency of milk-abscess in the human species, and the rareness of it in the brute creation, cannot fail to strike the observant mind. The just-yeaned lamb empties without difficulty the loaded dug of its parent ewe, and the fresh-dropped colt the distended udder of its dam; but the new-born infant, although healthful and strong, often strives in vain to draw milk from the gorged bosom of its mother. The attentive nurse applies it again and again, but without avail; the milk accumulates more and more, and inflammation and abscess succeed. The cause of failure is not with the infant, for it sucks well; the impediment, therefore, must exist on the part of the mother, and examination of the breast immediately discovers this to be the case; for the nipple is invariably found to be so *flat*, and imperfectly formed, as not to afford hold for the child. There is no reason, *in nature*, why the nipple in the human species should be so very often incompletely developed, while the teats of animals are, without exception, as far as we know, prominent and perfect. The only cause to which the defect can be attributed is the continued pressure, which, from the peculiarity of the female dress, (and of one part of it in particular, the stays,) the bosom is subjected to from childhood; and it is this pressure, without doubt, which prevents the full development of the nipple.

The imperfect nipple is the exciting, and distention of the lactiferous ducts the proximate, cause of milk-abscess: it is therefore manifest, that, if a proper nipple can be formed so as to admit of the milk being abstracted, abscess will be prevented. Now the formation of a good nipple is by no means difficult: so far, indeed, from this being the case, that we believe it is always practicable; and the means by which it can be accomplished is by the glass shield, or *breast-pump*. In a few hours after delivery, it is incumbent on the accoucheur to examine the patient's breasts, to ascertain whether or not the nipples are sufficiently prominent; and, if one or both prove otherwise, he should immediately set about to remedy the defect, for, by the early and repeated use of the pump, the nipple may be well drawn out before the secretion of milk takes place. The pump should be applied over the flat nipple, and the degree of exhaustion of the air from the glass should be regulated by the feelings of the patient: the nipple will protrude into the

mouth of the glass, and may be kept there two or three minutes; the pump is then to be taken off, and in the space of two minutes more to be again applied; and in this manner five or six times successively; and, on its being finally removed, suction should *instantly* be performed by the nurse for several minutes, for, unless it be done instantly, the nipple retires. The application of the pump must be repeated every three or four hours, as long as it may be required; taking care always that the nurse or infant suck that breast immediately on the removal of it. In this way the accoucheur will never fail to procure good nipples, and, by so doing, may preserve his patient from all the inconveniences and sufferings attendant on milk-abscess. It is true that all this gives the practitioner a great deal of trouble; but it is amply recompensed by securing to him the good wishes and interest of his patient, and by increasing his reputation. The pump is rarely had recourse to with any other view than to abstract milk from the breast; but to this end it is quite inadequate, which may be the cause why it is not in more general use. In using the pump, it is advantageous to anoint the fore-part of the breast with oil, for this very much facilitates the entrance of the nipple into the mouth of the glass, and preserves the skin from abrasion. *London Medical Journal*, Aug. 1821.

THE INFANT.—A medical man ought never to think it beneath him to direct a nurse or mother on those little attentions which a *new-born infant* demands on its being ushered into the world. The temperature which it leaves is about 98°; consequently care is required that it be not suddenly exposed to a reduced temperature, or to the heat and glare of a fire.

A receiver of fine flannel, with a square of old soft linen or calico tacked on its centre, should be in readiness for its removal when born. Flannel itself is too harsh for immediate contact with the delicate skin of an infant at first, though well adapted to keep up that degree of warmth which it brings with it.

Cold is very unfriendly to the tender state of an infant; and, though a child overheated by an immoderate load of clothes suffers from red-gum and other complaints, yet for a time warm clothing, with that quantity of animal heat which a mother's bosom communicates, are requisites for its comfort, and essential to its thriving. The modern refinement of cots, and the injurious apprehensions of children being overlaid, has banished many a weak and delicate infant from a nurse's bosom (its natural and best bed) to a crib, where it has passed night after night in cries, from its inability to generate sufficient heat of itself for its comfort, and eventually has fallen a victim to cold and neglect.

The mucus which covers the body of a child at its birth, is best removed by a soft sponge with warm water and soap. A nurse should not be over anxious to remove every particle at the first washing, because, by too much rubbing, the skin becomes irritated and inflamed, and, by the second attempt, the surface of the body may be thoroughly freed from this substance. This indeed is necessary, or perspiration becomes obstructed, and the skin liable to eruptive diseases.

Many nurses never wash the head of an infant after the first time, except with spirits. The omission of washing it is unjustifiable on every principle; and the custom of rubbing the head with spirits has nothing to recommend it, but, on the contrary, is the common cause of giving cold, on account of its speedy evaporation, which carries off heat that can never be spared. Let a mother rub a little spirits between her own hands and she will never allow the tender head of her babe to undergo the same operation.

The navel string may be wrapped round with a piece of soft and well-aired linen, and carefully laid down. Burnt rag is very objectionable: it is in no case of any use, and frequently produces inflammation, and an ulcer that heals with difficulty. Should an ulcer remain after

the funis drops off, which generally takes place in a few days, the part may be moistened with a little goulard-water, and afterwards have applied to it a little spermaceti or simple ointment, spread on lint. This may be renewed every time the child is dressed, till the wound is healed.

Were it not that the brutal practice of forcibly pressing out the fluid which distends the breasts of some new-born infants yet prevails, it would be unnecessary to refer to the unfeeling custom; nothing can justify it, for not one child in a hundred requires any attention on this point, and when it does the opinion of the medical attendant should be taken.

The object of *clothing* is to defend us from cold; and happy would it be for the rising generation if mothers and nurses could be convinced that this may be accomplished by light warm dressing, without confining the body by bandages, or loading it with covering weighty enough for half a dozen children; and surely nothing but a slavish adherence to custom can sanction a practice as absurd as hurtful—the ridiculous length of an infant's clothing, which in many cases by its weight produces deformity of the feet, and must always be a source of considerable pain to a feeble child. The ease and comfort of a child may be consulted and promoted by avoiding all unnecessary bandaging. Every species of swathing prevents the free performance of the various functions. Flexion and extension of the joints should be quite unrestrained; and clothing which in any degree impedes free motion, and thus counteracts, by its confinement, the natural efforts of a child, must be extremely injurious. The modern art of dressing not only impedes the growth of children, but most sensibly diminishes their enjoyment; for every attentive observer must have noticed the evident pleasure experienced by them when undressed and permitted to roll about free and unharnessed.

Treatment of still-born or weakly Infants.—1. Too many accoucheurs are in the habit of permitting what are called *still-born* children to be laid aside as dead, without any efforts to ascertain whether the vital principle is extinct, or whether animation is merely suspended.

Several very interesting and well-authenticated instances are recorded of infants born apparently dead, who, by persevering exertions, have been resuscitated, although, for nearly two hours after birth, the evidences of vitality were so indistinct, as to leave it doubtful whether or not they existed. Dr. Conquest thinks that nothing less than decomposition of animal structure should be deemed a justification for abandoning a still-born child; and, if this proof of its death be wanting, all the usual methods of restoring suspended animation should be had recourse to, and steadily persevered in for at least half an hour; for, even should there be no prospect of success, the attempt is always pleasing to the parents of the infant, and satisfactory to a feeling mind.

If there is no pulsation in the umbilical cord, the infant should be instantly separated from the mother, the cord being tied by a slip knot, and the body immersed in warm water. The lungs should be then distended with air, by means of a bag of elastic gum, or a common syringe, (the pipe of which is to be inserted into one nostril, while the other and the mouth are carefully closed,) and again emptied by gentle pressure on the breast. In this way an alternate distention and compression of the lungs should be continued for some time. Should the action of the heart be now perceived, the same means are to be continued, until the infant exhibits the usual marks of beginning respiration, when the artificial distention of the lungs is to be only occasionally repeated, and all pressure on the breast is to be avoided. But if, notwithstanding these means, the pulsation of the heart be not restored, the infant should be taken out of the warm water, placed before the fire, carefully rubbed, and then wrapped in warm flannel. A clyster, consisting

of a table-spoonful of spirits, and two or three table-spoonfuls of warm water, should then be administered, and the temples, nostrils, and teguments of the face round the mouth, should be gently touched with a feather dipped in vitriolic æther, or spirits of hartshorn.

But, secondly, if the pulsation in the cord of a still-born child is distinct and soft, and the infant has the natural appearance, so long as the placenta remains attached to the uterus, the child ought not to be separated from the mother. The body should be carefully wrapped in warm flannel, the nostrils and fauces should be touched with a feather dipped in vitriolic æther, and a little spirits rubbed on the breast. If the after-birth become detached, (which is known by the lengthening of the cord,) the child must be immediately separated, and the above means employed. Should the process of breathing commence after these means have been used for a few minutes, nothing else is to be done than keeping the infant warm, with its face freely exposed to the air. But should this not take place, the lungs are to be distended and again compressed, as in the first case. See Prof. Hamilton's Hints on the Diseases of Infants, &c.

2. Although alive when born, the infant, in some instances, lives only a short time. If the lips be pale, and the pulsation in the heart very feeble or slow, it may be suspected that this originates from some cause which is not cognizable to the senses. On the supposition that it arises from a deficiency of vitality, stimulants have been applied to the surface, as a little brandy, or spirits of hartshorn, rubbed on the ribs and spine, &c. and such means have occasionally proved efficacious, though in the majority of cases they fail. When the extremities are of a purple or bluish colour, and the breathing is impeded or unnatural, it is generally found that there is a defect in the heart or lungs, which is beyond the power of any remedy.

Children are not always born in a state of perfection in respect to the structure of their bodies; for sometimes they have deficient, superfluous, or misplaced, parts, natural passages closed, and various marks on the surface. Many of these imperfections admit of no remedy; while others may be easily rectified. The following are those which are most frequently met with.

Fissures in the lips not only constitute a remarkable deformity, but commonly prevent the child from sucking. They appear under various forms. Sometimes the fissure exists only in one lip, generally the upper one, and is occasioned merely by a division of the soft parts: in other cases there is a considerable loss of substance between the divided parts: in some instances, again, there are two fissures in one lip, or both lips are affected: and, in others, the fissure is not confined to the lips, but extends along the roof of the mouth. All these different species of the same deformity receive the general name of *hare-lip*.

The *tongue* is naturally bound down to the lower part of the mouth by a membranous cord, to prevent it from too great a degree of motion. Sometimes, however, the cord fixes it so much, that the infant cannot suck, in which case it is commonly said to be *tongue-tied*. Women very often imagine that their children have this defect, when it does not really exist: and perhaps one instance of it does not occur in several hundreds of those that are born. The disease may be always discovered by putting a finger gently into the child's mouth; for, if he be able to grasp it, as he would do the nipple in sucking, or if the tip of the tongue appear disengaged, the membrane does not require to be cut. The operation of dividing the *frænum*, trifling as it may appear, requires some caution, in order to avoid wounding the sublingual veins, and cutting too deep; for in the first case a fatal hemorrhage may ensue; and in the second, if the tongue is loosened too much, the tip may be turned back, and close up the throat; an accident that must soon occasion death. It may be discovered by the threatening suffocation

eration or convulsions, and by the introduction of the finger into the mouth, by which also the tongue may be pulled back, and the consequences avoided. This, however, is a very rare accident: it has been absurdly called "swallowing the point of the tongue." See Underwood on the Diseases of Children, vol. ii.

The *natural passages*, especially the anus, vagina, and urethra, are sometimes *imperfect*, preventing altogether, or in great part, the usual excretions. In some cases, a collection of mucus alone proves the obstacle; but, in others, membranous substances close up the passages; in which last instances, an operation will be requisite to open the parts, which must be performed by a skilful surgeon. In respect to the vagina, Dr. Underwood observes that he never found the external parts totally imperfect, there being always a small opening at the *meatus urinarius*: but the aperture to the vagina itself sometimes requires to be opened, either by the point of a lancet, or by the fingers only, which is generally easily effected, there being always a *raphe*, or line, where the natural opening should be. The anus is sometimes closed only by a thin membrane, so that the day after birth the meconium may be distinctly felt, and in a manner seen shining through it. A slight puncture with a lancet, and passing a bougie or the point of a finger into the bowel for two or three days afterwards, is sufficient to remove this impediment. But more commonly the imperfect anus is a melancholy case, allowing of no effectual remedy, as the gut often terminates in a cul-de-sac so high as not to be reached. The imperfect penis is not quite so common a case; but is not unfrequently suspected, when the aperture of the passage is merely stopped up by a little mucus. Under such circumstances, washing the part with warm milk and water, or at most a little assistance with a small probe, or any such blunt-pointed instrument, will be sufficient to open the passage. When the urethra is perfectly open nearly to the extremity, as often happens, it is necessary only to make a small aperture with a lancet, or a fine trocar, and to keep the part open by the occasional introduction of a slender bougie.

The *meconium* is that black viscid matter, which every infant discharges from the intestines for the first two or three days after birth; and many complaints have been ascribed to the undue retention of it, and consequently a great variety of purgative medicines have been recommended to be given, almost as soon as the child is born, with a view to expel it. But experience has taught, that the natural evacuant of this matter is the first milk of the mother, which is slightly laxative in its properties: the infant, therefore, should be put to the breast as soon after birth as the situation of the mother will allow. The absurd practice of compelling the child to devour a quantity of sugar and butter immediately on its entering the world, should be strictly forbidden. Yet something is necessary to carry off the contents of the bowels, when the milk will not effect it; and nothing answers better than about half a drachm of castor-oil, which may be repeated once or twice if found necessary; or, if preference be given to a formula, the following, although rather unchemical, combination may be prescribed. "R. Olei ricini. dr. iij. Syrupi rosæ dr. i. Misce pro mistura aperiente, cujus, cochleare minimum, quarta quaque-hora, donec alvus bene soluta fuerit, detur."

Jaundice, or, as the nurses term it, *yellow gum*, is among the diseases which take place within a few days after birth. It is preceded by drowsiness, and disinclination to suck, and is soon discovered by the universal yellowness of the skin. Sometimes the whites of the eyes appear yellow for a day or two before the other symptoms appear: the tinge of the skin is seldom deep, and the disease is more readily removeable than the jaundice of adults; but cases are occasionally met with, where the colour of the skin is of a dark yellow, the infant moans constantly, and convulsions follow, which at last destroy life. In regard to the treatment of this disease,

if the child seem to suffer no uneasiness, although its skin be quite yellow, and if the bowels be open, it will be unnecessary to administer any medicines. But, if he be unable to suck, and have a disposition to constant sleep, active measures should be adopted. These consist principally in evacuating the viscid matter, which probably clogs up the biliary ducts. An emetic of ipecacuan, and brisk laxatives, as of rhubarb, or frequent doses of a solution of manna, will then be found necessary, and their effects may be much promoted by the warm bath. When violent colic pains or convulsions accompany the yellow gum, there is reason to fear that the liver is diseased, and little can be expected from any remedy. See the article INFANT, vol. xi. p. 28, 9.

OF THE INSTRUMENTS USED IN DIFFICULT PARTURITION.

To determine on the necessity for instrumental interference, is one of the nicest points in the practice of midwifery; for, whilst the unnecessary employment of instruments cannot be too strongly reprobated, still no conduct ought to be more deprecated than that timid and cruel mismanagement, which permits an interesting female to struggle under fruitless efforts, till she sinks exhausted from such exertions, or is not delivered until irreparable mischief is done to the soft parts; in consequence of which, she may linger out a wretched existence for a few weeks or months; the victim of criminal procrastination.

To assist in forming an opinion on this momentous question, some such circumstances as the following may be noticed.

Should labour from any cause have proceeded until parturient action becomes so feeble as to be inadequate to expel the uterine contents, or should the *pains have altogether ceased*, then artificial aid is often justifiable. The cessation or diminution of pain referred to, is the consequence of original debility, or of an exhausted condition of the uterus from long-continued and fruitless contractile exertions; and must be distinguished from that *occasional and temporary* suspension of uterine efforts, which is not associated with any other unfavourable symptom, and which may often be removed by repose, nourishment, and abdominal and lumbar friction. Under these circumstances, *time* may be given, provided there be a little steady progress, the presenting part be loose in the pelvis; the vagina cool, and clothed with secretion; the mind tranquil; the powers of the system not exhausted; and the rectum and bladder capable of emptying themselves.

But, on the other hand, should the pains have been for many hours strong and expulsive; should the presenting part be firmly wedged in the pelvis, interrupting the functions of the bladder and rectum; surely common sense dictates that timely assistance should be given to prevent exhaustion or sloughing. Whenever then this state of things exists, with fever, restlessness, head-ache, vomiting, (the os uteri being fully dilated,) mental inquietude, abdominal tenderness, with heat, and dryness and pain about the vagina and os uteri—unless delivery be effected, low muttering delirium, feeble rapid and intermitting pulse, with cold clammy perspiration, will soon terminate the heart-rending scene.

Previous to describing each particular instrument, some general observations, which are equally applicable to the use of each of them, may be usefully made.

The bladder and rectum should, if possible, always be emptied: the former by the introduction of the catheter, and the latter by the exhibition of an enema. Instruments should never be introduced whilst the os uteri remains firm and undilated, or irreparable mischief may ensue.

The assistance given by instruments should always be afforded during a pain, that the uterus may be merely assisted in its exertions, and that it may be gradually emptied.

tied. Of course, if uterine contractions have ceased, all that can be done in this respect is to imitate nature by employing power with intervals of rest. Except under very peculiar circumstances, such as may occur in cases of hemorrhage, syncope, &c. the power employed should be rather steady than quick; and, if it secure perceptible advance of the child, however little the progress may be, it should be considered as satisfactory.

Instruments should always be introduced slowly and cautiously; and ought to be brought as nearly as possible to the temperature of the body, and well anointed, before being used.

The extracting power should be employed in the direction of the axis of the pelvis; so that, if the obstacle be at the brim, the handle of the instrument must be directed backwards against the coccyx; but, as the child advances, that part of the instrument grasped by the operator's hand should be gradually directed towards the pubes. Should the instrument, when used, give much pain, we may rest assured that some part of the mother is included in the grasp, and should immediately change the hold.

The instruments most approved in modern practice are represented on the annexed Plate.

1. The *velitis*, or lever, is a very simple instrument, although capable, in unskilful or incautious hands, of doing a great deal of mischief. It has been noticed at p. 683, and is represented at fig. 1. it is about 12 inches long. Of the comparative merits of this instrument and the following (the forceps), different writers and practitioners think very differently: some have lavished the highest encomiums on the one, and men equally eminent have bestowed the most unqualified approbation on the other. We are of opinion that, in general, the forceps effects the delivery better than the lever; but that, in a few rare instances, the lever is capable of effecting the delivery, though the forceps is not. As the lever is capable of being introduced more easily, and at an earlier period of the labour, (much earlier indeed than the case requires,) it is more frequently used unnecessarily, and of course hazardously, than the forceps. What has been stated, as an advantage in the lever, viz. the practicability of using it *secretly*, is one of its worst properties: for it is a sacred duty, which an accoucheur owes to his patients, as well as to himself, never to employ instruments secretly. He owes it to his patients, because there can be no security against the rash and improper use of instruments, unless the practitioner avows his intentions, and explains to the friends his reason for employing them: he owes it to himself, because, if the case requires the aid of instruments, he gains credit and reputation for his proficiency and skill.

2. The *short forceps* is a double lever, so constructed that the fulcrum of each blade is in the handle of the other. The forceps exhibited in the engraving, at fig. 2. differs somewhat from those in ordinary use in several important particulars. The *fenestræ* are so wide as to admit the protuberances of the parietal bones to pass through them, by which two very important objects are secured.

The first is, a *diminution of bulk*, because the alæ of the blades lie along the sides of the parietal bones, instead of adding to the size of the head, by being directly on or over them, as is inevitable with Smellie's and all similarly-constructed forceps, the alæ of which approximate too closely to permit any part of the cranium to pass through the fenestræ: in consequence of which, the difficulty of parturition (presuming it to consist in disproportion between the head and the pelvis) is materially augmented: and, also, instead of having the hard unyielding metal opposed to the soft parts of the mother, by which their safety is endangered, the prominences of the parietal bones passing through the fenestræ, when the forceps are well applied, will be in contact with the vagina; by which, it is obvious, there is much less pro-

bability of its sustaining injury, than from the blades of the forceps in ordinary use.

A second distinguishing feature of these short forceps is the curvature of the intermediate part between the blade and the handle, and which is intended to save the perineum from pressure and laceration. It is familiar to every practical man, that in many cases which require the employment of the forceps there is great danger of the perineum being torn, notwithstanding the utmost precaution on the part of the practitioner; particularly in that case in which the occiput, instead of being opposed to the symphysis pubis, is found descending along the hollow of the sacrum, (or in other words, the face inclined to the pubes;) and this, it need scarcely be observed, is one of the most common causes of protracted parturition demanding the aid of the forceps, presuming that the malposition of the head has been omitted to be rectified in the early stage of labour. If, in this malposition of parts, the forceps are well applied, the points will be directed forwards to the pubis, and the handles backwards towards the rectum, endangering, by pressure, the safety of the perineum. Now, the simple contrivance of a curvature in the shanks fully meets this serious evil, independent of the permission which it gives to the handles to be carried much further back than they could otherwise be, by which a firmer and more favourable hold is obtained of the child's head; and for want of which, in many instances, the points of the blades, instead of being directed over the cheeks and towards the chin, pass on, and even wound the neck of the infant.

This instrument measures, from the point of the blade to the extremity of the handle, 11½ inches. The blades are 5 inches in length, exclusive of the curve. Their greatest width is at the middle, and measures 2½ inches; the fenestræ at that part being 1½ inch wide; the opening at the points and shoulders being about half an inch. The alæ of the blades should not exceed a quarter of an inch in width; and the widest part, between the opposite blades, ought not to measure more than two inches and a half, or five-eighths. The shank of either blade is just two inches in length, extending from the shoulder of the blade to the locking-part of the handle, making the blades all together 7 inches in length. The handles are about 4½ inches in length. The one, which, when viewed with the concavity of its blade upwards, and with the convexity of the curvature in the shank to the left hand, has the lower three inches and a half of it so constructed as to be moveable by a screw, for the purpose of more easily introducing that upper handle in particular cases without changing the position of the woman.

It is necessary to the successful application of forceps, that the head or face present, that the labour be sufficiently advanced, and that there exist not a great disproportion between the diameter of the pelvis, and the head of the child. It should be remarked moreover, that no case is commonly esteemed eligible for the application of the lever or short forceps, unless the ear of the child can be distinctly felt; by which time it is presumed that the os uteri will be fully dilated, and the perineum somewhat relaxed: should the perineum be rigid, there will be great hazard of lacerating it, when the head is brought down. So careful have the best professors of midwifery been, to guard against an improper use of these instruments, that it has been laid down as a rule of practice; "That the forceps shall never be applied, till the ear of the child has been within reach of the operator's finger for at least six hours." This is a judicious rule, and ought to be generally adhered to, since very few cases indeed occur (hemorrhage and convulsions excepted) in which it would be unsafe to wait for six hours after the ear comes within reach of the finger: nor should recourse be had to instruments even then; if a probable chance exists of finishing the labour safely without them.

Parturition is now considered to be sufficiently advanced



Instruments used in difficult Parturition.

vanced for the application of the short forceps when the ear of the child can be felt, or, if that is impracticable, when the head of the child has descended within an inch of the os externum. But the *long forceps* may be used whenever the circle of the uterus is obliterated, or so much dilated that the head of the child is likely to emerge without producing laceration. When the diameter of the pelvis is not two inches and a half, no good can result from the use of the forceps; and, even in cases where the pelvis is of those dimensions, it will be requisite to use instruments the blades of which are not so wide apart as those in common use.

The following are the most approved rules for the application of the forceps. The hips of the patient should be placed quite on the edge of the bed, to obviate the inconvenience with which the upper blade would be introduced, if the mattress, &c. remained in the way. Then the accoucheur, kneeling down, and opposing himself to the axis of the pelvis, should carefully introduce the forefinger of his right hand over the ear of the child as far as possible; he should then pass the inferior blade of the forceps between his finger and the head of the child: if, in so doing, the point of the blade should come in contact with the ear of the child, the handle must be elevated till the point has passed over the obstruction, should be depressed again immediately, and pushed slowly forward, keeping the point closely in contact with the child to avoid inclining the os uteri. This blade is to be kept in its situation by the third and little fingers of the left hand, while the forefinger is inserted over the ear of the child, and after it the superior blade of the forceps, observing the same care, with regard to the ear and os uteri, as in the introduction of the inferior blade.

The next part of the operation consists in *locking* the instrument; in doing which, care must be taken not to include any of the soft parts, or of the hair; such an accident being productive of great pain. The locking of the blades is sometimes attended with difficulty; it is generally necessary to withdraw one or both of them a little way, and cross them in different directions until the stop or shoulder of each can be felt on the outside of the other. When thus fixed, the handles may be fastened together with a piece of tape, but not so tightly as to compress the head; and the operator may proceed to the extraction of the child; in the performance of which, particular attention must be paid to the different axes of the brim, cavity, and outlet, of the pelvis. When the obstruction is at the brim, (in which case the long forceps are used,) traction must be made with the handles of the instrument as near as possible to the anus; when in the cavity, force must be exerted in a direction a little way removed from the perineum; and, when at the outlet, the handles of the instrument should be pushed towards the pubis, and extraction performed close to the superior part of the vagina. In all these situations, a lateral motion should be conjoined with direct traction; and, during these exertions, the handles of the instrument should be held firmly for the purpose of compressing the head of the child. But, in all cases, the force at first used should be very moderate, and is to be increased as occasion may require; for, if the head advances at all, however slowly, with the force first applied, it need not be increased; because, as Dr. Denman has very truly observed, "a small degree of force continued for a long time, will in general be equivalent to a greater force hastily exerted, and with infinitely less detriment either to mother or child." An invaluable little work, entitled "*Aphorisms on the Application and Use of the Forceps and Vestis*," by Thomas Denman, M.D. should be in the hands, and impressed on the memory, of every practitioner in midwifery.

3. Of the *long forceps* we have met with no printed description but that by Dr. Conquest, who calls it "an invaluable instrument." It is not, however, a new discovery, as it was "originally employed by Levret; and,

although it has since been somewhat modified, and recommended by several respectable authors and lecturers, it is but little known, and much less estimated, or it would be employed by accoucheurs as a most important substitute for the perforator and crotchet, in many of those cases in which children are now destroyed."

This instrument is principally applicable; First, to those cases of deformity at the brim of the pelvis, in which the diminished capacity of the pelvis is from sacrum to pubes, and yet so slight, that a little power beyond what the uterus can employ would expel living children which are now almost universally sacrificed at the shrine of prejudice. Secondly, to those cases of hemorrhage, convulsions, &c. in which the head of the child is resting on the superior aperture of the pelvis; and in which, delivery, being essential to the well-doing of the mother, is now usually effected by opening the head of the child.

The long forceps, in contra-distinction to the short one, is to be applied over the occiput and face of the child, so that the convex edges of the blades may correspond to the concavity of the sacrum. When used, the power may be exerted laterally, or from side to side, with moderate traction, remembering that the axis of the brim of the pelvis requires the handles to be kept backwards towards the os coccygis; but, as the head descends, its most favourable position in relation to the pelvis must be secured. Dr. Conquest concludes, "It has been extremely gratifying to myself and to several highly-esteemed friends, to have been, by this means, instrumental already in rescuing not a few children whose heads had been condemned to be opened."

4. The *fillet*, or *lacque*, is very seldom used in modern practice. It consisted of a strip of strong cloth formed into a noose; and it was sometimes contrived with whalebone or steel, so as to be more easily passed over the chin, or round the neck of the child, and thus to give the operator the means of using much force to extract the head. Before the forceps became generally known, the practitioners of midwifery entertained a very high opinion of the merits of this instrument; as may be judged, from the care taken by different persons to inculcate a belief that they possessed a secret and superior method of forming and employing this contrivance; and also from the high price which was sometimes demanded for the sale of this supposed secret; which, in the case of Dr. Birch, was fool. It is impossible to divest oneself of the opinion, that there was frequently much of trick in the use of this contrivance; that the operator claimed for himself the merit of having effected the labour by his skill and address in employing an instrument, when in fact the patient was indebted to nature alone for her delivery; for it is sufficiently apparent that this kind of instrument was inadequate to the purpose of safely terminating the delivery in cases of real difficulty.

Probably there is no practitioner now living in England, who has witnessed the use of the fillet in natural presentations. The late Dr. Merriman, when young in practice, was engaged to attend a woman of her second child. In her first labour she was delivered by a midwife; the child came footling, and, after a very painful labour, it was still-born. When her second labour came on, which was preceded by a discharge of the liquor amnii, she sent for Dr. M. who, finding the pains to be very insufficient, left her. For two days little progress was made; but on the third the os uteri began to dilate, though very slowly, the head continuing very high in the pelvis. The loss of the first child having made the friends of this patient very anxious respecting her, it was proposed that another accoucheur should visit her; and, this being agreed to, Dr. R. a native of France, and an accoucheur of much celebrity, was sent for. On examining the patient, he gave it as his opinion, that she might be speedily delivered, if assisted by the fillet, and politely proposed that Dr. M. should endeavour to deliver with

that instrument; but he declined the offer, both because he was not convinced that any instrument was then required, and because he doubted whether the fillet could be applied or acted with. Dr. R. therefore proceeded to the operation himself.

A strong new fillet being procured, and the proper noose made, it was dexterously-enough introduced, and, though it put the woman to a great deal of pain, at length fixed, and drawn close round the neck of the child. The doctor then began pulling with considerable force; but, as the fillet galled his hands, he procured a common rolling-pin, round which he tied the ends of the fillet, and pulled again with very great force, till he exerted the whole of his strength, perhaps not judiciously enough waiting for, and taking advantage of, the pains. This exertion put the patient to inexpressible torture, but did not seem to answer the end proposed, as the head advanced but very little, and probably was turned to one side by the fillet; which, from the nature of its hold, could only draw in one direction, and that perpendicularly from the part to which the noose was fixed, which, whether on one side of the neck, over the occiput, or over the chin, must have a tendency to drag down that part first, and consequently, the head must be doubled on the neck, and the difficulty thereby increased, rather than diminished. That this was really the case, the event showed; for, by the prodigious force used in pulling, the fillet at length came away, bringing inclosed in its noose some of the skin and flesh, with one of the vertebræ of the neck.

This was an undeniable proof, that the fillet had actually cut off the child's head, which was left in the pelvis. There remained therefore no remedy, but to try what could be done by opening the head and extracting with the crotchets; and, luckily, the head was by this time so engaged in the bones of the pelvis, that it was not pushed back into the uterus by the attempt to perforate the skull. This perforation was made in one of the ossa parietalia, and not in the vertex, by which it plainly appeared, that the head had been drawn to one side by the fillet. At length, with much difficulty, the head was extracted, and the body easily followed. Immediately after delivery the lochia ceased, a violent fever with delirium came on, and the abdomen was prodigiously tumefied; on the second day the patient grew stupid and insensible, and in a few hours died.

Dr. Merriman has been frequently heard to say, that the screams of this poor woman, under the operation, were greater than he ever witnessed in any other case of labour. There is reason to believe this was the last time that the fillet, in natural presentations, was used in London.

In Hamilton's Elements of the Practice of Midwifery, (1775,) the extraordinary case of a young woman is recorded, who, when apparently in the agonies of death, was deserted by her medical attendant, after he had by some means separated the head of the fœtus from the body. This poor woman was afterwards delivered, first of the body, and then of the child's head, by Mr. Robert Smith, a celebrated surgeon at Edinburgh, and ultimately recovered. It is probable that the separation in this instance was effected by injudicious and violent force with a fillet.

The preceding instruments are those which do not, of necessity, injure either the mother or the child. The following are intended to destroy the life of the child for the purpose of preserving that of the mother.

5. The *perforator* is an instrument formed like scissors on a large scale, viz. about thirteen inches in length, and of proportionate thickness, with the edges rounded, that they may not cut, and with a guard, or projection, on each blade, about three inches from the points, to prevent their entering farther than is necessary into the skull of the child. Having pushed the perforator through one of the parietal bones of the head of the child, or through a suture, if one can be found, until stopped by the guard, the handles must be opened, and the instrument turned round, by which means the aperture in the skull will be enlarged in every direction, when the perforator may be withdrawn. See the Engraving, fig. 3.

The cases which require the perforator are those where the pelvis is so small at the brim, that the child's head cannot pass through it. Other causes do indeed sometimes render the perforator necessary: but the legitimate cause for using this instrument, is "distortion of the pelvis."

Presentations of the face now and then demand perforation of the cranium, to diminish its size. In these cases, the perforator should be introduced just above the nose, in the sagittal suture. When it becomes necessary to open the head after the lower extremities are expelled, the perforation must be made behind the ear.

6. The *crotchet* is contrived for extracting the cranium, after it has been broken down by the perforator. It is a very simple instrument, with a handle removeable by a spring, as represented at fig. 4. Sometimes a blunt hook may be advantageously substituted for it. But Dr. Conquest proposes to lay aside both the sharp and the blunt hook, and to introduce,

7. The *craniotomy-forceps*, invented by Dr. Davis, and improved by himself. This instrument, represented at fig. 5. is 12 inches in length. The blade which is applied externally to the cranium, and which is hollowed out, has fixed into it twelve sharp teeth, not rising above its edges. This blade is $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches in length from its point to the joint of the instrument, being half an inch longer than the inner blade, to carry up to any pendulous part of the os uteri, which might otherwise be included in the grasp. The opposite blade, which is to be introduced within the cranium, is only 4 inches in length: its hollow is filled with a piece of steel, having a convex surface perforated with twelve holes to receive the angular points of its antagonizing blade; so that, when the cranium is firmly pressed between them, the teeth transfix it, and secure a very commanding hold. The shanks are 5 inches in length, and curved, the concavity corresponding with the curve of the blades. This construction is intended to accommodate the instrument to the perinæum in those cases in which it must be endangered by pressure, if the shanks were straight, in consequence of the necessity which may exist for carrying the blades over and anteriorly to the pubes; thus this one instrument becomes adapted at once to ordinary cases, and to such as present unusual difficulty. The parts which may be more strictly called the handles, are not more than two inches and a half in length. The presumed superiority of these instruments over those in ordinary use, is fully treated of in p. 693, 4.

8. The *bistoury*, or *scalpel*, used in the division of the symphysis pubis, or in the cesarian operation, is nothing more than a small straight knife, similar to that which is employed in various other operations of surgery and anatomy. See, therefore, the article SURGERY.

PARTY, *f.* [*partie*, Fr.] A number of persons confederated by similarity of designs or opinions in opposition to others; a faction.—Division between those of the same *party*, exposes them to their enemies. *Pope*.—One of two litigants.—When you are hearing a matter between *party* and *party*, if, pinched with the cholick, you make faces like mummers, and dismiss the controversy more entangled by your hearing; all the peace you make in their cause is calling both *parties* knaves. *Shakespeare*.—If a bishop be a *party* to a suit, and excommunicates his adversary; such excommunication shall not bar his adversary from his action. *Ayliffe's Parergon*.—One concerned in any affair:

Freed and enfranchis'd; not a *party* to
The anger of the king, nor guilty of
The trespass of the queen.

Shakespeare.

Side; persons engaged against each other:

Our foes, compell'd by need, have peace embrac'd,
The peace, both *parties* want, is like to last. *Dryden.*

Cause; side.—Ægle came in, to make their *party* good. *Dryden*.—A select assembly.—If the clergy would a little study the arts of conversation, they might be welcome at every *party* where there was the least regard for politeness or good sense. *Swift*.

Let me extol a cat on oysters fed;
I'll have a *party* at the Bedford-head.

Pope.

Particular person; a person distinct from, or opposed to, another.—The minister of justice may, for public example, virtuously will the execution of that *party*, whose pardon another, for consanguinity's sake, as virtuously may desire. *Hooker*.—How shall this be compass'd? canst thou bring me to the *party*? *Shakespeare's Tempest*.—The imagination of the *party* to be cured, is not needful to concur; for it may be done without the knowledge of the *party* wounded. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—He that confesses his sin and prays for pardon, hath punished his fault: and then there is nothing left to be done by the offended *party*, but to return to charity. *Bp. Taylor*.—Though there is a real difference between one man and another, yet the *party*, who has the advantage, usually magnifies the inequality. *Collier on Pride*.—A detachment of soldiers: as, He commanded the *party* sent thither.—Opposite *party*; an usage perhaps peculiar to Spenser:

It often falls in course of common life,
That right long time is overborne of wrong,
Through avarice, or power, or guile, or strife,
That weakens her, and makes her *party* strong.
But justice, though her doom she do prolong,
Yet at the last she will her own cause right. *Fairy Qu.*

PARTY, in a military sense, a small number or detachment of men, horse or foot, sent upon any kind of duty; as into an enemy's country, to pillage; to take prisoners, and oblige the country to come under contribution. Parties are often sent out to view the roads and ways, get intelligence, seek forage, reconnoitre, or amuse the enemy upon a march; they are also frequently sent upon the flanks of an army, or regiment, to discover the enemy, if near, and prevent surprise or ambuscade.

Recruiting PARTY, a certain number of men, under an officer or non-commissioned officer, detached from their respective battalions, for the purpose of enlisting men.

Firing PARTY, those who are selected to fire over the grave of any one interred with military honours. The specific number of which the party is to consist depends upon the rank which the deceased held in the army: thus, the funeral of a field-marshal must be saluted with 3 rounds of 15 pieces of cannon, attended by 6 battalions, and 8 squadrons; that of a general, with 3 rounds of 11 pieces of cannon, 4 battalions, and 6 squadrons; and this was all the honour that could consistently be allowed at the funeral of Napoleon, ex-emperor of the French, May 10, 1821, at St. Helena.

The funeral of a colonel is saluted by his own battalion, or an equal number by detachment, with 3 rounds of small arms; that of a captain, by his own company, or 70 rank and file, with 3 rounds of small arms; that of a lieutenant, by 1 lieutenant, 1 serjeant, 1 drummer, 1 fifer, and 36 rank and file, with 3 rounds; that of an ensign, adjutant, surgeon, or quarter-master, by an ensign, a serjeant, and drummer, and 27 rank and file, with 3 rounds; that of a serjeant, by a serjeant, and 19 rank and file, with 3 rounds of small arms; that of a corporal, musician, private man, drummer, and fife, by 1 serjeant, and 13 rank and file, with 3 rounds of small arms.

Working-PARTIES. These consist of small detachments of men, under the immediate command and superintendence of officers, who are employed on fatigues which are not purely of a military nature. They are generally called *fatigue-duties*, being different from those of parade, or of exercise in the field. They principally consist in digging canals, repairing roads, working on fortifications, except such as may be constructed in the field, or upon actual service. An addition is made to their pay, as a reward for their labour, and a compensation for their extraordinary wear of necessaries; half of which should always be paid into the hands of the captains and commanding officers of companies, for this latter purpose. It has been judiciously observed, in a note to the treatise on Military Finance, that British troops might in time of peace be employed much oftener than they are on works of this nature, with equal advantage to the public and to themselves. This remark becomes more forcibly apposite since the adoption of canals through the country. *James's Mil. Dict.*

PARTY-COLOURED, *adj.* Having diversity of colours.—The leopard was valuing himself upon the lustre of his *party-coloured* skin. *L'Estrange*.

The fulsome ewes,
Then conceiving, did in yeanning-time,
Fall *party-colour'd* lambs. *Shakespeare's Merch. of Ven.*

From one father both,
Both girt with gold, and clad in *party-colour'd* cloth. *Dryden.*

Constrain'd him in a bird, and made him fly
With *party-colour'd* plumes a chattering pie. *Dryden.*

Four knaves in garb succinct, a trusty band,
And *party-colour'd* troops a shining train,
Draw forth to combat on the velvet plain. *Pope.*

Motley, in a figurative sense.—The mixture of fool and knave maketh up the *parti-colour'd* creatures that make all the bustle in the world. *Marq. of Halifax*.

PARTY-JURY, *f.* [In law.] A jury in some trials, half foreigners and half natives.

PARTY-MAN, *f.* A factious person; an abettor of a party.—The most violent *party-men* I have ever observed, are such as, in the conduct of their lives, have discovered least signs of religion or morality. *Swift*.

PARTY-WALL, *f.* Wall that separates one house from the next.—'Tis an ill custom among bricklayers to work up a whole story of the *party-walls*, before they work up the fronts. *Moxon*.

PARU, a fort of Brasil, in the jurisdiction of Para, on the north side of the river Amazon. Lat. 1. 50. S. lon. 54. 10. W.

PARU, or **GINIPEPE**, a river of Brasil, which runs into the Amazon near Paru.

PARUA, a river of Brasil, which runs into the Atlantic in lat. 13. 20. S.

PARUAH, [Heb. one that flourishes.] A man's name.

PAR/VAIM, in Scripture geography, either Parbacia in the land of Havilah, or Ophir. Perhaps Taprobane is the same as *Taph-parvaim*, "the Shore of Parvaim." From Parvaim king Solomon had the gold wherewith he overlaid the inside of his temple. 2 *Chron.* iii. 6.

PARVA'TI,

PARVA'TI, in the Hindoo mythology, is the consort of Siva, the personification of the destructive, or rather renovating or changing, power in their triad. The consorts of the Hindoo male divinities are termed their *sakti*, which means their energy, or active power. The females are thus co-equal to their spouses, and are endowed with the same attributes, and differ, sex excepted, very little from them. See MATRI, vol. xiv.

A history of the goddess Parvati, under her various forms and names, might be extended to volumes, and many volumes, we may say scores of volumes, have, in fact, been written thereon. The sacred romances called Puranas abound in legends relating to the origin and proceedings, the amours, quarrels, incarnations, battles, &c. of this all-producing, all-pervading, personification of Nature. She is said, like her lord, to have a thousand names; they are strung metrically together, and are recited by her votaries in their propitiatory adorations. *Parvati* means "mountain-born," she having, in one of her many terrestrial descents, sprung from such a parentage, as is noticed under the article MERA. In her name and character of Parvati, many magnificent temples are erected to her honour in different parts of India, especially on mountains and elevated situations. All mountains, as bearing a conical form, a form naturally assumed by fire, are typical of this goddess or her lord; he being a personification of that *destructive*, and, in its form of heat, *renovating* element. Throughout India, from Nepal to Ceylon, and from Siam to Surat, temples are raised to this extensively-worshipped couple; and their sectaries, under various names, still offer adoration in them. At Poona the principal temple is on a high hill called Parvati, or Parbutty, which gives a name to the quarter of the city in its neighbourhood. *Durga* is another of her names; and this name, meaning "difficult of access," is appropriately given to hill-forts, provincially corrupted into Droog or Durgam. Chittledroog, for instance, is corrupted from *Sita* and *Durga*, names of this goddess, which, in composition, and with a grammatical copulative, mean the Hill, or Inaccessible Place, of Sita. Chittagong is altered from *Sita Gao*, or *Gom*, the Town of Sita. Much of the geographical nomenclature of India is thus derivable from its mythological personages.

In her character of *Kaumari*, or the Virgin, Parvati corresponds, as she does likewise in many other instances, with the Taurican Diana. She may be identified similarly with most of the female deities of Greece and Rome, not in name merely, but in attributes and character. Most of those female deities are found, on minute inspection, to melt into one, as do those of India into Parvati; who is a personification of the Moon, as her consort Siva is of the Sun; co-equal emblems merely of "that infinitely greater Light, whence all proceeded, whither all must return, and which alone can illumine our intellects." This is the substance of the most sacred text of the Hindoo scripture. See O'M.

The attributes of *Durga* are conspicuous in the festival called by her name *Durgotsava*; and, in this character, we are told by sir W. Jones she resembles Minerva, "not the peaceful inventress of the useful and fine arts, but Pallas, armed with a helmet and spear: both represent heroic virtue, or valour united with wisdom; both slew demons and giants with their own hands; and both protected the wise and virtuous, who paid them due adoration."

"As the Mountain-born Goddess, or *Parvati*, she has many properties of the Olympian Juno; her majestic deportment, high spirit, and general attributes, are the same; and we find her on mount Kailasa, and at the banquets of the deities, uniformly the companion of her husband." In her character of Bhavani, sir W. Jones supposes the wife of Mahadeva, or Siva, to be as well the Juno Cinxia, or Lucina of the Romans, (called also by them Diana Solvizona, and by the Greeks *Ilythya*), as

Venus herself; not the Italian queen of laughter and jollity, who, with her nymphs and graces, was the beautiful child of poetical imagination, and answers to the Indian Rhemba, with her train of *Apjaras*, or Damsels of Paradise; but Venus Urania, so luxuriantly painted by Lucretius, and so properly invoked by him at the opening of a poem on Nature. Venus presiding over generation, and on that account exhibited sometimes of both sexes, (an union very common in the Indian sculptures,) as in her bearded statue at Rome; and perhaps in the images called *Hermathena*, and in those figures of her which had a conical form; for the reason of which we are left (says Tacitus) in the dark. "The reason," continues our author, "appears too clearly in the temples and paintings of Hindoostan, where it never seems to have entered the heads of the legislators or people, that any thing natural could be offensively obscene; a singularity which pervades all their writings and conversation, but is no proof of depravity in their morals."

The same highly-gifted author, in his Dissertation on the Gods of Greece, Italy, and India, identifies the Stygian or Tauric Diana, otherwise named Hecate, and often confounded with Proserpine, with *Kali*, a name and form of Parvati, in her character of wife of Kal, who corresponds with the Stygian Jove. Human victims, as well as the sacrifice of horses and bulls, enjoined by the Veda, being in the present age absolutely prohibited, kids are now offered to *Kali*, or the Black Goddess; and, to palliate the cruelty of the slaughter, which gave great offence to the Hindoo followers of milder tenets and practice, the Brahmans inculcate a belief, that the poor victims rise in the heaven of Indra, and become the musicians of his band. A cup, called by both Romans and Hindoos *patera* (see PATRA), a whip, or cord (see PASH), a sceptre, a child, a car drawn by peacocks and by lions, a turreted crown, a drum (called *dyndima* both in Greek and Sanscrit), a sphere, a torch, a lily or lotos, a serpent, a spear, a bow, with other common attributes, might be noticed as identifying the multifarious goddesses in question.

That the names just noted, as well as Urania, Isis, and many others, are in fact of the same goddess Nature, under different forms, there can be no doubt. The Pantamorphia Mater; Dea Jana, or Diva Jana, was easily made by the Romans into *Diana*. Devi-jenni, the teeming goddess; Viswa-jenni, the all-producing, are Sanscrit terms, applicable to Parvati in her character of *Prakriti*, or Nature. Juno may be derived from *Yoni*; Ceres from *Sri*, or in one case *Sris*; Anna Perenna, from *Ana-purna*, a name of Parvati, meaning, in Sanscrit, "abundance of food," or "one who fills with food." In this character she holds a ladle. Astarte, as well as Esther, Ashtaroth, and the Persian *Sitara*, meaning a star, or something fidereal, may be traced to *Ahtara*, another name of the Hindoo goddess, derived from a legend in which she was seated among eight points, and hence applied to the radii of a star. The learned antiquary Spon (Misc. Erud. Ant.) gives a print of a monument where Diana is called *Clatra*; her attributes are those of Parvati, one of whose names is *Kabratni*, the goddess of darkness, the origin possibly of its unmeaning synonyme. See the Asiatic Researches, vol. i. p. 221-275 of the London 8vo. edit.

A cone, mostly a black conical stone, is the phallic emblem of Siva, and of course of his consort Parvati. Western mythologists tell us of a black conical stone that fell from heaven; it was placed in a temple of Astarte, or the Moon, and itself adored as a type of the Sun. The Paphian goddess was also anciently symbolized by a cone. When Dr. Clarke, in his recently-published "Travels," describes some antiquities of the Holy Land, we might almost imagine that he was in the country of the Hindoos. He describes "a subterraneous conical temple, having no resemblance to any Christian temple, its situation under the pinnacle of a mountain, one probably of the three points

points of the Mount of Olives, (see MERU,) the highest of which was set apart for the worship of Astaroth," &c. (vol. ii. p. 578.) denoting strongly the Hindoo superstition having been anciently prevalent there. The pyramids of Egypt, Stonehenge in England, and many other antiquities now remote from its scenes, are referred, and with plausible arguments, to the same polytheistic source.

It is curious to see, in Dr. Clarke's plate delineating "the sacred pictures in use among the Kalmuck tribes," exact representations of Hindoo deities. In the figure that he properly styles, "Diva Triformis, Luna, Diana, and Hecate," we recognize, unequivocally, the Hindoo Parvati, in one of those many forms in which she is generally termed *Devi*, or the Goddess. *Devi Tri Sakti*, or "with three forms," or powers, is one of her names!

In Dr. Clarke's plate, she has her own mystical hieroglyphic, a type of the Yoni, on the forehead; collars, of skulls perhaps, round and pendent on her neck and belly; a glory, or nimbus, round her head; six-handed, holding a bow and arrow, the trisula or trident of Siva; a cone, or linga; the chakra, or discus of Vishnu; his club; the lotos, the cord, or pasha, of *Devi*, before referred to; and the Kalmuck divinity sits in one of *Devi*'s commonest positions, on a lotos-throne. Such a subject we should have expected to find in the Hindoo Pantheon, rather than in Russian travels. A representation is likewise given of "Osiris or Bacchus of the Kalmucks." This is also a Hindoo subject; but, being only two-handed, there is not much scope for attributes; it has the distinguishing forehead-mark, attitude, countenance, and character, of the Hindoo school. The next, "Hyperion or Phœbus of the Kalmucks," is a barbarous representation of Krishna, with the serpent Kaliya, and other Hindoo attributes. The "Terpsichore of the Kalmucks playing on the Balalaikas," is Saraswati with her Vina; (see the article MUSIC, vol. xvi. p. 381.) Dr. Clarke does not say where he obtained these subjects, nor in what degree they are honoured; but we see no reason to doubt their genuineness. They have found their way into Asiatic Tartary, through China probably; and would lead us to infer that the Kalmucks have, or have had, some Hindoo superstitions among them. Their name is easily traceable to the same source. *Kal-mu-ki* is pure Sanscrit, and means "black-faced," or "with the countenance of Kal;" a name that is applicable to Parvati in some of her characters; although we do not recollect any specific authority for giving her that appellation.

In her character of Parvati, she is usually seen in pictures in company with her spouse; and is represented as of perfect beauty, splendidly dressed and decorated; sometimes sitting on his knee, or on a carpet beside him, or on a tiger's or elephant's skin, presenting him *amrita* (ambrosia) in a golden goblet. Sometimes she is mounted with him on a white bull, with their reputed sons Kartikeya and Pollar.

Under her various forms and characters she is variously armed and arrayed. Sometimes she has four, eight, twelve, sixteen, and as far as thirty-two, arms. In the plates of the Hindoo Pantheon, she is represented upwards of fourscore times, in varied form and character; and legends are said to be found in the theogonical and mythological writings of the Hindoos, detailing her origin and achievements in each. In some plates of the work just alluded to, she is represented, from original subjects, pre-eminently placed as the supreme object of adoration; the chief of the gods, even the three persons of the Hindoo triad being among her votaries. Such pictures and sculptures may be ascribed to the sects who adore her exclusively as Nature.

The sectaries of this goddess, who, under different names, and adoring her under different forms, are numerous, have various symbolical marks by which they are distinguished. Generally speaking, perpendicular lines on the forehead distinguish the Saivas from the Vaishnavas, the latter having them horizontal. See the Engraving at p.

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121 of the article HINDOOSTAN, vol. x. and farther particulars under the same article, p. 115-130.

PARVE'TI MON'S, in ancient geography, a chain of mountains described by Ptolemy, corresponding to the heights of Sulmandroog, lying south-east of Candahar, and being the southern boundary of the province of Paropamisus.

PAR'VICH, a small island in the Adriatic, near the coast of Dalmatia; fertile in grapes, olives, and mulberries.

PAR'VIS, *f.* [French. Menage derives the word from the Lat. *paradisus*, changing *d* into *v*; and shows abundantly that *paradisus* was used for a place or portico before a church.] A church-porch: applied to the mootings or law disputes among young students in the inns of courts, and also to that disputation at Oxford called *disputatio in parvisis*. A square kind of court before cathedrals, surrounded with piazzas. The *parvis*, or place of disputation in London, is supposed by Dugdale to have been called the *pervyse of Pawles*.—In the year 1300, children were taught to sing and read in the *parvis* of St. Martin's church at Norwich. *Warton's Hist. E. P.*

A sergeant of the lawe, ware and wise,
That often hadde yben at the *parvisse*.

Chaucer.

PAR'VITUDE, *f.* [from *parvus*, Lat.] Littleness; Minuteness. *Not used*.—The little ones of *parvitude* cannot reach to the same floor with them. *Glanville*.

PAR'VITY, *f.* [from *parvus*, Lat.] Littleness; minuteness. *Not used*.—What are these for fineness and *parvity* to those minute animalcula discovered in pepper-water. *Ray*.

PAR'ULIS, *f.* [from the Gr. *παρα*, and *ελον*, the gums.] An inflammation, or abscess, of the gums; a gum-boil.

PARU'R, a town of Hindoostan, in Cochin: ten miles east-south-east of Cranganore.

PAR'US, *f.* the TITMOUSE, or TOM-TIT; in ornithology, a genus of the order passeræ. Generic characters—Bill entire, narrow, somewhat compressed, stout, hard, sharpened, and beset at the base with bristles; nostrils in most of the species bare; tongue truncate, but split at the end into four distinct filaments; the toes are divided quite to their origin, the hind one large and strong.

These birds are found in almost every part of the old world, from the north of Europe to the south of India; and, of course, were known to the ancients. In Greek the titmouse is named *αριθαλος*; in old Latin, *parva*; in modern Latin, *parus*, *parix*, *mesjanga*. In Italy it is called *parula*; and in some districts *parizola*, *patascio*, &c. in France, *mésjange*; in Savoy, *mayenche*; in Germany, *mayss*, *meyslin*; the English, *titmouse*, has the same derivation, and probably, as Ray conjectures, alludes to the birds nestling in holes of trees, or walls, like mice.

The birds of this genus appear feeble, because they are small: but they are lively, active, and bold; they are perpetually in motion; they flutter from tree to tree; they hop from branch to branch; they creep along the bark; they climb the sides of walls; (this Vaillant absolutely contradicts;) they suspend themselves in all situations, often with their head downwards, in order to search every little cranny, and pick out the worms, the insects, or their eggs. They also feed on seeds; but, instead of breaking these in their bill, like the linnets and the goldfinches, almost all the titmice hold them under their little claws and peck them; they also pierce nuts, walnuts, &c. If a nut be suspended at the end of a thread, they will cling to it, follow the oscillations, and without quitting their hold they will continue to peck it. It has been observed that the muscles of their neck are very strong, and those of the head thick, which accounts in part for their manœuvres: their other motions imply great force in the muscles of the legs and toes.

Most of the European titmice occur in our climate;

8 X

but

but they are never so numerous as about the end of autumn; when those which live during the summer in the forests or on the mountains are driven, by the cold and snows, from their retreat, and descend in quest of food into the cultivated plains, near habitations. During all the winter months, and even in the beginning of the spring, they subsist on dry seeds, and on fragments of insects, which they find by ferreting the trees. They also crop the opening buds, and eat the caterpillars' eggs, particularly those which are seen round the small branches ranged like a series of rings, or the wreaths of a spiral: they also search for small dead birds, or such as are exhausted by disease, or entangled in snares, and, in short, all those incapable of resistance, though of their own species; they seize them with all the ferocity of the carnivorous tribes, pierce their skull, and feed upon the brains. Nor is this cruelty palliated by want; for (like the butcher-bird) they are guilty of it even when they are abundantly supplied with other food. In summer they eat not only almonds, walnuts, insects, &c. but all sorts of nuts, chestnuts, beech-mast, figs, the seeds of hemp, of panic, and other small seeds. It is observed that those bred in the cage are fond of blood, tainted meat, rancid fat, and tallow melted or burnt by the flame of a candle. It would seem that the state of domestication vitiates their taste.

In general, the titmice, though voracious, and fond of carrion, love society, and unite in numerous flocks; if they are parted by any accident, they mutually call on each other, and soon re-assemble. The unions which they annually form in the spring are of a closer nature, and are very productive. No genus of birds is so prolific as that of the titmice; and so well known is this fact in England, that it is usual to call a little prolific woman a titmouse. No birds attack the owl with such intrepidity; they are ever the first to dart on the nocturnal foe, and they aim constantly at the eyes; their action is attended with a swell of the feathers, and with a rapid succession of violent attitudes and rapid movements, which powerfully mark the bitterness of their rage. When they are caught, they bite keenly the finger of the bird-catcher, strike furiously with their bill, and invite, by their loud screams, the other birds of their species, which thus also fall into the snare, and in their turn decoy others. Lottinger affirms that, in the mountains of Lorraine, when the weather is foggy, forty or fifty dozens may be caught in a morning with no apparatus but a call, a small tent, and a cleft stick. They may also be ensnared with various gins, with the trap, with the noose, with lime-twigs, or with a small lark-net; or they may be intoxicated, as the ancients practised, with meal soaked in wine. Such are the numerous methods of destroying these small birds; and almost all of these are successfully employed. The reason is, that people who keep bees suffer much from the titmice, which make great havoc among these useful insects, especially when they have young. Their extreme vivacity drives them into every kind of snare, especially on their arrival; for at that time they are very tame, they lodge in the bushes, and flutter about the roads, allowing one to get near them; but afterwards they gain experience, and become more shy.

They lay from eighteen to twenty eggs: some deposit these in the holes of trees, which they round and smooth with their bill, and fashion them internally into the proper form; others lay them in ball-shaped nests, which are of a magnitude very disproportionate to so small a bird. We might also suppose that they previously reckon the number of the eggs, and that they anticipate the affection to their expected offspring. Hence the precautions used in constructing the nest, the solicitude which some species discover in suspending it from the end of a branch, and the attention in selecting the proper materials, such as slender grass, small roots, moss, thread, hair, wool, cotton, feathers, down, &c. They are able

to provide subsistence for their numerous family, which implies not only indefatigable activity, but much address, industry, and skill. If other birds attack their progeny, they will make an intrepid defence: will dart on the enemy; and courage renders their weakness formidable. It may be worth remarking, that the titmice bear some analogy to the ravens, the magpies, and the shrikes, in regard to the comparative force of their bill and their little talons, in their mustachoes round the bill, in their appetite for flesh, in their manner of tearing their food into morsels before they eat. The titmice also fight among themselves, and sometimes devour each other. If several titmice be successively put in the same cage, the one first domesticated will attack the new comers, and will endeavour to kill them, and suck their brains; a repast they are extremely fond of.

Gmelin enumerates thirty-two species; of which Dr. Turton has omitted one, but we do not know to what genus he has carried it. Vaillant has added four positive African species, and two doubtful ones.

1. *Parus bicolor*, the two-coloured titmouse: head crested, on the fore part black, body cinereous, beneath light rufous. In this species the head is furnished with a long pointed crest, or toupee; Pennant, therefore, calls it the toupet-titmouse. The bill is black, and on the forehead, just over it, is a black spot: legs lead-colour. The female differs from the male in having the belly and sides nearly white. This bird inhabits Carolina and Virginia, where it is found the whole year, and keeps chiefly in the woods; it is also met with in Denmark and the southern parts of Greenland, where it is called *avingarjak*. It flies swiftly; and during flight folds up the wing frequently, when it utters a weak note. Length six inches.

2. *Parus cristatus*, the crested titmouse: head crested; collar black; belly white. Length four inches and three quarters: bill blackish; forehead and sides of the head white. On the top of the head are long feathers, of a black colour, margined with white, which, when elevated, form a beautiful crest, pointed at the top; the chin and throat black, from which passes a line of black to the hind-head, bounding the white on the cheeks at the under part; on the ears an irregular spot of black; the upper parts of the body, wings, and tail, are rufous grey; the under parts white; the sides have a rufous tinge; legs lead-colour. This bird is found in many parts of France, especially in Normandy, and the districts between that and Sweden. It is in the deep forests that it is chiefly met with, especially among the evergreen trees, inasmuch that it is scented with their resinous odour. It is said to be fond of solitude; never mixing with other birds, nor in numbers even with its own species; and will not be tamed; whence its habits are little known. See the annexed Plate, fig. 1.

3. *Parus major*, the great titmouse, or ox-eye: head black, temples white, nape yellow. The head is curiously coloured; the beak is generally black, with strong hairs at its base; the head and throat are of the same colour, the belly of a yellowish-green; the back and coverts of the wings green, and the rump inclining to blue; the tail is black, but touched with blue at its exterior edges; insides dusky, legs lead-coloured. This species weighs little more than an ounce, though it is almost six inches in length. It is found in Europe, Asia, and Africa, and is very common in this country, frequenting gardens and orchards, where it does a deal of mischief, by picking off the tender buds of trees. The nest is made of moss, lined with hair, and placed in the hole of a wall, or of a tree. The female lays six or eight or ten eggs, which are white, spotted with a rusty kind of colour, and so exactly like those of a nut-hatch, as not to be distinguished from them. The common note of the great titmouse is a sort of chatter, but in the spring it assumes a greater variety, a shrill whistle, and a very singular noise, something like the whetting of a saw; but these



1. The Crested Titmouse. 2. the long-tailed, cock and hen. 3. the great-headed. 4. the four-coloured.

these cease with incubation. When kept in a cage it is really amusing to see with what quickness the titmouse darts at the fly or moth which comes imprudently within the circumference of his reach; if this kind of food be deficient, as it generally happens in winter, he then feeds upon several kinds of seed, and particularly that of the sun-flower, which he dexterously holds upright between his claws, and strikes powerfully with his sharp little bill, till the black covering splits, and yields its white contents to the hammering bird.

3. The cross-billed titmouse: olive-brown, beneath dirty-yellowish; head black, temples cinereous; the bill forked. This bird was killed once near Feverham in Kent; it had its bill crossed, as in the *Loxia curvirostra*.

4. *Parus ignotus*; the Norway titmouse: yellow-green; breast yellow, spotted with rufous; belly blue; vent yellowish. The tail is forked, and of the same colour as the back; the two middle feathers greenish; the two outer ones white on the outside; legs black; hind claw three times as long as the others. Found all over Norway.

5. *Parus cyaneus*, the azure titmouse: pale blue; under parts white, except an irregular oblong blue mark from the breast to the middle of the belly, and a blue stripe from the bill, through the eyes, to the hind-head, beneath which is a pale band; back and rump pale blue; upper tail-coverts deep blue; the ends white; wings varied with white, lead-colour, and blue; the first forming a band across the wing; quills brown; towards the tip white; tail blue; the outer edges of the feathers whitish. Legs and claws black; bill blackish; the tongue is bilobed, and each lobe is fringed with from three to five bristles. The total length of this bird is about five inches and a half: it is found throughout Russia and Siberia, and is frequently met with about the suburbs of St. Petersburg.

6. *Parus Americanus*, the creeping titmouse: bluish; temples, breast, and back, yellowish; sides purple. The upper mandible is brown, the lower yellow; head blue; a white spot over the eye, and another under it; upper part of the back yellowish-green; the rest of the upper parts, and tail, dusky blue; wing-coverts spotted with white, forming two bands of that colour on the wings; throat and breast yellow; on the lower part of the neck is a half-collar of black; belly white; sides marked with reddish spots; quills blackish, edged with bluish ash-colour; within white; tail blackish; the two middle feathers cinereous blue; the others edged with the same; legs yellowish. The female is merely black and brown. These birds are found chiefly in Carolina, where they remain all the winter, and creep up and down the bodies of trees in search of insects, on which they feed; they are also met with in Canada, and in other parts of America. Length, five inches.

7. *Parus caeruleus*, the blue titmouse: quill-feathers bluish, the primaries white on the outer edge; front white; crown blue. The bill is blackish; line from the bill to the eyes, and one surrounding the temples, black; the back is of a yellowish-green; wing-coverts blue; quill-feathers black, with dusky edge; tail blue, the middle feathers longer, body whitish-yellow beneath; legs and claws black. It is about four inches and a half long, and weighs less than half an ounce. This species would, probably, be much admired for its beauty, if it were less common. In winter it frequents houses, and will devour flesh very greedily; it is also a constant attendant where horse-flesh is kept for hounds, and in the farm-yard, being very fond of oats, which it plucks out, and, retiring to a neighbouring bush, fixes the grain between its claws, and hammers it with the bill, to break the husk. In summer it is very destructive to gardens and orchards, by biting off the buds of the blossoms, in search of insects; yet, as Albin observes, is useful in another manner, by destroying young caterpillars, and

the eggs of those insects which destroy the fruits. The female makes her nest in the holes of walls or trees, lining it well with feathers; lays a great number of small white eggs, at least fourteen or fifteen, some say twenty-two; but hatches only once a-year, unless the first nest is plundered. It forsakes its nest if the eggs are touched, or especially if one is broken; but, when the young are hatched, no bird defends them more courageously. She menaces every intruder in a singular manner, hissing like a snake, erecting all her feathers, and uttering a noise like the spitting of a cat, biting, at the same time, severely, if handled.

8. *Parus Sæbyensis*, the Sudermanian titmouse: size of the azure titmouse, and much resembling it: the general cast of the plumage is brilliant blue above, and white beneath, with a black spot under each of the eyes. This beautiful species inhabits the northern parts of Europe. It is found in Sudermania; also met with in great abundance in the northern woods of Siberia and Russia, and about Synbirk, in the government of Casan. It is migratory, appearing in winter about the houses in St. Petersburg. It twitters like a hedge-sparrow, but with a softer and sweeter note. This is omitted by Dr. Turton, in his translation of Gmelin's edition of Linnæus.

9. *Parus atricapillus*, the black-headed titmouse: cinereous, beneath white; cap and chin black. It inhabits Canada, in North America; is four inches and a half long; feeds on worms and insects, and is very patient of cold.

10. *Parus ater*, the colemouse: head black, back cinereous; hind head and breast white; the bill and chin are black; a broad black stripe beneath the eyes, from the bill to the neck; belly and vent reddish-white; wing-coverts grey, tipped with white; quill and tail-feathers brownish ash, edged with grey; leg and claws lead-coloured. It does not weigh much more than a quarter of an ounce; and is four inches in length. It has frequently been confounded with the next, but is not so common; it keeps more to the woods, seems to live entirely on insects, and has also a different note. It is found throughout Europe, and some say in America; but Vaillant affirms that not one of this genus inhabits the new world.

11. *Parus palustris*, the marsh-titmouse: head black, back cinereous, temples white. This is somewhat larger than the preceding, and differs but in very few particulars. The crown of the head is black, but no spot of white on the hind head; on the throat a small black spot, but not so large as in the last; upper parts of the body grey; wing-coverts plain; the under parts white; legs grey. It is common in England; and is found in Sweden, Italy, and most other parts of Europe: also in Siberia, Louisiana, and Japan. It lays up store of seeds against want, and is fond of low wet ground, in the holes of which it frequently nestles.

There are three varieties. α . Wings without the white bands. β . Body beneath and band on the hind-head white. γ . Crown black; nape yellowish.

12. *Parus Virginianus*, the Virginian titmouse: rump yellow; body cinereous. It inhabits Virginia and Carolina; and is five inches long. The bill is blackish, body above olive brown, beneath grey; legs and claws brown.

13. *Parus peregrinus*, the crimson-rumped titmouse: rump scarlet; body cinereous, beneath white. It is of the size of the *P. major*. The quill-feathers are brown; tail-feathers black, except the four middle ones, which are obliquely yellow on the hind part. This is a rare species, and its native country is unknown.

14. *Parus griseus*, the grey titmouse: general colour grey, crown of the head crimson. Native of Greenland.

15. *Parus Afer*, the black-breasted titmouse: plumage above dusky; sides of the head, and round the eye, white; on each side of the neck a stripe of the same; at the hind head.

head a spot of white; chin, throat, and breast, black; belly dirty white; quills brown; tail black; the outer web of the exterior feathers white; legs black. Total length, six inches. Said to be from the Cape; which Vaillant doubts, as he never met with it there.

16. *Parus caudatus*, the long-tailed titmouse: crown white; tail longer than the body. This is a very elegant and singular species. Its length is nearly five inches and a half; yet it does not weigh above a quarter of an ounce. The bill is very short, thick, and black; the irides hazel; top of the head white, mixed with grey; this is surrounded on the shoulders by a broad blackish circle, uniting at the back part, and inclining downwards; the sides of the head white, terminated with yellow; the under parts as far as the breast white, inclining to reddish; the sides of the back, the rump, the belly, and vent, are of a dull rose-colour, with some mixture of white; the smaller wing-coverts are black; the greater brown, edged with rose-colour; the quills dusky, with pale edges. The tail makes up above one half of the bird, being three inches and a half long; the feathers of unequal lengths; the four middle ones black; the third on each side the same, edged with grey; legs black.

No bird in England makes so curious and elegant a nest as this; it is generally of an oval shape, with a small hole in the side by way of entrance; the outer materials are moss, liver-wort, and wool, curiously interwoven, and completely lined within with the softest feathers; and "with so many of them," says Mr. Derham, "that I confess I could not but admire how so small a room could hold them; especially, that they could be laid so close and handfomely together, to afford sufficient room for a bird with so long a tail, and so numerous an issue as this bird commonly hath." Derham's *Physico-Theology*. The nest, thus constructed, is not suspended from a branch, as with some of this genus, but firmly applied on the fork of a bush, three or four feet from the ground. The female lays from ten to seventeen eggs, which are grey, with a mixture of reddish, but paler at the large end.

This bird appears to be common in most places, but particularly so in orchards and gardens; biting off the buds with great dexterity; is active and restless, flying backwards and forwards, and running up and down the branches in all directions with great facility. The brood keep together the whole winter, not separating till the spring invites them to pair and forward their race. They are recorded by authors as inhabitants of Sweden on the one hand, and of Italy on the other, and no doubt occupying the intermediate places. They are said to be very common in Siberia; and by their fulness of plumage, equalled only by the owl, one would imagine them able to bear the cold of the most rigorous climate. The pair figured in the annexed engraving, fig. 2, were brought from Sweden, and are remarkably full-feathered.

17. *Parus Capensis*, the Cape titmouse: head, neck, back, belly, and wing-coverts, pale cinereous grey; quills black, edged with white; tail black above, and white beneath; legs black. Bill black; irides red. This bird inhabits the Cape of Good Hope; and our books contain the history of its curious bottle-shaped nest; but Vaillant assures us that this kind of nest is never built by the titmouse, but by the pinc-pinc, a species of *Motacilla*, and that the titmouse sometimes seizes upon and inhabits it. To whomsoever the nest really belongs, we have given a faithful representation of it, and, according to Vaillant, of its real owner, on Plate VI. of the article *MOTACILLA*, vol. xvi. p. 103.

18. *Parus biarmicus*, the bearded titmouse: rufous; crown hoary; tail longer than the body; head bearded; vent black. It is about six inches and a quarter long. The bill is orange-colour; irides yellow; head pale ash; beneath the eye is a tuft of black feathers, ending in a point, not unlike a mustachoe or whisker; the hind part of the neck, and upper part of the back, are of an orange-bay or rufous colour; throat white; breast flesh-

coloured; belly, sides, and thighs, like the back, but paler; vent black; tail two inches and three quarters long, of a cuneiform shape; and nearly the same colour with the back; the outer feather is very short, dusky at the base, and nearly white at the end; the second nearly the same, but the end only white for a little way, the third only so just at the tip; legs black. The female differs from the male in wanting the whiskers under the eyes; the crown of the head is ferruginous, spotted with black; and the vent-feathers are not black, but of the same colour as the rest of the under parts.

This species is found in Schonen in Sweden; but is shy, and rarely seen. It is very common about the Caspian Sea, and Palus Mæotis, and among the rushes of the rivers which fall into them; but in no high latitudes in Asia; nor is it found in Siberia. These birds inhabit England also; but are observed only in marshy situations, where reeds grow, on the seeds of which it feeds, as well as on small insects. They are frequent in the marshes among the reeds between Erith and London; and are again met with in some marshy places near Gloucester, as well as among the tracts of reeds near Cowbit in Lancashire. In these places they are supposed to breed; the nest is composed of soft downy materials, suspended between three reeds very ingeniously drawn together. Kramer says, the nest is built among the willows, and is of the shape of a purse, made of soft downy materials, such as the down of the greater cat's-tail, or that of the asp, hanging the nest on a branch. This bird is said to be very common in Denmark; and Buffon supposes, that a pair of these, having escaped from the cage of the counts of Albemarle, founded their colony in England. This may have been the case in respect to those of Erith, being on the borders of the Thames, but does not so well account for their being elsewhere; and Latham thinks they are indigenous to us, and have been *so ab origine*; and that it is merely owing to their frequenting such places only where reeds grow, that they are so little known; for, as they seldom go farther than a few yards from the reed-beds, it is no way surprising that they were not earlier observed. The reed-beds frequently cover many acres of ground; these grow in the water, so as to be overflowed at every tide; and few persons ever go near them except in the time of cutting, which they do in boats; for, except at very low tides, one can scarcely set a foot-step within their boundaries.

Vaillant says this bird belongs to the fig-eaters, *Motacilla*: Edwards calls it the least butcher-bird. It was first described by Albin as a titmouse; but Gmelin has adopted the decision of Edwards, and calls it *Lanius Antiquanus*. See Edwards, Plate LV. and the article *LANIUS*, vol. xx. p. 55.

19. *Parus Sinensis*, the Chinese titmouse: rusty-brown; head and neck paler; quill-feathers and long tail brown, edged with black. It inhabits China; is not quite four inches long. The bill is black; the legs are red.

20. *Parus Malabaricus*, the Malabar titmouse: grey above; throat black; breast, belly, and vent, the colour nearly of red orpiment; wing-coverts black, with a pale red spot on some of the lower ones; the second quills are black; the next to them half-red, half-black; the greater quills black; the two middle tail-feathers are black; the others pale red half way from the base, the other end black; the under tail-coverts pale rufous; legs black; bill black, eyes red. The female has the colours less bright; all the under parts rufous yellow; but the spot on the wings and rump are the same as in the male. Inhabits the coast of Malabar; and is nearly six inches long. See *MUSCICAPA parus*, vol. xvi. p. 262, 3.

21. *Parus alpinus*, the Alpine titmouse: black, beneath pale rufous spotted with black; from the base of the bill to the neck there is a white line; hind-claw very long. It inhabits the alpine parts of Persia, and is about the size of the *P. caudatus*.

22. *Parus Sibiricus*, the Siberian titmouse: grey-brown, beneath

beneath whitish; belly rufous-grey; lower part of the neck black in the middle; sides pale rufous. It is found in Siberia, and is about five inches long.

β. *P. abdomine crisloque albis*. This differs in the length of the tail, as well as in the chin and throat; the black on which is not so broad, nor is the white which borders it so conspicuous; the belly also has no rufous tinge; vent white. This was brought home in one of our circumnavigating ships, but from what particular region is uncertain.

23. *Parus kniafcik*, the white titmouse: plumage on the upper parts white; beneath, ocular line, and collar, livid. Inhabits the oak-forests of Siberia.

24. *Parus Hudsonius*, the Hudson's-bay titmouse: reddish-brown; back cinereous; throat black; band under the eyes and breast white; sides rufous. It inhabits Hudson's Bay, and is about five inches and a half long; weight only half an ounce. Bill black; head ferruginous brown; beneath the eyes a white streak; back greenish ash-colour; breast and belly white; sides of the belly ferruginous; wings brown; quills edged with cinereous; tail rounded at the end, coloured as the quills; rump rufous white. All the feathers of this bird are long and loose, and of a black colour at the base, being only tipped with the colours above mentioned: legs black; middle and hind claws twice as long as the others. The male and female are alike. This bird braves the severest winters of Hudson's Bay: Forster informs us, that it breeds about our settlements there, and lays five eggs. It is frequent among the juniper-bushes, and is called by the natives *peche-ke-ke-shih*. It builds in the month of June; and makes a nest of grass, lined with soft feathers: the young fly the beginning of July. In the summer it subsists on flies and insects, and in the winter on berries and feeds.

25. *Parus macrocephalus*, the great-headed titmouse: black: breast orange; belly yellowish; head tumid; spot on the front and wings, and two outmost tail-feathers, white. It is about four inches and a half long. The bill is small, pale, and furnished with bristles at the base; the head very full with black feathers, appearing very disproportionate to the size of the bird; neck and back dusky black; on the forehead, just over the bill, a spot of white; on the wing a bar of white; under part buff yellow, with a mixture of black on the thighs; tail black, long, and rounded in shape; the two outer feathers white, with the ends black, divided obliquely; the next white within near the tip; legs dusky brown. See the Plate, fig. 3. The female is pale brown above; all beneath yellow; the bill and spot over it are as in the male; quills dusky. Found by Capt. Cook in Queen Charlotte's Bay, New Zealand; and called there *mirro mirro*.

β. It varies with the breast entirely of a bright scarlet.

26. *Parus Novæ Seelandiæ*, the New-Zealand titmouse: red-ash, beneath rufous-grey; eyebrows white; two middle tail-feathers black; the lateral ones in the middle with a square black spot. It is five inches long. The bill is brown, tipped with black; legs dusky-black. It was found at Dusky-bay, New Zealand; where it is called *toe-toe*.

27. *Parus pendulinus*, the penduline titmouse: head ferruginous; ocular band black; quill and tail-feathers brown, and edged on each side ferruginous. It is about four inches and a half long: it inhabits Europe and Siberia, frequenting watering places for the sake of aquatic insects, on which it feeds. These birds display great art in the construction of their nests; they employ the light down found on the buds of the willows, the poplar, on thistles, and the dandelion: with their bill they entwine this filamentous substance, and form a thick close web, almost like cloth: this they fortify externally with fibres and short roots, which penetrate into the texture, and, in some measure, compose the basis of the nest: they line the inside with the same down, but not woven, that their young may lie soft: they shut it above to confine the

warmth, and they suspend it with hemp, nettles, &c. from the cleft of a small pliant branch over some stream, that it may rock more gently, assisted by the spring of the branch. In this situation the brood are well supplied with insects, which constitute their chief food, and, at the same time, they are protected from their enemies. The nest sometimes resembles a bag, and sometimes a short purse. The aperture is made in the side, and is almost always turned towards the water. It is nearly round, and only an inch and a half in diameter; and is frequently surrounded by a brim. These nests are found in the fens of Bologna, Tuscany, Lithuania, Poland, and Germany. The peasants regard them with superstitious veneration, one of them being usually suspended near the door of each cottage, as a charm against lightning.

28. *Parus Narbonensis*, the Languedoc titmouse: rufous-grey; crown hoary; wings and tail blackish, edged with rufous; primary quill-feathers edged with white. It inhabits France, and in manners it may vie with the preceding, being not inferior in regard to the construction of the nest, which is large in respect to the size of the bird, being in shape like, and not much less than, the egg of an ostrich; the longest diameter is six inches, the shortest three and a half. It fixes this nest on a forked twig of the poplar, surrounding it with wool, employing the downy part of the poplar-flower, and such other materials as the last species makes use of. This is likewise open only on one side; but the entrance is still more curious, for it constructs a kind of portico over it, projecting almost three quarters of an inch, whereby there is an additional security against the accidents of wind, rain, and other inconveniences. It is called at Languedoc the *wild canary-bird*. Its length is about four inches.

29. *Parus cela*, the Guiana titmouse: black; bill white: spot on the wings and base of the tail yellow. It inhabits Guiana.

30. *Parus amatorius*, the amorous titmouse: blackish-blue; longitudinal spot on the middle of the wings half yellow, half rufous. Five inches and a half long. It inhabits Northern Asia, and is remarkable for the mutual affection of the two sexes. The bill is black at the base, and tipped with orange.

31. *Parus coccineus*, the scarlet titmouse: cinereous; breast, spot on the wings, rump, and lateral tail-feathers on the hind part, scarlet. The bill and legs black, vent yellowish.

32. *Parus Indicus*, the Indian titmouse: above cinereous, beneath ferruginous; chin and throat dirty white; limbs dirty brown. It inhabits India.

African Species from Vaillant.—Monsieur Le Vaillant is of opinion, that many birds have been included in this genus, which have no reference to it whatever. He says that the species described by Kolbe as inhabiting the Cape are not to be found there, and that he has omitted the three species which really are African tirmice. All the birds that Sonnerat describes as tirmice, Vaillant rejects entirely; and about three parts of those of other authors, and especially all those said to be found in America; for he positively asserts, that the titmouse is not at all an inhabitant of the new continent.

He denies what Brisson asserts, that the tongue of the titmouse is pointed like a hair-pencil, and that it climbs trees like the woodpeckers. The tongue of the titmouse is cut square, and terminates in four thin sharp fibres at equal distances; these are useful in getting out of the shell the seeds which the bird has already broken with its bill; these fibres are cartilaginous he says, and have no similarity to bristles, or the hairs of a pencil. He then proceeds to give the marks by which, he says, they are really distinguished; and describes the only three species he met with from the most southern point of Africa to the tropic.

The tirmice have a muscular body, very fleshy in proportion to their height; their feet are strong, and generally thick; the tarsus is short; the toes long and hooked,

proper for fastening themselves to any thing, and indeed they hold very tight with their strong claws. The bill is thick at the base; the upper mandible somewhat convex; the lower is as strong as the upper, and both are a little flattened at the sides, and end together in a rounded point. The bill, which is strong of itself, acquires additional force by its position, since it is so fixed as to answer exactly to the middle of the head, which is round, and of remarkable solidity by the thickness of the cranium. The forehead is much raised; the base of the bill is shaded by some stiff feathers directed forwards, and partly hiding the nostrils. The titmice do not crush the seeds they feed upon; they break them, and pick out the inside; they have even strength enough in their bill to pierce the shell of a nut or an almond, and draw all the kernel by bits through the hole. They also feed upon caterpillars, spiders, butterfly-eggs, and upon soft insects in general, which they find upon the leaves of trees, or pick from under the bark, which they can remove with their bill while they cling to the trunk; and this has made several naturalists suppose they had the faculty of climbing like the woodpeckers, though they really cannot change their position without spreading their wings, and taking a short flight, or at least a sidelong jump, but never without a motion of the wings; a mode very different from the climbing of woodpeckers.

They hide their young with great care, making their nest out of sight, in the hole of a tree or cleft of a rock, or in an old wall. They lay a great many eggs, and always retire into holes to sleep; they also accumulate a winter store of provisions. As for their habits, they are lively, alert, ever in motion; it is supposed they consume a deal of food, as they are always foraging. They are heard at the very dawning of day, and are the last of the diurnal birds that retire; so that the nocturnal birds of prey make great destruction among them; and to this they are the more exposed by their own desperate courage, for they will attack an owl without hesitation. If they kill their enemy, they directly break the skull with the bill, and feed upon the brains. They are naturally cruel, like the shrikes. Buffon has seen some tamed ones attack any weaker birds that were put into the cage, kill them, and suck their brains. In this propensity the African species, according to Vaillant, are exactly similar. He adds, that they are not shy, but may be easily caught in any snare; that they are easily tamed, and show a certain degree of attachment towards those who feed and attend them.

33. *Parus niger*, the black titmouse: size of the *P. major*. It is entirely black, except a few white streaks upon the wings and tail; the head and back are however of a more decided black than the front and under parts of the body. The tail-quills are black for the most part; but the lateral ones have a broad white edging along their outer barbs, and their tips are white; the interior ones have less and less white as they come nearer the two middle feathers, which are entirely black; the two outer quills are a little shorter, the rest equal in length. The wing reaches about one third the length of the tail; its larger quills are a brownish black, slightly edged with white; the mid-quills have a broader edging, and the last broader still, for upon them the border forms a long white stripe; the great coverts are black edged with white; the mid-coverts entirely white; the smaller ones entirely black; so that the wings are agreeably variegated with black and white. The bill is black; eyes dark brown; nails brown, feet and legs lead-colour. The female is rather smaller than the male, and not of such a jetty black, especially on the breast, where there is an appearance of grey, which becomes lighter as you approach the under-coverts of the tail, which are tipped with white. In the young birds, the borderings have a rufous tint, the black of the upper surface is rather inclined to brown, and of the under parts to grey. These birds retire every evening to the holes of trees, where their nest is placed,

which is made of twigs lined very nicely with wool; the eggs are six to eight in number, and entirely white. The song is precisely the same as that of the *P. major*; which last, however, is never found in Africa. The black titmouse is plentiful near the Sondag and Swart-kop rivers, and in Caffraria; but not on the west coast, or near the Cape.

34. *Parus variegatus*, the variegated titmouse: in shape and general characters this resembles the preceding, but is somewhat smaller. Found only in the mimosa-thickets of Camdeboo, where it is called *Malabartje*, or "little Malabar," on account of its black head. Though smaller than the preceding, the bill is rather longer. At first sight it might be mistaken for a female or young male of the last species. The top of the head is black; and also the back of the neck, where the black is bounded by a large white spot, forming a half-collar; a broad white stripe goes from each corner of the mouth, and covers the cheeks, runs upwards underneath the eyes, (which are brown,) and downwards till it meets the white on the bottom of the neck, and thus encloses the jet-black covering of the throat; the black covers the entire throat, and falls down like the corner of a handkerchief on the breast, whence the white runs along the middle of the body as far as the belly. The back, scapulars, and mantle, are blue-grey or slate-colour; so are the flanks, but somewhat lighter than the back. The wing-quills are brown black, lifted with white; this lift is broader as the feathers are higher up on the back; the great and middle coverts are also brown, with broad white edgings; but the small feathers of the pinions are of the same blue-grey as the back. The upper tail-coverts are black; the under ones light grey, edged with white. The tail is, in general, black, but the outer quill on each side is edged and tipped with white; the second pair have a narrower edging, the rest are only white at their tips. The bill is brownish black; legs and feet bluish, nails almost black. The female is rather smaller. The white edgings are not so visible, being of a less pure white; the head and throat are of a brown black; and all the grey parts have a slight tint of rufous. In the young bird, the throat is still more brown, and the grey parts fawn-colour. Its nesting is not known.

β. There is a variety of this species, with white wings and tail, and the throat spotted with white. It was in company with eight others of the same species, and was the only one so marked. It was a male, bearing its first plumage; it never had moulted.

35. *Parus fuscus*, the brown titmouse: this is the smallest African species, and the only one Vaillant met with about the Cape, and in the colony. It inhabits the rocks and mountains, and is about the size of the *P. ceruleus*, or blue titmouse: it has the same shrieking note, at the same time that it utters the *gra-gra gra-gra* of the other two African species we have mentioned, which last seems to be common to all the titmice when they see any thing that surprises them, a mischievous animal or a bird of prey. When we say all the titmice, we must be understood to mean only those which Vaillant allows to be such.

The brown titmouse of Africa prefers rocky and mountainous places, concealing its nest very carefully in a hole: the nest is very large, consisting of moss, much wool, and some feathers; the eggs are from eight to fourteen in number. Similar to the titmice of Europe, the smallest species lays the greatest number of eggs.

The head, neck, throat, and breast, are black: the large black patch on the breast goes tapering as far as the belly; a white stripe goes from the corners of the mouth, widens a little on the cheek, runs down the sides of the neck, separating the black of the throat from that of the hind-head, at the bottom of which there is also a little white spot. The feathers at the base of the bill, and those which cover the nostrils, are white. The back and scapulars are brown; so are the large wing-feathers, but blacker

black on their inner barbs; the mid-quills are edged with white, as well as the large and middle coverts, which are the blackest parts of the wing. The tail, except the white fringe which borders all the feathers of it at the tip, and a white line along the outermost feather on each side, (which also are somewhat shorter than the rest,) is dark brown, as are the upper coverts of the same. The flanks, lower belly, and under tail-coverts, are of a beautiful rufous grey. The bill is black; eyes and nails brown; the feet are lead-colour. The wings, when at rest, reach about half-way the tail. The female is somewhat smaller than the male, but so like that it is impossible to distinguish them.

36. *Parus albagena*, the white-cheeked titmouse: this was given to Vaillant by M. Temminck of Amsterdam, who received it from Batavia. It is about the size of the preceding, and shaped like the blue titmouse. The top of the head is black, as is the back of the neck, below which appears a small patch of white; from the corner of the mouth proceeds a white patch which covers the cheek, but reaches no farther than the ear, which it spreads over. The throat, front of the neck, and breast, are black; which black, instead of widening as in the preceding species, grows narrower from the lower part of the neck before, where it joins on the sides the black of the hind-head, and terminates at the belly. The scapulars, mantle, back, and upper tail-coverts, are of a bluish-grey; the same colour runs along the edges of the wing-quills, which are black; the larger wing-coverts are edged and broadly tipped with white. The three lateral tail-feathers on each side are white, and graduated or tapered, i.e. the outer is the shortest, and the two others successively longer; the rest of the feathers are entirely black. The sides, belly, and under tail-coverts, are whitish. The bill is brown grey; the claws black, the feet lead-colour. The wings when at rest extend about one-third the length of the tail. Its habits are not known.

37. *Parus dubius*, the black-cap: this and the following were received by Vaillant from Ceylon. They resemble in some respects the titmice; but he says do not properly belong to that genus. The bill is nearly of the same shape, but longer in proportion. The tongue is entire, cartilaginous, and pointed; different therefore from that of the titmouse, which is truncated, and ends in four points. The legs are not so large, the claws weaker, the nails not so hooked; which denote different habits. The bones of the head are not so strong, the head not so round, the forehead flatter. In other respects the shape of the body, wings, and tail, and the size also, agree nearly with the *P. major*, or great titmouse: but the wings are not so long, for on the black-cap they hardly exceed the setting-on of the tail. The head is entirely black; the rest of the upper surface, including the wings and tail, is olive-green, inclining to yellow on the rump; the lateral tail-quills are spotted with white at their extremities. The throat, front of the neck, and the whole of the under parts, are yellow; the bill is blackish, legs and feet brown.

As these were dried specimens which Vaillant received, he can speak no further but upon conjecture. The eyes he imagines were brown; the food, insects only. He describes and figures another individual, which he supposes to have been the female of this species, or at least a variety. It was somewhat smaller, and the colours lighter; the head tan-colour; the upper surface of the body, wings, and tail, dun-colour, with various shades of yellow; the tail tipped with white; the under parts of the body delicate pale yellow; bill, legs, and feet, brownish.

38. *Parus quadricolor*, the four-coloured titmouse: this differs still more from the titmice; the bill being longer and thinner than in the last; in this respect it makes a nearer approach to the *Motacilla*, or warbler; yet it has not the weak slender body and long legs of these; the legs are short, and toes thick, like the titmice.

Its habits are not known, Vaillant having received it from Columbo, the chief town of Ceylon; but he presumes that it feeds on insects like the preceding. In size it is somewhat smaller than the great titmouse. The top of the head and hind part of the neck are entirely covered with a black capuchin, which covers the eyes also; the back and scapulars are grass-green. The wing-quills are black, edged with yellow; the great and middle coverts fringed with white at the extremities. The tail is also black, and outwardly edged with yellow; the feathers of an equal length. The throat, front of the neck, breast, sides, and under tail-coverts, are of a beautiful jonquil-yellow, melting into green towards the legs and lower-belly. The bill is almost entirely black, only the sharp edges of the mandibles are yellowish; the nails are black, the feet brown. Though a doubtful species, we have added it to our Plate, on account of its beauty: see fig. 4.

The female is somewhat smaller. The top of the head, back of the neck, mantle, scapulars, rump, and tail, are olive-green; and all the front of the body, from the throat to the under tail-coverts, is of a fainter yellow than in the male. The yellow edging of the wing-quills is broader; but the white on the tips is not so pure, being shaded with olive. This (female) Vaillant ascribes to the bird described by Brisson under the name of *figuier du Bengale*, our *Motacilla tiphia*, or green Indian wag-tail, vol. xvi. p. 85. The species might occur at Ceylon as well as at Bengal. Klein has described the same, No 17. p. 75. and Edwards, vol. ii. Plate 79. See Vaillant's Hist. Nat. des Oiseaux d'Afrique, tome iii. p. 153-197.

PARU'SHA, a name applied by the Hindoos to several of their deities. The word seems to mean "the primeval person, or man;" and in some fables it is related that he was produced by the Creator at the formation of the world, with Prakriti, a personification of Nature. The allegorical union of these two powers, male and female, has furnished endless fancies for Hindoo metaphysicians, who, among such fancies, describe an allegorical immolation of this primeval being; sometimes making Parusha the victim; sometimes Brahma, or Narayana. In the Veda called *Yajur*, or *Yajush*, the necessary ceremonies for the sacrifices called *Ashwamedha* and *Purushamedha*, are laid down; but they are not, as the words imply, really sacrifices of horses and men. In the first mentioned, 609 animals of various kinds, domestic and wild, including birds, fish, and reptiles, are made fast; the tame ones to twenty-one posts, and the wild ones in the intervals between them; and, after certain prayers, the victims are let loose without injury. In the other, a hundred and eighty-five men of various specified tribes, characters, and professions, are bound to eleven posts; and, after a certain hymn concerning the allegorical immolation of Narayana has been recited, these human victims are liberated unhurt; and oblations of butter are made on the sacrificial fire. This mode of performing the *Ashwamedha* and *Purushamedha* as emblematical ceremonies, not as real sacrifices, is taught in this Veda; and the interpretation is fully confirmed by several rituals, and by commentators, one of whom assigns as a reason, "because the flesh of victims, which have been actually sacrificed, must be eaten by the persons who offer the sacrifice: but a man cannot be allowed, much less required, to eat human flesh." This passage is cited by Mr. Colebrooke from memory: he adds, "It may be hence inferred, or conjectured at least, that human sacrifices were not authorized by the Veda itself; but were either then abrogated and an emblematical ceremony substituted in its place, or they must have been introduced in later times on the authority of certain Puranas and Tantras, fabricated by persons, who in this, as in other matters, established many unjustifiable practices on the foundation of emblems and allegories which they misunderstood." *As. Res.* vol. viii. p. 437.

PARUTA (Paolo), a noble Venetian, known as a writer

writer in history and politics, was born in 1540. He succeeded Contarini as historiographer of the republic in 1579, and afterwards filled various offices in the state. He was employed in several embassies, was made governor of Brescia, and finally was elected a procurator of St. Mark. With a high character for wisdom, integrity, and zeal for the public good, he died in 1598, at the age of fifty-eight. The works of this writer are, 1. A Funeral Oration to the Praise of those who fell in the Battle of Curzolari in 1571. 2. Della Perfezione della Vita Politica, 1582, 4to. 3. Discorsi Politici, published by his sons in 1599, 4to. 4. A History of Venice from 1513 to 1551, with the Addition of the War of Cyprus in 1570-72, 4to. 1605. This work is written in Italian; and is accounted, for the exactness and skill of the narrative, and the judiciousness of the remarks, one of the best works of that class in the language. He had begun to write it in Latin, in imitation of the style of Sallust, and is said to have finished four books in that tongue. A new edition of it was given by Apostolo Zeno in 1703.

PARUTA (Filippo), a learned antiquarian, was a noble of Palermo, and secretary to the senate of that city, where he died in 1629. He wrote several works; but is principally known by his "Sicilia descritta con Medaglie," published in 1612 at Palermo. This work, afterwards augmented by Leonardo Agostini, was printed at Rome in 1649, and at Lyons in 1697. Havercamp published a Latin edition of it in three volumes, folio, 1723, which makes part of the Italian Antiquities of Grævius and Burmann. *Gen. Biog.*

PAR'WAN, a town of Candahar: sixty miles north-west of Cabul.

PARWI'DA, a town of Sweden, in Tavastland: forty-five miles north-north-east of Jamio.

PAR'WIS, a town of the county of Tyrol: eighteen miles west-north-west of Innspruck.

PAR'XU, *f.* in botany. See CESTRUM.

PAR'YRS, a mountain of North-Wales, in the island of Anglesea, about nine miles in length, and half as much in breadth; apparently wild, waste, and barren in the extreme, but abounding in the richest mines of copper and lead ore, in the latter of which is found a mixture of silver; the bed of copper-ore is supposed to be the largest known in the world. It is two miles south-east of Amlwch.

PARYSA'TIS, a Persian princess, wife of Darius Ochus, by whom she had Artaxerxes Memnon, and Cyrus the younger. She was so extremely partial to her younger son, that she committed the greatest cruelties to encourage his ambition, and she supported him with all her interest in his rebellion against his brother Memnon. The death of Cyrus, at the battle of Cunaxa, was revenged with the grossest barbarity; and Parysatis sacrificed to her resentment all such as she found concerned in his fall. She also poisoned Statira the wife of her son Artaxerxes; and ordered one of the eunuchs of the court to be dead alive, and his skin to be stretched on two poles before her eyes, because he had, by order of the king, cut off the hand and the head of Cyrus. These cruelties offended Artaxerxes, and he ordered his mother to be confined in Babylon; but they were soon after reconciled, and Parysatis regained all her power and influence till the time of her death. *Plut. in Art.*

PARZANE'GA, a town of Italy, in the department of the Serio: fifteen miles east-north-east of Bergamo.

PAS, *f.* [French.] Precedence; right of going foremost.—In her poor circumstances, she still preserved the mien of a gentlewoman; when she came into any full assembly, she would not yield the *pas* to the best of them. *Arbutnot.*

PAS, a town of Prussia, in Bartenland, ten miles north-east of Raftenburgh.

PAS, a town of France, in the department of the Straits of Calais: thirteen miles south-west of Arras, and six east of Dourlens.

PAS. See PASZBERG.

PAS (Manasses de), Marquis de Feuquieres, was the posthumous son of Francis de Pas, who was slain at the battle of Ivry. He was born at Saumur in 1590, and distinguished himself as an able general and negotiator. At the siege of Rochelle he was taken prisoner, was continued in confinement nine months, and was ransomed in exchange for general Ekenfort, two colonels, and 18,000 crowns. The reduction of the city of Rochelle has been attributed chiefly to him. He was afterwards ambassador to the court of Sweden and Germany, where he displayed great talents. In 1635 he commanded the army in conjunction with the duke of Saxe-Weimar. He died in 1640. His Negotiations in Germany were printed in 1753, in 3 vols. 12mo.

PAS (Anthony de), Marquis de Feuquieres, grandson of the above, was one of the greatest generals of his time. He signalized himself at the battle of Stafarde, at the taking of Suza, and other strong places in Italy; but he was so severe a disciplinarian, that it was a common saying, that De Pas must be the bravest man in the world, since he slept every night in the midst of a hundred thousand enemies. He was governor of Verdun; and in 1689 he was made, on account of his great talents, a field-marshal. He died in January 1711, aged 63. His Memoirs were printed in 4 vols. 12mo. *Moreri.*

PAS DE CALAIS'S. See STRAITS OF CALAIS.

PAS-EP-A', the chief of the Lamas, particularly eminent for having invented characters for the Moguls. He was much esteemed by the Chinese, though the literati exclaimed against the manner in which the people demonstrated their affection. There is still at Pekin a *myau*, or temple, built in honour of Pas-ep-a in the time of the Mogul emperors. He died in 1279. *Encyc. Brit.*

PA'SA, or FE'SA, a town of Persia, in the province of Farfistan: sixty-eight miles south-east of Schiras, and 235 south-south-east of Ispahan. Lat. 29. 10. N. Lon. 53. 40. E.

PASAGIN'ANS, or CIRCUMCISED, in ecclesiastical history, a singular sect, which sprung up in Lombardy towards the close of the 12th century. This sect, like several others that subsisted about the same time, had the utmost aversion to the dominion and discipline of the church of Rome; but it was distinguished, at the same time, by two religious tenets that were peculiar to itself. The first was a notion, that the observance of the law of Moses, in every thing except the offering of sacrifices, was obligatory upon Christians; in consequence of which its followers were circumcised, abstained from those meats the use of which was prohibited under the Mosaic economy, and celebrated the Jewish sabbath. The second point that distinguished this sect was advanced in opposition to the doctrine of three persons in the divine nature; for the Pasaginians maintained that Christ was no more than the "first and purest creature of God." Nor will their adoption of this opinion seem very surprising, if we consider the prodigious number of Arians that were scattered throughout Italy long before that period.

PASA'KA, BUXADEVAR, or BUXADUAR, a town of Asia, in the country of Bootan: sixty miles south-south-east of Tassafudon. Lat. 26. 48. N. Lon. 89. 30. E.

PASAKAM'ENITZ, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Chrudim: eight miles west-north-west of Politzka.

PASAL', a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Fonia. Lat. 12. 40. N. lon. 15. 36. W.

PASAN'GA, a small island in the Eastern Indian Sea, near the west coast of Sumatra. Lat. 5. 10. S.

PASAR', a town of Hindooostan, in the Carnatic: twenty-one miles west of Tiagar.

PASAR'GADA, in ancient geography, a town of Asia, in Persia. The name signifies the Camp of the Persians; and the town was founded by Cyrus on the very spot where he had conquered Astyages. The kings of Persia were always crowned there; and the Pasargadae were



PASCAL.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1721

were the noblest families of Persia, in the number of which were the Achæmenides. *Herodot. c. 123.*

PASAR'NA, a town of Asia, in Armenia Minor, at some distance from the Euphrates, in the Lavinian prefecture.

PASCAGOO'LA, a river of West Florida, which runs into the gulf of Mexico, forming a bay at its mouth, in lat. 30. 23. N. lon. 88. 30. W.

PASCAL (Blaise), a very distinguished French mathematician and philosopher, was born at Clermont in Auvergne, in the year 1623. His father, who was president of the court of aids in his province, was also a man of considerable learning, and an able mathematician. As Blaise was his only son, so great was his affection for him, that in the year 1631 he relinquished his official situation and settled at Paris, in order that he might himself undertake the employment of being his tutor. From his infancy young Pascal gave evidence of a very extraordinary capacity. What we are told concerning his manner of learning the mathematics, and his rapid progress in that science, is very astonishing. His father, perceiving in him an extraordinary inclination to reasoning, was afraid lest the knowledge of the mathematics should prevent him from learning the languages. He therefore resolved to keep from him, as much as he could, all notions of geometry, locked up all the books that treated of it, and refrained even from speaking of it in his presence. Yet he could not refuse to give this general answer to the importunate curiosity of his son: "Geometry is a science which teaches the way of making exact figures, and of finding out the proportions between them;" but at the same time he forbade him to speak or think of it any more. The slight idea which had been thus conveyed to him of the science occupied young Blaise's thoughts, who was now only twelve years of age, and led him in his hours of recreation to make figures on the chamber-floor with charcoal, the proportions of which he sought out, laying down definitions and axioms, and then going on to demonstrations. So far had he proceeded with his enquiries, that he had come to what was just the same with the thirty-second proposition of the First Book of Euclid, when he was one day surprised by his father in the midst of his figures, who asked him what he was doing. He replied, that he was searching for such a thing, which was just that proposition of Euclid. When asked afterwards how he came to think of this, he answered that it was because he had found out such another thing; and so, going backwards, and using the names of *bar* and *round*, he at length came to the definitions and axioms which he had formed to himself. From this time young Pascal had full liberty to indulge his genius in mathematical pursuits, and was furnished by his father with Euclid's Elements; of which he made himself master in an incredibly short time, without any assistance. So wonderful was his proficiency in the sciences, that at the age of sixteen he wrote a Treatise on Conic Sections, which, in the judgment of the most learned men of the time, was considered to be a great effort of genius. Des Cartes, who had been in Holland for a long time, having read it, added his opinion to the universal verdict in its praise; but, when informed of the age of the author, he rather chose to believe that it was the production of M. Pascal the father, than to admit that so young a person was capable of writing a book with such strength of reasoning. At the age of nineteen, our young mathematician had contrived his admirable Arithmetical Machine, furnishing an easy and expeditious method of making all sorts of arithmetical calculations without any other assistance than the eye and hand. This was esteemed a very wonderful thing, and would have done credit to any man versed in science, and much more to such a youth. About this time the state of his health becoming impaired, owing most probably to the intemperance of his studious application, he was obliged to suspend his labours for the space

of four years. At the age of twenty-three, having seen Torricelli's experiment respecting a vacuum and the weight of the air, he directed his attention to those subjects, and made several new experiments. He likewise made many experiments with syphons, syringes, bellows, and all kinds of tubes, using different fluids, such as quicksilver, water, wine, oil, &c. and, having published an account of them in 1647, dispersed his work through all countries. These experiments, however, only ascertained effects, without demonstrating the causes. Pascal knew that Torricelli conjectured that those phenomena which he had observed were occasioned by the weight of the air, though they had formerly been attributed to nature's abhorrence of a vacuum; but, were Torricelli's theory true, he concluded that the liquor in the tube of the barometer ought to stand higher at the bottom of a hill than at the top of it. In order to ascertain the fact, he made an experiment at the top and bottom of a mountain in Auvergne, called le Puy de Dome, the result of which gave him reason to conclude that the air was indeed heavy. Of this experiment he published an account, of which he sent copies to most of the learned men in Europe. He also repeated it at the top and bottom of several high towers, as those of Notre Dame at Paris, St. Jacques de la Boucherie, &c. and always remarked the same difference in the weight of the air at different elevations.

M. Pascal, being now fully convinced of the general pressure of the atmosphere, drew many important and useful inferences from this discovery. He also composed a large treatise, in which he fully explained the subject, and answered the objections which were preferred against that theory; but afterwards, considering it to be too prolix, he divided it into two small treatises, one of which he entitled a Dissertation on the Equilibrium of Fluids; and the other, an Essay on the Weight of the Atmosphere. These treatises were not published till after the author's death.

The reputation which M. Pascal had acquired by his scientific labours, occasioned his being frequently consulted by some of the greatest mathematicians and philosophers of the age, who applied for his assistance in the resolution of various difficult questions and problems. Among other subjects on which his ingenuity was employed, was the solution of a problem proposed by father Mersenne, which had baffled the penetration of all who attempted it. This problem was, to determine the curve described in the air by the nail of a coach-wheel, while the machine is in motion: which curve was then called a *roullette*, but is now commonly known by the name of cycloid. As a spur to genius, M. Pascal offered a reward of forty pistoles to any one who should give a satisfactory answer to it. No person having succeeded, he published his own solution at Paris; but, as he now began to grow disgusted with the sciences, he would not send it into the world under his own name, but prefixed to it that of A. d'Ettonville. This exertion of his genius was a triumph over all the old mathematicians of Europe; and it was made in circumstances which cannot but excite astonishment. For his sister informs us, that he made the discovery, as it were, in spite of himself, and to his own great surprise, while passing sleepless nights in his bed, tormented by severe paroxysms of the tooth-ache. Before this time he had drawn up a table of numbers, which, from the form in which the figures in it are disposed, he called his "Arithmetical Triangle." Of this table he has been spoken of as the inventor; but Dr. Hutton has shown, in the first volume of his Mathematical Tracts, that such a table of numbers, and many properties of them, had been treated of more than a century before by Cardan, Stifelius, and other arithmetical writers.

When M. Pascal was in the twenty-fourth year of his age, and the highest expectations were entertained of the advantages to science from his future labours, he all at once renounced the study of the mathematics and natu-

ral philosophy, as well as all human learning, and devoted himself wholly to a life of mortification and prayer. This change was occasioned by his reading the books of some of those ascetic religionists who unnaturally make the height of virtue to consist in an abstinence from the enjoyment of those blessings which a kind Providence affords, and strangely consider the miseries which his creatures inflict upon themselves, to be the most acceptable sacrifice which they can offer to a benevolent Deity. From this time he renounced all pleasure and all superfluity; and to this system he adhered in the illnesses to which he was frequently subject, being of a very infirm habit of body. He not only denied himself the most common gratifications, but he also took without reluctance, and even with pleasure, either as nourishment or as medicine, whatever was disagreeable to the senses; and he every day retrenched some part of his dress, food, or other things, which he considered as not absolutely necessary. Though his continual infirmities obliged him to use very delicate food, and though his servants employed the utmost care to provide what was proper, he never relished what he ate, and seemed indifferent whether they brought him what was good or bad. He entertained no strong affection for those whom he loved; and advised others not to suffer any person to love them in a very high degree; since, by entertaining and cherishing such an ardent affection, a man possesses a heart which belongs only to God. He occasionally wore an iron girdle full of points next to his skin; and, when any vain thought came into his mind, or he took pleasure in any circumstance, he gave himself some blows with his elbow, to increase the violence of the smart, and by that means put himself in mind of his duty. During the latter years of his life, his principal relaxation from the rigorous system which he prescribed to himself, consisted in visits which he paid to the churches where some relics were exposed, or some solemnity observed; and for that purpose he had a spiritual almanac, which informed him of the places where particular services were performed.

But, notwithstanding that M. Pascal thus abstracted himself from the world, he was not entirely indifferent to what was passing in it; and he even interested himself in the contest between the Jesuits and the Jansenists. Taking the side of the latter, he wrote his celebrated "Provincial Letters," published in 1656, under the name of Louis de Montalte, in which he ably employed his talents of wit and humour in ridiculing the former. Voltaire says, "these letters may be considered as a model of eloquence and humour. The best comedies of Moliere have not more wit than the first part of them; and the sublimity of the latter part is equal to any thing in Bossuet." He also pronounces Pascal the first of the French satirists; and maintains that Despreaux must be considered as only the second. In another place, speaking of this work of Pascal, he says, that "examples of all the various species of eloquence are to be found in it. Though it has now been written almost an hundred years, yet not a single word occurs in it favouring of that vicissitude to which living languages are so subject. Here then we are to fix the epoch when our language may be said to have assumed a settled form." These letters have been translated into almost all the European languages. Of all the books which were published against the Jesuits, none did them more harm, nor vexed them more, than these productions of M. Pascal's pen. Numerous were the answers to them which they caused to be distributed; but, notwithstanding the efforts of the apologists for the society, and the decrees of condemnation against the work which they procured to be passed by the parliament of Aix, and the council of state, the Provincial Letters maintained their ground, interesting the more serious readers by their solidity, and by their pleasant and comical turns of wit engaging all the party of laughers on their side.

M. Pascal was only about thirty years of age when the

Provincial Letters were published; yet he was exceedingly infirm; and, as his disorders increased so much afterwards, that he considered himself to be hastening to the close of life, he gave up all further thoughts of literary composition. With the view also of spending the remainder of his days in retirement and pious meditation, he broke off all his former connexions, changed the place of his abode, and spoke to no one, not even to his own servants, whom he hardly ever admitted into his room. He made his own bed, fetched his dinner from the kitchen, and carried back the plates and dishes in the evening; so that he employed his servants only to cook for him, to go on a few unavoidable errands, and to do such things for him as he was incapable of performing himself. Nothing was to be seen in his chamber but two or three chairs, a table, a bed, and a few books. It had no kind of ornament whatever; he had neither a carpet on the floor, nor curtains to his bed. These circumstances, however, did not prevent him from occasionally receiving visits; and, when his friends appeared surprised to see him thus without furniture, he replied, that he had what was necessary, and that any thing more would be superfluous, unworthy of a wise man. M. Pascal had now given up all intense study, and lived in the most temperate manner; yet his health continued rapidly to decline, and his disorders so enfeebled his organs, that his reason became in some measure affected. In these circumstances he met with an accident which produced an unfavourable impression upon his imagination, not to be effaced, excepting during short intervals, by the soothing persuasions of his friends and of his confessor. In the year 1654, the state of weakness to which he was reduced having alarmed his physicians, they prescribed to him taking the air and gentle exercise. As he was one day crossing the Seine at the bridge of Neuilly, in a coach and four, the two leading horses became unmanageable at a part where the parapet was down, and plunged over the side into the river. Happily, their weight broke the traces, by which means the other horses and the carriage were extricated on the brink of the precipice. The effect on the feeble and languishing frame of M. Pascal may easily be conceived. It was with great difficulty that he was recovered at all from a long swoon; and he was never reinstated in the calm possession of his mental faculties. He always imagined that he saw a deep abyss on the left side of him, and he would never sit down till a chair was placed there, to secure him from danger. He also persuaded himself that he had a kind of vision; the particulars of which he preserved in a memorandum on a piece of paper, which he always carried about him between the cloth and lining of his coat. After languishing for some years in this imbecile state of body and mind, M. Pascal died at Paris Aug. 19, 1662, when about thirty-nine years of age.

To M. Pascal's extraordinary and diversified talents, the particulars which we have related, and the works which he left behind him, bear sufficient testimony. They do so likewise to the ardour of his piety, and exemplariness of his morals. That his ideas of perfection in the religious and moral character were not unmixed with superstition, and enforced a servile rigour and austerity of conduct, is to be attributed to the influence of that creed which had been taught him in his infancy. His heart was the seat of the purest benevolence; and his exertions in alleviating the miseries and contributing to the happiness of the unfortunate and indigent, were limited only by the extent of his fortune. Though his abilities entitled him to assume an air of superiority, he never displayed that haughty and imperious tone which is too commonly observable in men of shining talents, but was distinguished by uncommon modesty and humility. And he was also distinguished by the admirable patience with which, during his long illness, he edified and surprised all persons who were about him. In company, he was remarkable for the amiableness of his behaviour, and for his easy, agreeable, and instructive conversation. He possessed

possessed a natural kind of eloquence, which was in a manner irresistible. He intended to have written a work against atheists and unbelievers in Christianity; and collected materials for that purpose, which he did not live long enough to digest. These consisted of reflections upon devout, moral, and other subjects connected with the evidences of the Christian religion, which were written down by him at different times, on the first piece of paper which he could find; and he commonly set down only a few words of each sentence, as he penned them merely for his own use. After his death, these pieces of paper were found filed upon different pieces of string, without any order or connexion; and, being exactly copied as they were written, they were afterwards arranged and published in thirty-two chapters, under the title of "*Pensées de M. Pascal sur la Religion et sur quelques autres Sujets*," 12mo. They have been translated into the English and various other languages; and have been deservedly admired as the precious remains of a great man, which exhibit striking traits of his sublimity of genius, beautiful turn of sentiment, as well as force and elegance of expression. At the same time we must acknowledge, that some opinions occur in them, relative to the condition of human nature, and the proceedings of the divine government, which appear to us to be utterly irreconcilable with just and rational views of religion, and to reflect dishonour on the wisdom and benevolence of the Deity. On some of these Voltaire has made able animadversions in his *Lettres Philosophiques*.

The works of M. Pascal were collected together, and published in five volumes, 8vo. in 1779, at the Hague, and at Paris; consisting of the articles mentioned in the preceding narrative, and some pieces which had till then remained only in manuscript. This collection was given to the public by the abbé Bossu, whose eulogium on the author we present to our readers: "This extraordinary man," says he, "inherited from nature all the powers of genius. He was a geometrician of the first rank, a profound reasoner, and a sublime and elegant writer. If we reflect that, in a very short life, oppressed by continual infirmities, he invented a curious arithmetical machine, the elements of the calculation of chances, and the method of resolving various problems respecting the cycloid; that he fixed in an irrevocable manner the wavering opinions of the learned concerning the weight of the air; that he wrote one of the most perfect works existing in the French language; and that in his *Pensées* there are passages, the depth and beauty of which are incomparable; we can hardly believe that a greater genius ever existed in any age or nation." The celebrated Bayle pronounces M. Pascal to have been "one of the sublimest geniuses whom the world ever produced—a prodigy; and," says he, "if I might be so bold as to use the expression, I would call him, a paradoxical individuum of the human species; that is, we are almost inclined to doubt that he was born of a woman, like the man mentioned by Lucretius: *Ut vix humana videatur stirpe creatus*."

We shall conclude with extracting what Mr. Dugald Stewart has said of this distinguished writer in his "*General View of Philosophy*," prefixed to the Supplement to the *Encyclopædia Britannica*.

The name of Pascal (that "prodigy of parts," as Locke calls him) is more familiar to modern ears than that of any of the other learned and polished anchorites, who have rendered the sanctuary of Port-Royal so illustrious; but his writings furnish few materials for philosophical history. Abstracting from his great merits in mathematics and in physics, his reputation rests chiefly on the *Provincial Letters*; a work from which Voltaire, notwithstanding his strong prejudices against the author, dates the *fixation* of the French language. The enthusiastic admiration of Gibbon for this book, which he was accustomed from his youth to read once a-year, is well known; and is sufficient to account for the rapture with which it never fails to be spoken of by "the erudite vul-

gar" (*eruditum vulgus*, Pliny, lib. ii.) in this country. I cannot help, however, suspecting, that it is now more praised than read in Great Britain; so completely have those disputes, to which it owed its first celebrity, lost their interest. Many passages in it, indeed, will always be perused with delight; but it may be questioned, if Gibbon himself would have read it so often from beginning to end, had it not been for the strong hold which ecclesiastical controversies, and the Roman Catholic faith, had early taken of his mind. In one respect, the *Provincial Letters* are well entitled to the attention of philosophers; inasmuch as they present so faithful and lively a picture of the influence of false religious views in perverting the moral sentiments of mankind. The overwhelming ridicule lavished by Pascal on the whole system of jesuitical casuistry, and the happy effects of his pleasantries in preparing, from a distance, the fall of that formidable order, might be quoted as proofs, that there are at least some truths, in whose defence this weapon may be safely employed; perhaps with more advantage than the commanding voice of Reason herself. The mischievous absurdities which it was his aim to correct, scarcely admitted of the gravity of logical discussion; requiring only the extirpation or the prevention of those early prejudices which choke the growth of common sense and of conscience: and for this purpose, what so likely to succeed with the open and generous minds of youth, as ridicule, managed with decency and taste; more especially when seconded, as in the *Provincial Letters*, by acuteness of argument, and by the powerful eloquence of the heart? In this point of view, few practical moralists can boast of having rendered a more important service than Pascal to the general interests of humanity. Were it not, indeed, for his exquisite satire, we should already be tempted to doubt, if, at so recent a date, it were possible for such extravagancies to have maintained a dangerous ascendancy over the human understanding.

The unconnected fragment of Pascal, entitled "*Thoughts on Religion*," contains various reflections which are equally just and ingenious: some of which are truly sublime; and not a few which are false and puerile: the whole, however, deeply tinged with that acetic and morbid melancholy, which seems to have at last produced a partial eclipse of his faculties. Voltaire has animadverted on this fragment with much levity and petulance; mingling, at the same time, with many very exceptionable strictures, several of which it is impossible to dispute the justness. The following reflection is worthy of Addison; and bears a strong resemblance in its spirit to the amiable lessons inculcated in his papers on Cheerfulness: "To consider the world as a dungeon, and the whole human race as so many criminals doomed to execution, is the idea of an enthusiast; to suppose the world to be a seat of delight, where we are to expect nothing but pleasure, is the dream of a Sybarite; but to conclude that the earth, man, and the lower animals, are, all of them, subservient to the purposes of an unerring Providence, is, in my opinion, the system of a wise and good man." *Spectator*, No. 381 and 387.

Underneath the Portrait which accompanies this article, a hand from heaven is seen filling out of a small phial the lamp of Pascal's short life. We take this opportunity of supplying our omission of explaining the allegorical Entablature which accompanies the Portrait of old PARR, which alludes to a life as much lengthened beyond the usual standard as the other falls short of it: there, Clotho and Lachesis spin on the life of Parr, while Atropos seems totally to forget or to neglect the use of her scissors. See p. 637.

PASCALANK, a river of North-Carolina, which runs into Albemarle Sound in lat. 36. 6. N. lon. 76. 32. W.

PASCALIA, *f.* [so named by Professor Ortega, probably to commemorate some botanist.] In botany a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia-superflua, natural

natural order compositæ oppositifoliæ, *Linn.* (corymbifæræ, *Juss.*) *Essential Characters*—Receptacle chaffy; seeds pulpy; down a toothed border; calyx imbricated.

Pascalina glauca, a single species. Native of Chili. Root perennial; stem erect, eighteen inches high, slightly branched in the upper part only; leaves opposite, sessile, smooth, glaucous; the lower ones ovate, with angle-like teeth, three-ribbed, veiny; the upper ones lanceolate, narrow, three-ribbed, obscurely toothed towards the base. Flowers yellow, solitary at the summits of the stem and branches. The pulpy or drupaceous seeds appear to render this genus, as Willdenow observes, very distinct. *Ortega*, Dec. iv. 39.

PASCALINI, or PASQUALINO (John-Baptista), an Italian engraver, was born at Cento, a village near Bologna, A.D. 1600, and frequented the school of Cyrus Ferri; though he does not appear to have made any meritorious progress in painting. He engraved a great number of prints from various Bolognese painters, but particularly from his countryman Guerchino; whose bold spirited style in drawing with a pen he attempted to imitate with the graver, but he did not possess sufficient command of that instrument to succeed, neither is it at all adapted to such a purpose. The etchings of Pascalin, according to Huber, always convey the idea of original compositions; but this praise Mr. Landseer does not think him entitled to. Those among them which deserve most commendation, are—St. Felix, a Capuchin, kneeling before the Virgin and Infant Christ, folio; St. Diego, from L. Caracci, marked J. B. Centensis; a large folio print of The Death of St. Cecilia, from Dominichino; The Aurora, a large print lengthways, on two plates, from the celebrated picture of Guido, which has since been finely engraved by Giacomo Frey, and also by Audenarde.

PASCATA'QUA. See PISCATAQUA.

PASCH, *f.* [παῤῥχε, Sax. *pascha*, Gr. from the Heb. *paschah*.] The passover.—The *paske* was full nygh, a feast day of the Jewis. *Wicliffe's John* vi.—What feast it was, is questionable; whether the *pasch*, or whether pentecost. *Bp. Hall's Contempl.*—The feast of Easter. *Bullokar*.

PASCH-EGG, *f.* An egg dyed or stained, presented, about the time of Easter, in several parts of the north of England, to this day, to young persons; corruptly called in Cumberland *pace*-egg; in Northumberland, according to Mr. Brand, *paske*-egg. Of the great antiquity of this custom, and of its usage among various nations, see an account in Brand's *Popular Antiquities*, vol. i. p. 142.—Holy ashes, holy *pace*-eggs, and flanes; palmes, and palme-boughs. *Bechive of the Romish Church*. 1579.

PASCH-FLOWER. See PASQUE-FLOWER.

PASCHAL, *adj.* [Fr. from *pascalis*, Lat.] Relating to the Jewish passover.—It was an essential part of the *pascchal* law, that the lamb should be slain. *Pearson on the Creed*.—Relating to the Christian Easter.—That this dispute [concerning the feast of Easter] might never arise again, these *pascchal* canons were then established. *Wheatly on the Comm. Prayer*.

PASCHAL I. (Pope), a Roman by birth, who flourished in the ninth century, became a presbyter of the church, and abbot of the monastery of St. Stephen. In the year 817, upon the death of pope Stephen V. he was elected his successor, by the unanimous suffrages of the senate, the clergy, and people. Immediately after his elevation to the pontifical throne, he sent his nomenclator Theodore into France, to carry the tidings of his elevation to the emperor Louis, who sent him assurances of his protection, and confirmed the grants which had been made by his father and grand-father to the holy see. No sooner was his election known in the East, than letters were sent to him from the monk Theodore Studita, and the other defenders of image-worship, containing grievous but very exaggerated complaints of the persecution which they suffered from the ICONOCLASTS (see the article); and exhorting him to assemble a council for the purpose of anathematizing those heretics. This measure he re-

fused to adopt; but sent letters to the complainants, confirming them in their adherence to their usual practice; and, to comfort them under their sufferings, he assured them that to be martyrs on account of images was in fact to be martyrs on account of Christ; and that the same reward was reserved in heaven for those who suffered under the image-breaking emperors as was conferred on those who suffered under the Pagan emperors for the sake of Christ. In the year 818, Paschal built a monastery at Rome for the Greek monks who had fled from Constantinople, and the other cities of the East, rather than renounce the worship of images. In the year 823, Lotharius, the eldest son of the emperor Louis, who had taken him for his partner in the empire, came to Rome, where he was received with every possible mark of respect and distinction, and crowned by him emperor and king of Italy. Scarcely had the monarch returned to France, before a messenger arrived from Rome with the intelligence, that two of the chief officers of the Roman church, distinguished by their zealous attachment to the interests of France, had been apprehended soon after his departure, and carried to the Lateran palace, where their eyes were first cruelly pulled out, and they were then beheaded. Shocked and incensed at such barbarity, the emperor Louis sent commissioners to Rome, to examine whether the pope was implicated in that black affair. After a strict enquiry, so different and contradictory were the depositions of the witnesses who came before them, that they could not with any certainty declare the pope either innocent or guilty of the murders. They, therefore, acquiesced in an offer which Paschal made of declaring his innocence upon oath. He could not, however, be persuaded to deliver up the assassins, alleging that they were his own servants, and in fact guilty of no crime or injustice, since the persons whom they had put to death had long deserved that punishment by their treasonable practices. Not long afterwards the pope was seized with a dangerous illness, to which he fell a sacrifice in February 824, after a pontificate of rather more than seven years. From a conviction that, notwithstanding his oath, he was in fact privy to the assassination which his servants had perpetrated, the Romans would not allow him to be interred with his predecessors in the Vatican; and he remained unburied till his successor caused his remains to be deposited in one of the churches which he had rebuilt. Three Letters, which are attributed to him, are inserted in the seventh volume of the Collect. Concil. but doubts of their genuineness are entertained by catholic critics.

PASCHAL II. (Pope), originally called *Rainerius*, or *Raginerus*, was a Tuscan by nation, and was educated in the monastery of Cluny, where he embraced the monastic life while he was very young. At the age of 20, he was sent by his abbot to Rome on business relating to the monastery, when Gregory VII. who was then on the pontifical throne, struck with his talents and behaviour, retained him at his court; and, in a short time, he was ordained priest, and soon after was promoted to the dignity of cardinal, with the title of St. Clement. In 1099, upon the death of pope Urban II. the cardinals, bishops, and clergy, of Rome, having assembled in the church of St. Clement, determined to elect cardinal Rainerius; he wished to escape, and withdrew himself; but, being discovered, he was brought back, and unanimously placed on the pontifical throne. On the following day his consecration took place, when he assumed the name of Paschal II. His first object was effectually to crush his rival Guibert, who had maintained the name of pope for nearly twenty years, and had given considerable trouble to three of his predecessors, Gregory VII. Victor III. and Urban II. He had, indeed, been finally driven from Rome by pope Urban, but still continued master of his bishopric of Ravenna. From this city he was compelled to fly by Paschal's troops; upon which he retired to Citta di Castello, or, as others say, to the mountains of

Abruzzo,

Abruzzo, where he died suddenly. Immediately after information of his death was brought to his friends, they chose one Albert in his room; but he was apprehended on the very day of his election, and confined to the monastery of St. Lawrence. In his room Guibert's party elected a Roman, named Theodoric; who within between three and four months fell into Paschal's hands, and was shut up in the monastery of Cava near Palestrina. Lastly the same party elected an archpriest, called Magninulph, who took the name of Silvester IV. but, the interest of Paschal prevailing, he was forced to quit Rome, and died soon afterwards.

Paschal, having now triumphed over all his rivals, and seeming to be firm and secure in the possession of the apostolical chair, began the exercise of his pontifical office by sending legates into France, to remonstrate with king Philip on account of his living in open adultery with Bertrada, wife of Fulk count of Anjou, and to cut him off from the body of the church, should not their admonitions have the effect of reforming him. The legates, finding that the king paid no regard either to their exhortations or menaces, summoned a council to assemble at Poitiers; and, having acquainted the assembly of the inefficacy of their endeavours to retrieve the king from his wickedness, with their approbation excommunicated that prince and his adulterous concubine. In the year 1101, the pope, knowing that Anselm, archbishop of Canterbury, was wholly in his interest, attempted to introduce the legatine power into England; and sent over Guido, archbishop of Viënné, with the character of his legate *à latere*; but, when king Henry and the nation understood that he was commissioned to exercise in this kingdom the same uncontrolled power over all persons, laymen as well as ecclesiastics, which had been displayed in other countries, but was altogether unprecedented in England, they would not acknowledge him, nor was he allowed to exercise any function of his office.

In the year 1102, Paschal assembled a council at Rome, in which the decrees of his predecessors against investitures were confirmed, and the pope himself, with great solemnity, and in the presence of an immense multitude, pronounced the sentence of excommunication against the emperor Henry IV. This prince was afterwards glad to abdicate his throne in favour of his son Henry V. Upon the death of the former, the pope held a council, in which decrees were passed which re-united the whole of Lombardy to the apostolical see, from which all that country, excepting the places held by the counts Matilda, had been separated ever since the year 1080, when it declared in favour of the antipope Guibert.

By this time the pope had the mortification to find, that the new emperor was determined, equally with his predecessors, to maintain his right to investitures; the pope, therefore, to strengthen his own hands, sought an alliance with Philip of France, whom he had, some time previously to this, absolved from the sentence of excommunication. In 1107 the pope presided in a council at Troyes, consisting of the bishops from many places, who proved themselves to be wholly subservient to the ambition of the court of Rome, by confirming all the decrees relating to the pretended papal right to investitures. In 1110 a compromise took place; and in the following year Henry set out for Rome, at the head of a numerous army, to be crowned. He was received with every mark of respect; but, when the conditions of the treaty were to be mutually fulfilled, the German and Italian bishops present protested unanimously against parting with their estates, which they said the pope had no right to dispose of. This produced a warm altercation between the king and the pope, Paschal declaring that he would not proceed with the coronation unless the monarch immediately ratified his part of the treaty. Henry, in reply, ordered his guards to arrest the pope and all his cardinals, thinking that, by this measure, he should compel Paschal to crown him. Two of the cardinals contrived to escape in

disguise, and they animated the citizens of Rome to fly to arms, to rescue their pontiff. A civil contention took place, in which the friends of the pope were repulsed with great slaughter. After Paschal had been prisoner about two months, the monarch swore, in the presence of his army, that, if he did not fulfil the articles of agreement, he would put him, and all his adherents, to death. The pope was still unmoved, till the cardinals, and other prisoners, begged him to yield for their sakes, and to prevent the calamities which must otherwise fall upon the church. The articles of agreement were accordingly signed, and the monarch received a papal bull, confirming to him the right of investiture. Things being thus settled, the pope and Henry proceeded to the church of St. Peter, where the king was crowned emperor of the Romans by the pope, with the usual solemnity; soon after which that prince took his leave of his holiness, and returned to Germany. Paschal's reception at Rome was highly mortifying: he was accused of having sacrificed the rights of the church, and the dignity of his station, to his own safety. He affected great contrition, and sanctioned the excommunication of the emperor. Hostilities were carried on by both parties till 1117, when Henry resolved to bring matters to a crisis, and set out a second time for Italy, at the head of a numerous army. The contests now were carried on with great violence till the beginning of the following year, when the pope died, after a reign of about eighteen years and a half, which he spent in incessant efforts for extending the power, and promoting the aggrandisement, of the papal see. More than 100 of his Letters, and some fragments of his Decrees, are inserted in the 10th vol. of the Collect. Concil.

PASCHAL III. (Pope or Antipope), originally known by the name of *Guy de Crema*, was probably a native of the city whence he derived his surname. He was promoted to the sacred college by pope Adrian IV. who sent him into Germany as legate to appease the resentment of the emperor Frederic Barbarossa, which he had provoked by his exorbitant and arrogant claims to the temporal power and authority. He was not successful in the object of his mission; on the death of Adrian, in 1159, the cardinals were divided into two parties, the greater number of whom declared the election to have fallen upon Alexander III. while the minority, in which Guy was one, gave votes for cardinal Octavian, who had long aspired to the pontificate, and was even prepared to support his pretensions by an armed force. A double election took place, and the two rivals were consecrated by their respective partizans, on which occasion Octavian assumed the name of *Victor*. Supported by the emperor, he retained the pontifical dignity till his death in 1164, when cardinal Guy was chosen his successor, and took the name of Paschal III. This election was confirmed by the emperor; and, in 1166, Paschal was acknowledged in the character of sovereign pontiff by the bishops and princes of the empire at the diet of Wurtzburg. The Romans, however, declared for Alexander, and received him with the same honours which had been paid to his predecessors. A furious contest was excited; but at length the greater part of the Romans submitted, and acknowledged Paschal as lawful pope. He died in 1168, after he had held the title about four years. One of the chief acts which he performed in this character was the canonization of Charlemagne in the year 1165; but, as the Roman church classes Paschal among the antipopes, it does not agree to the honours of sainthood which are paid to that prince. *Platina et Anastasius de Vita Pont. Cave's Hist. Lit. vol. ii. Mosh. Hist. Eccl. sæc. xii.*

PASCHASIUS-RAD'BERT, a celebrated French monk in the ninth century, to whose writings protestant controversialists trace the origin of the doctrine of transubstantiation, is most generally spoken of in ecclesiastical history under his *prænomen*, on which account we have assigned him to this department of our alphabetical list. He was a native of Soissons; and, being deserted in his

infancy by his relations, was brought up by the charity of the nuns of Our Lady of Soissons, in an out-house dependent on their convent. When he had grown to man's estate, he embraced the monastic life among the Benedictines of the abbey of Corbie, where he applied with great diligence to his studies, distinguished himself in the polemic conferences and disputations of his time, and wrote several books. So high was the reputation which he acquired for learning and virtue, that he was elected abbot of his monastery in the year 844, when he was only in deacon's orders, his humility preventing him from entering into the order of priesthood. He did not retain this situation, however, for any considerable length of time; but, in consequence of some differences which took place between him and the religious of his house, resigned his dignity, and returned to the condition of a simple monk, spending the remainder of his life in the exercise of the cloister, close study, and the composition of various works. He died in the year 865.

Dupin says, that he "was a man of great piety and learning, who wrote in a clear, neat, and elegant, style. He was well-read both in ecclesiastical and profane authors. He possessed good natural abilities; only it may perhaps be said, that he was rather too mystical." Mosheim describes him as one "who was constantly employed either in inventing or patronizing the most extravagant fancies." The first work which he gave to the public was a treatise "concerning the Sacrament of the Body and Blood of Christ," composed by him in the year 831. In this performance he pretended to explain with precision the doctrine of the church on this head, maintaining that, after the consecration of the bread and wine in the Lord's supper, nothing remained of these symbols but the *outward figure*, under which the body and blood of Christ were really and locally present; and that the body of Christ thus present in the eucharist, was the *same body that was born of the Virgin, that suffered upon the cross, and was raised from the dead*. That this doctrine was then new, may be concluded from the great astonishment which it excited, and the general opposition which it met with from the learned men of the age, among whom were Rabanus Maurus, Ratramn, or Bertramn, John Scotus Erigena, Heribald, and others. In Mosheim the reader may meet with a concise and judicious abstract of the controversy to which this publication gave rise. Among the variety of impressions which it has undergone, the most accurate is that published by Father Martenne, in the ninth volume of his "Ampliss. Collect. Vet. Scriptor." In the year 846, Paschasius published a treatise, entitled "De Partu Virginis Lib. II." intended to support an opinion propagated at that time by certain German doctors, that Christ was born in a manner quite different from those general and uniform laws of nature that regulate the birth of the human species. He maintained, that the virgin Mary, having conceived without concupiscence, was free from the pains of child-birth, and was even delivered without any opening of the womb, Jesus having passed through her flesh as it is supposed that he did through the door into the room where his disciples were assembled after his resurrection, though the door was shut. When Ratramn opposed this opinion, Paschasius charged him with denying the virginity of Mary. During many years this curious performance appeared under the name of Ildephonsus archbishop of Toledo, till father d'Achery, when he edited it in the twelfth volume of his Spicilegium, after having collated different manuscripts, proved that it was the production of Paschasius. He was the author of many other pieces, all which were collected and published by father Sirmond in 1618, in folio; and they may likewise be found in the ninth volume of the Bibl. Patr. *Cave's Hist. Lit.* vol. ii. *Priestley's Hist. Christian Church*, vol. iii. *Gen. Biog.*

PAS'CHIUS (George), a learned German Lutheran divine and professor, was the son of a tradesman at Dant-

zic, where he was born in the year 1661. When he had completed his academic studies, he travelled for improvement in Germany, France, and England. In the year 1701, he obtained the appointment of professor of moral philosophy at Kiel in Holstein; and in 1706, he was nominated professor extraordinary of divinity in the same university. He died in the following year, about the age of fifty-six. He was the author of various publications, abounding in uncommon erudition, but said to want method and arrangement; some of which are highly commended for their useful tendency, and others as affording much entertainment from the curious discussions contained in them. His first and principal work was published in 1695, entitled "Tractatus de Novis Inventis, quorum accuratori Cultui Faciem prætulit Antiquitas," which afterwards appeared in a new and enlarged form in 1700, under the title of "Inventorum nov-antiquorum." It is a work replete with profound enquiries, and calculated to exalt former times at the expense of the present. The author attempts to prove, that the knowledge of the moderns has been imperceptibly borrowed from the rich stores of ancient wisdom, and that our boasted inventions are only improvements on the discoveries of the ancients. In endeavouring to establish his point, he has brought forward a number of interesting facts relating to the history and progress of the arts and sciences. One of the other works of this author was entitled "De fictis Rebus publicis," being a treatise on the imaginary republics of Plato, sir Thomas More, and Campanella. The titles of his other pieces may be found in the General Biography, to which we refer.

PASCOMA'YO, a seaport of Peru, in the bishopric of Truxillo, and jurisdiction of Lana, at the mouth of a river of the same name. Lat. 7. 20. S.

PASCUARO. See PASQUARO.

PA'NEWALK, a town of Anterior Pomerania, situated on the Ucker, by means of which the inhabitants carry down their goods to the Great Haff. Near the town are some iron-works: twenty-one miles west of Old Stettin, and sixty-six fourth-fourth-east of Stralsund. Lat. 53. 30. N. lon. 13. 57. E.

To PASH, *v. a.* [from the Teut. *perffen*, (which means to press,) in Dr. Johnson's opinion; from the Su. Goth. *basa*, to beat, in Serenius's. It is more probably from the Greek verb, *πασω, παίσω*, to strike. Or it may be another form of *push*. Todd.] To strike; to crush; to push against; to dash with violence.—He was *pushed* on the pate with a pot. *Barret's Alv.*—They their heads together *pusht*. *Drayton*.

Thy cunning engines have with labour rais'd
My heavy anger, like a mighty weight,
To fall and *push* thee dead.

Dryden.

PASH, *f.* A blow; a stroke.—Learn *push* and knock, and beat and mall. *How to choose a good Wife*, 1602.—A face, according to sir T. Hanmer, whose authority Dr. Johnson follows, with the etymology of *paz*, Spanish, a kiss; but, in the passage cited, the word means nothing more than *push*; a *push*, in some places denoting a young bull-calf pushing out his horns; and a mad *push*, a mad-brained boy:

Thou want'st a rough *push*, and the shoots that I have,
To be full like me.

Shakespeare's Wint. Tale.

PASH, or PA'SHA, *f.* in mythology, is an attribute or implement of several of the deities of the Hindoos. It seems to be an implement of punishment, a whip or lash to chastise, or cord to strangle, sinners. A doubled cord is often seen in the hand of Parvati, in any of her terrific or avenging characters, and it is to such characters that the pasha is chiefly confined. In Hindoo books the pasha is frequently mentioned, and it is generally distinguished by the name of the deity to whom it is attributed. Thus the Varuna-pasha is the cord of Varuna, the Hindoo Neptune. "Varuna (says Menu) most assuredly binds

the guilty in fatal cords;" ch. xi. v. 308. "The Dherma-pasha, the dreadful Kala-pasha, and the highly valued Varuna-pasha," are mentioned in the Ramayana, as part of the "weapons, missile and manual," with which the gods armed Rama for the war of Lanka. They severally mean the cords of Justice, of Death, and of Varuna.

PASHA. See BASHAW, vol. ii.

PASHA'NA BE'ADY, *f.* A name given by the people of the East Indies to a kind of fibrous talc, found in the sides of the mountains, and used in medicine with them. They calcine it, and then powder and boil it in milk, and give half a dram for a dose mixed in milk, for the gravel and stone. *Chambers.*

PASH'UR, [Heb. one that multiplies.] A man's name.

PASICANA, in ancient geography, a town of India, on this side of the Ganges. *Ptolemy.*

PASID'IUM, a town of Asia, in Syria, situated on the sea-coast, west of Mount Casius.

PASI'GA, a river which rises in the province of Darien, and runs into the bay of Panama.

PASIGRAPHY, [from *πας*, all, and *γραφω*, I write.] The art of writing on any subject whatever, so as to be universally understood by all nations upon earth. On the subject of an universal character, see the article LANGUAGE, vol. xii. p. 203.

PASIHAN', one of the smaller Phillippine islands, near the west coast of Leyta. Lat. 10. 35. N. lon. 124. 12. E.

PAS'IN. See BADKIS, vol. ii.

PASINEL'LI (Laurentio), an Italian painter and engraver, was born at Bologna in the year 1629, and died at Parma in 1700. His instructors in the rudiments of art were Andrea Barone and Simon Cantarini; but he also frequented the school of Flaminio Torre. From Bologna he went to Turin, and from thence to Mantua and to Venice. At Mantua he was employed by the duke in the adornment of his castle at Monmirola; but at Venice, struck with the superiority which he perceived in Paul Veronese, his style of painting, and his notions of art in general, underwent a complete revolution. He afterwards returned to Bologna and established a school.

Cochin, in his Italian Tour, speaks highly of Pasinelli's picture of the Resurrection, in the church of St. Francis; and his few prints are sought after with justifiable avidity by the connoisseurs: they are chiefly from his own compositions.

PASIPE'DA, in ancient geography, a town of India, on the bank of the Ganges, and on this side of it, between Pisca and Sufcana. *Ptolemy.*

PASIPH'AE, in fabulous history, a daughter of the Sun and of Perseis, who married Minos II. king of Crete. She disgraced herself by her unnatural passion for a bull, which, according to some authors, she was enabled to gratify by means of the artist Dædalus. See MINOTAUR, vol. xv. Pasiphae had four sons by Minos; Castreus, Deucalion, Glaucus, and Androgeus; and three daughters, Hecate, Ariadne, and Phædra.

PASI'RIS, a town of European Sarmatia, on the bank of the river Carcinite, between Torocca and Hercabum. *Ptolemy.*

PASITHEA, one of the Graces, also called *Aglai*.—One of the Nereides.

PASITIGRIS, a name given to the junction of the Euphrates and Tigris, at the mouth of the Persian Gulf.

PAS'KA, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Fonia, where the king keeps a garrison. The town is surrounded with six rows of palisadoes, and contains about a hundred inhabitants.

PASKARE'TI, a town of Mingrelia: twenty miles north-north-east of Anarghia.

PASKATA'QUIES, a river of Massachusetts, which runs into Penobscot bay.

PAS'KAU, a town of Moravia, in the circle of Prerau: eight miles east of New Titschein.

PAS'LAKEN, a town of Prussia, in Bartenland: ten miles south-east of Bartenstein.

PAS'MAN, an island in the Adriatic, near the coast of Dalmatia, fifteen miles in length, and two in breadth. It produces abundance of wine and oil; and contains seven villages. Lat. 44. 8. N. lon. 15. 56. E.

PAS'NAGE. See PANNAGE.

PASO FERREIRA, a town of South America, in the government of Buenos Ayres: 340 miles north-north-west of Buenos Ayres.

PASO DE PESCA'DO, a town of South America, in the province of Tucuman: fifty miles north of St. Miguel de Tucuman.

PASOLA'TO, a river of Sicily, which runs into the sea on the south coast in lat. 36. 49. N. lon. 13. 32. E.

PASOM'DSO, a lake of Thibet, about fifty miles in circumference. Lat. 29. 42. N. lon. 94. 24. E.

PASPALUM, *f.* [apparently from *πασπαλη*, an ancient name for millet, which kind of grain this grass resembles in the appearance of its small round seeds; but *πασπαλη*, *παιπαλη*, is also a name for any fine meal or flour, as Professor Martyn remarks.] In botany, a genus of the class triandria, order digynia, natural order gramina, or grasses. Generic characters—Calyx: glume of two membranous, equal, almost-orbicular, slightly-concave, valves, containing one floret, the inner one flattest, turned from the dilated unilateral receptacle. Corolla: of two, roundish, cartilaginous valves, the size of the calyx, externally convex, inflexed at the base. Nectary of two membranous scales at the base of the germen. Stamina: filaments three, capillary, the length of the calyx; antheræ ovate. Pistillum: germen superior, roundish; styles two, capillary, the length of the corolla; stigmas pencil-shaped, hairy, coloured. Pericarpium: none, except the permanent closed glumes. Seed solitary, roundish, compressed, convex at one side, coated by the permanent cartilaginous corolla.—*Essential Character.* Calyx of two valves, nearly orbicular, single-flowered; corolla of the same size and shape, compressed; stigmas pencil-shaped; seed coated with the hardened corolla; common receptacle unilateral.

Mr. Brown remarks, that this genus is very closely related to Panicum, inasmuch that if, in those species of the latter which have an unilateral spike, the outer valve of the calyx be suppressed, it makes a real Paspalum. Such a defect does, according to this botanist, actually take place in some few, in which, however, either the nectariferous scales, as Linnæus thought them, or a very minute valve within the inner valve of the calyx, do indeed sometimes occur; but so likewise is a small valve, on the outside of the least convex valve of the corolla, sometimes observable, says Mr. Brown, in Paspalum orbiculare. There is a peculiar aspect of neatness arising from the more or less perfectly orbicular form, and regular arrangement, of the flowers which characterises the genus before us. Linnæus at first referred such of its species as he knew to Panicum; but in Syst. Nat. ed. 10. he gives the generic character of Paspalum at length, for the first time, enumerating four species, which were all he then knew. He subsequently confused the history of the first of them in such a manner, that it could not be developed but by investigation of his specimens and manuscripts. He erred at first in considering the genus as diandrous, but this is corrected in his Species Plantarum. It is very remarkable, that of two genera so alike in character, the species of one (Panicum) should be scattered all over the world, while of the genus before us, Paspalum, not one is found in Europe.

With the additions made by Dr. Smith, president of the Linnæan Society, we have now twenty-eight species.

1. Paspalum dissectum, or cut paspalum: spikes alternate, sessile, with a leafy broad rough-edged receptacle; flowers smooth, slightly elliptical, three-ribbed; leaves smooth; stipule membranous, beardless. Native of North America; sent to Linnæus by Kalm. Stem leafy, bent

at

at the joints. Leaves linear-lanceolate, striated, a little rough at the edges, with long, rather tumid, smooth sheaths. Stipule jagged, unaccompanied by any hairs or bristles. Spikes three or four on the upper part of the stem, which scarcely rises above the leaves, each rather more than an inch long. Common stalk, or receptacle, of each spike, much dilated, linear, exactly even, leafy, striated, rough-edged, one-eighth of an inch, or more, in breadth, having at its inner side a strong angular longitudinal rib, bearing numerous alternate flowers, in two rows, on short stalks. The calyx-glumes are exactly but broadly elliptical, rather tumid, pale, with three fine green ribs, perfectly smooth and naked.

2. *Paspalum setaceum*, or bristly paspalum: spikes one or two, on long straight stalks, with a narrow wavy receptacle; flowers mostly in pairs, on short winged divided partial stalks, slightly obovate, smooth, scarcely ribbed; leaves downy above; stipule hairy. Sent from Lancaster, Pennsylvania, by the Rev. Dr. Muhlenberg. The stem is erect, slender, and smooth, terminated by one spike two inches long, on a slender stiff naked stalk, many inches in length, whose base is enfolded by the very long sheath of the upper leaf, from which often proceeds another similar, but shorter-stalked, spike. The upper leaf, at least, is much shorter than its sheath, lanceolate, clothed above with soft hairs. Michaux says his plant grows in dry situations in South Carolina.

3. *Paspalum debile*, or weak paspalum: stem weak, bristle-like at the top; leaves hairy; spike mostly solitary, slender; flowers solitary, alternate, slightly downy, slightly obovate. Native of maritime situations, in Carolina and Georgia. This seems by Michaux's character, which is all that is known of it, to be akin to the last.

4. *Paspalum conjugatum*, or joined paspalum: spikes two, terminal, equal, nearly sessile; receptacle narrow, even, with a wavy rib; flowers solitary, very numerous, alternate, imbricated, ovate, acute, ribbed, fringed with long soft hairs. Common in the West Indies, in moist pastures. Linnæus obtained a specimen from Browne's Herbarium, which he confounded with the first species, though nothing can be more distinct. It is a larger species than any of the foregoing, with broad, taper-pointed, often downy, leaves. Stipule hairy. Spikes slender, a little divaricated, each nearly four inches long, of innumerable crowded alternate small yellowish ovate acute flowers, each on a short stalk; their calyx ribbed, remarkably fringed with long lax white hairs. Swartz says this is called, in the West Indies, *four gras*; and is not eaten by cattle.

5. *Paspalum ciliatifolium*, or fringed-leaved paspalum: leaves dilated, downy, finely serrated, fringed; spikes one or two, terminal, elongated; flowers in pairs, somewhat obovate, very obtuse, smooth, forming three rows. Native of Carolina. This seems akin to the last.

6. *Paspalum præcox*, or early paspalum: erect, smooth; leaves linear, elongated; spikes alternate, remote; flowers short, obovate, even and smooth. Native of North America, from Carolina to Florida.

7. *Paspalum læve*, or smooth paspalum: erect, very smooth; leaves shortish, with compressed sheaths; spikes several alternate; flowers in two ranks, ovate, somewhat orbicular, even and smooth. Native of Georgia. These three species are from Michaux, Boreal-Amer. vol. i. p. 44. We give them as distinct species, because we cannot, from the above short definitions, refer them to any in Linnæus or Willdenow. The 3d, 12th, and 13th, species are in the same predicament; indeed the North-American *Paspala* are but imperfectly known.

8. *Paspalum scrobiculatum*, or dimpled paspalum: spikes alternate, with a leafy broad rough-edged receptacle; flowers alternate, orbicular, on simple dilated stalks, many-ribbed, dimpled at the base externally. Native of the East Indies, in watery places. Root-perennial, of many long blackish branched fibres. Stem near two feet high, clothed with ribbed smooth leaves;

having long purplish sheaths, hairy at the bottom. Spikes few and distant; their receptacle flat, near a quarter of an inch wide, minutely fringed. Flowers not unlike hemp-seed in size and aspect, very numerous, alternate, imbricated in two rows, each on a short dilated close-pressed partial stalk, and very nearly orbicular.

9. *Paspalum polystachyum*, or many-spiked paspalum: spikes numerous, crowded; flowers smooth, orbicular; outer valve of the calyx five-ribbed; leaves flat, smooth, with a thin finely-toothed margin. Gathered by Mr. Brown in the tropical part of New Holland. This species is described by him as too-nearly related to the last, except that the dimples in the base of the calyx are wanting.

10. *Paspalum villosum*, or hairy paspalum: spikes alternate, with a hairy receptacle; flowers alternate, elliptical, three-ribbed, villose. Found by Thunberg, near Nagasaki in Japan, flowering in July. Stem three feet high, smooth. Leaves roughish to the touch, striated, naked. Spikes three or four, inclining all one way. Flowers crowded, in two rows only, about the size of *P. scrobiculatum*, but more oblong, and hairy.

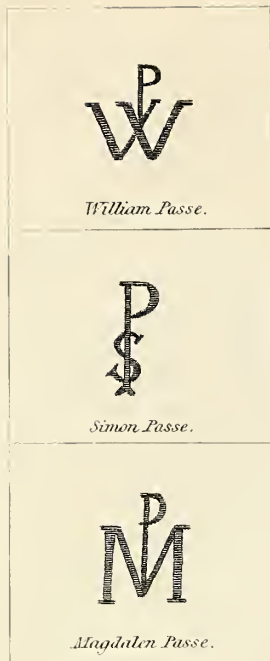
11. *Paspalum virgatum*, or rod like paspalum: spikes rather numerous, alternate, hairy at the base; flowers in pairs, somewhat obovate; the tumid valve of the calyx fringed. Native of meadows in Jamaica. Perennial. About the size of *P. scrobiculatum*; but differs in having smaller, obovate, fringed, flowers, which, being disposed in pairs along the narrow wavy receptacle, make four rows instead of two; each glume has a central rib, with a marginal one at each side, and the concave one is finely fringed in the upper part.

12. *Paspalum floridanum*, or flowery paspalum: erect; lower leaves hairy; upper ones smooth, with long sheaths, upright; spikes few, erect; flowers in two rows, nearly orbicular, smooth naked. Native of Florida and Georgia. This, says Michaux, is akin to *P. virgatum* of Linnæus. We know nothing of it but from the above character, which is essentially different in almost every point from the *virgatum*. Michaux adds that the flowers are rather large.

13. *Paspalum plicatulum*, or plaited paspalum: erect, very smooth, and naked; leaves elongated; spikes numerous, alternate, upright; flowers in three rows, short, ovate, naked; the flatter valve of the calyx transversely corrugated at the margin. Native of Georgia and Florida. The leaves are narrow; flowers reddish.

14. *Paspalum panicum*, or panic-like paspalum: spikes very numerous, crowded, hairy at the base; flowers in four rows, orbicular, even, and naked. Gathered in Jamaica by W. Wright, M. D. A very fine and handsome species, whose dense and very-numerous spikes, crowded together in one common spike, a foot long, give, with their copious little round flowers and seeds, some idea of *Panicum italicum*, except that the whole is erect and unilateral. The leaves are long, near two inches broad in some parts, tapering to a rough-edged point, but otherwise very smooth to the touch, and finely ribbed. Each partial spike is two inches, or more, in length, with a flat rather-narrow receptacle, bearing a few scattered hairs throughout, and very hairy at its base. Flowers disposed in four rows, on shortish capillary stalks, almost perfectly orbicular, of a light tawny hue, the calyx-valves even and smooth, each with a central rib, but no others, except at the very edge. This grass was formerly known, in the Bankian Herbarium, by the expressive name of *Paspalum polystachyum*; now appropriated by Mr. Brown to our 9th species, which, from his description, must be very unlike the present.

15. *Paspalum paniculatum*, or panicked paspalum: spikes numerous, crowded, somewhat whorled, spreading every way, hairy at the base; flowers in alternate pairs, orbicular, even, slightly hairy; receptacle very narrow. Sloane says this grows in several plantations in Jamaica,



1. Stolcniferous Paspalum. 2. Fringed Sparrow-wort.

on a moist clay soil. The leaves are an inch wide, hairy on their upper side, as well as about the stipule on both sides; their sheaths long, smooth, ribbed. Flowers numerous, small, rather loosely disposed in alternate pairs, on twin or combined stalks; their glumes very nearly orbicular, obtuse, somewhat hairy, single-ribbed.

16. *Paspalum repens*, or creeping paspalum: spikes numerous, crowded, somewhat whorled, spreading every way, naked at the base; flowers alternate, elliptical, acute; leaves and receptacle rough. Native of Surinam, according to Bergius, who describes the stem a foot or more in length, striated, smooth, jointed, leafy, creeping by means of fibrous roots thrown out at the joints. Leaves linear-lanceolate, acute, scarcely a finger's length, striated, downy, dark green, with a sheathing base, which in his figure and description is represented as flying off from the stem, probably in consequence of drying or pressure; the upper sheaths are smooth, the lower roughish with minute points. Flowers ranged alternately, but solitary, and not in pairs, each on a short stalk.

17. *Paspalum stoloniferum*, or stoloniferous paspalum: spikelets spiked; rachis waved; flowers alternate, directed one way; stem knee-jointed, prostrate at the base, and stoloniferous. Root perennial, fibrose, whitish. Culm flexuose, smooth, cylindric, two feet high, solid, rooting at the knots; branches alternate. Leaves lanceolate, smooth, slightly streaked, a little waved at the edge, often three inches long, and eight lines wide. Sheath a little shorter than its internode, stipuled and russet at the top: each sheath, besides the part of the stem which belongs to it, incloses the rudiment of another stem. Stipule very short, ciliate, whitish. Spike simple, five or six inches long. Common peduncle or rachis alternate, membranaceous, ciliate at the edge, seven or eight lines long, and a line wide, bearing on its lower surface as far as eighteen flowers; pedicel flattened, scarcely a line in length; calyx russet; valves oblong, ciliate at the point, very much waved on the sides, principally at the base; the upper convex, the lower concave; antheræ elongated, twin, reddish. Germen oval, very small and smooth. Styles the length of the corolla; stigmas nearly the same length, white and very hairy; they issue from the flower and bend to each side at the time of fecundation. Seed covered by the corolla, and of the same size and colour with it: truncate at the top of the convex side, and a little grooved on the flat side: substance horny, semitransparent. It differs from this genus only in having the corolla shorter than the calyx, and the filaments longer than the flower. It is a native of Peru, whence it passed into Spain and France. It has been cultivated with success at Paris. The seeds have been in part abortive; but, as it runs at the root, it may be easily increased. The height and abundance of its stems, the size of its leaves, and the succulence of all its parts, render it a proper grass for cultivation. But these grasses from hot countries never are found to answer in England.

This species, which is very particularly described and figured in the Linn. Transf. vol. ii. by Mons. Louis Bosc, is represented on the annexed Plate, fig. 1. of the natural size, the stem being cut off in the middle on account of the height. The parts are also exhibited in separate figures beneath; where *b* is a front view of one of the spikelets of the natural size; *c*, the same magnified; *d*, back view of the same; *e*, common peduncle, magnified; *f*, an expanded or blowing flower attached to the common peduncle; *g*, the calyx seen from above; *h*, under view of the same; *i*, the corolla; *k*, the pistil and stamens.

18. *Paspalum corymbosum*; spikes several, alternate, corymbose; the lower ones longest; flowers alternate, nearly orbicular, smooth, almost sessile; receptacle wavy; leaves and sheaths hairy. Gathered by Dr. Afzelius at Sierra Leone. The lower part of the stem is decumbent, Vol. XVIII. No. 1278.

and bent at the joints; the rest erect, leafy, about eighteen inches high. Leaves rather narrow, and sharp-pointed.

19. *Paspalum orbiculare*; spikes alternate, distinct, bristly at the base; flowers alternate, nearly orbicular, smooth; their outer glume three-ribbed; leaves flat; thickened and toothed at the margin; gathered by Forster in the Society Islands; by Mr. Brown in the tropical part of New Holland, as well as near Port Jackson.

20. *Paspalum pubescens*, or downy paspalum: spikes alternate, distinct, sessile; flowers ovate, downy; their outer glume three-ribbed; leaves flat, hairy, and rough above, thickened and toothed at the margin. Gathered by Mr. Brown, in the tropical part of New Holland.

21. *Paspalum littorale*, or shore-loving paspalum: spikes two or three, alternate, downy at the base; flowers ovate, acute, smooth; leaves involute, naked; stem compressed. Found by Mr. Brown and Dr. White in the tropical regions of New Holland, as well as near Port Jackson.

22. *Paspalum hirsutum*, or shaggy paspalum: spikes about two; alternate; flowers many-nerved, smooth; leaves, sheaths, stem, and partial flower-stalks, hairy. Sent from China by Bladh. The stems are erect, leafy, hairy in their upper part. Leaves flat, ribbed, hairy all over, as well as their sheaths, which are bearded at the top. Spikes nearly erect, alternate, two only in Retzius's specimen; their receptacles leafy, narrower than in *P. scrobiculatum*. Flowers in two rows, alternate, smooth, with three or five ribs, on hairy stalks.

23. *Paspalum kora*: spikes two or three, alternate, hairy at the base; flowers orbicular, smooth, five-ribbed; stem and leaves smooth; stipule hairy. Native of the East Indies; sent from Tranquebar, by the Rev. Dr. Rottler.

24. *Paspalum distichum*, or two-spiked paspalum: spikes two or three, alternate; flowers ovate, acute, smooth, three-ribbed; receptacle straight; leaves smooth, as well as the stem; stipule hairy. Native of moist grassy pastures in the West Indies. The stem is simple, near two feet high, decumbent at the base, very smooth. Leaves flat, according to Swartz; involute when dry, taper-pointed, smooth; with long smooth sheaths, crowned with a hairy stipule, and not (as Swartz says) hairy at the base. Spikes usually two, one above the other, sometimes three, an inch and a half long, with a linear, even, straight, flat, smooth, rather-glaucous, receptacle. Flowers twenty or thirty, alternate, crowded, nearly sessile, ovate, acute, pale, concave on the outside, with three ribs: antheræ dark purple; stigmas blue.

25. *Paspalum longiflorum*, or long-flowered paspalum: spikes two, terminal, equal, on short stalks; flowers ovate, pointed, smooth, three-ribbed; receptacle zigzag; root creeping; stems erect; leaves smooth; stipule hairy. Native of the East Indies; sent from Tranquebar, by the Rev. Dr. Rottler. This has a long creeping root, like *Carex arenaria*, throwing up, like that, many stems, hardly a span high, slender, smooth, leafy, rarely branched. Flowers ten or twenty, situated and shaped nearly as in the last, but rather more elongated and more pointed, slightly convex rather than concave at the back. The habit and aspect of this grass resemble *Panicum dactylon*; and it appears destined, like that, to grow in loose blowing sand, which the many-branched fibres of its roots are calculated to bind together and to fix, thus performing a very important service in the economy of nature.

26. *Paspalum vaginatum*, or sheathed paspalum: spikes two, terminal, equal, on short stalks; flowers ovate, pointed, smooth; receptacle somewhat zigzag; stem creeping, bent at the joints, branched; stipule hairy. Native of pastures, on a clay soil, in Jamaica. Our only source of information concerning this species describes the roots as numerous and thread-shaped; stem a foot high.

27. *Paspalum filiforme*, or *filiform paspalum* : spike mostly solitary, linear, very slender; flowers very numerous, on short stalks, elliptical, three-ribbed; leaves brittle-shaped, channelled. Common in dry open fields in the West Indies: communicated by Dr. Swartz. This species is known from all the rest by its extremely slender habit. It is two feet high, and grows in tufts. The stem is quite smooth, almost capillary, but rigid and erect. Leaves long, straight, almost equally slender; convex and smooth beneath; channelled above. Spike two or three inches long, with a very narrow slightly-zigzag receptacle, covered on one side with a double row of closely-imbriated small smooth elliptical flowers: antheræ yellow; stigmas bluish.

28. *Paspalum decumbens*, or *prostrate paspalum* : spikes solitary, on long capillary solitary or aggregate stalks; flowers nearly orbicular, pointed: leaves ovato-lanceolate, hairy. Gathered in dry sandy mountainous situations, on the west side of Jamaica, by Dr. Swartz. The stems are procumbent, about a foot long, branched, leafy, slender, smooth, bent at the joints, apparently compressed, though described as cylindrical. Leaves rather broad, clothed, more or less, on both sides, with soft scattered hairs. Flower-stalks from one to five, from the sheaths of some of the upper leaves, rather shorter than the leaf, capillary, loosely spreading, simple, angular, downy. Flowers from sixteen to twenty, loosely imbricated, in two rows, on short stalks, slightly obovate, or very nearly orbicular, quite smooth; convex and almost hemispherical, with slight furrows, on one side; quite flat, even, and ribless, on the other. This flat side is accompanied at the base with a small abrupt scale, or imperfect glume, like what Mr. Brown mentions in *P. orbiculare*; which appears to us to bring the present species very near indeed to *Panicum*. The receptacle is narrow and convex, smooth, except at the base; by no means of the leafy dilated form usual in *Paspalum*.

PASPARDO, a town of Italy, in the department of the Adda and Oglio: four miles north of Breuo.

PASPA'YA, a town of South-America, in the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres: sixty miles south of La Plata.

PASQUA, a town of Mexico, in the province of Xalisco, situated at the mouth of a river which runs into the Pacific Ocean: forty-five miles west-north-west of La Purification. Lat. 20. 5. N.

PASQUARO, or UTZILA PASQUARO, a town of Mexico, and now capital of Mechoacan, situated on the south side of a large lake abounding in fish. The population consists of 500 families of Spaniards and Mulattoes, and 2000 families of Indians, chiefly occupied in sugar-mills, and the neighbouring copper-mines: 120 miles west of Mexico. Lat. 19. 50. N.

PASQUE-FLOWER, *f. [pulsatilla, Latin.]* See ANEMONE.—The wild anemone is called *pasque-flower*, from the paschal solemnity of our Saviour's death. *Stukely's Palæogr. Sacra.*

PASQUETANK, or PASQUOTANK, a county of North-Carolina, north of Albemarle Sound, with 7674 inhabitants, including 2295 slaves.

PASQUETANK, a river of North-Carolina, which rises in Disnal Swamp, and runs into Albemarle Sound.

PASQUIER (Stephen), a celebrated lawyer and man of letters, was born at Paris in 1528. Having been educated for the bar, he was, at a proper time, admitted an advocate in the Parliament of Paris, and became distinguished as one of the most eloquent pleaders of his time, as he really was one of the most learned men of the age. He shone particularly in the causes which he pleaded against the Jesuits, who, he contended, ought not only to be excluded from the university, but banished wholly from the kingdom. The first part of the sentence was obtained, chiefly through his means; for the latter, the times were not yet ripe. One of Pasquier's chief objections to this society was the infringement made by its vow upon the royal authority, of which he was always a

most zealous supporter. His loyalty was rewarded by Henry III. with the post of advocate-general of the chamber of accounts, which he exercised with great credit, and transmitted to his eldest son. Notwithstanding the warmth of his pleadings, and his satirical vein in writing, he was mild and benevolent in private life, of pleasing manners, and lively conversation. He married three wives; and his reasons are assigned in a Latin epigram:

The first for her person; the next for her purse;
The third for a warming-pan, doctress, and nurse.

And this, we believe, may be pretty well applied to most second and third marriages. Having enjoyed all these comforts, he died, at length, with great composure, in 1615, at the age of eighty-seven. Pasquier was a copious writer both in verse and prose. His poems are in the Latin and French languages: the former reckoned by much the best, as is generally the case with those who have no real genius for poetry, the want of which is best concealed under the veil of a dead language. The subject of one of his French poems, which became the parent of a whole collection of verses, affords a remarkable example of the sportive levity which in that nation mixes itself with the most serious concerns and characters: happening to descry a flea upon the bosom of mademoiselle des Roches at the great assizes of Poitiers in 1588, he wrote some lines on the occasion, which set to work all the Latin and French poets in France, and produced a miscellany entitled, "*La Puce des Grands Jours de Poitiers.*" The most important of Pasquier's works is his "*Recherches sur la France,*" of which he himself published seven books, and three more were added after his death from his papers. The best edition is that of 1665, folio. His "*Letters,*" of which the best edition is that of du Chesne, in 5 vols. 8vo. 1619, are also full of curious anecdotes and remarks. His "*Catechisme des Jesuites,*" octavo, 1602, is a very severe and rather coarse attack upon the founders and principles of that author, against which he was ready to adopt the most exaggerated and improbable tales. It cannot be denied, however, that he entertained just ideas of the probable consequences of their political system. One of his unavowed writings was "*Exhortations aux Princes, &c. pour obvier aux Séditions qui semblerent nous menacer pour le Fait de la Religion,*" 8vo. 1552; the object of which is to prove the necessity of permitting the free exercise of both religions.

NICHOLAS, second son of Stephen Pasquier, a master of requests, left a volume of Letters, replete with historical anecdotes. *Gen. Biog.*

PASQUIL, PASQUIN, or PASQUINA'DE, *f.* [from *Pasquino*, a statue at Rome, to which they affix any lampoon or paper of satirical observation. See PASQUIN.] A lampoon.—The *pasquils*, lampoons, and libels, we meet with now-a-days, are a sort of playing with the four-and-twenty letters, without sense, truth, or wit. *Taller.*—The *pasquinade* was a witty one, but the event turned the point of it against the party by which it was made. *Lord Lyttleton on the Conv. of St. Paul.*

The Grecian wits who satire first began,
Were pleasant *pasquins* on the life of man. *Dryden.*

To PASQUIL, or PASQUIN, *v. a.* To lampoon.—They are grievously vexed with these *pasquilling* libels and satires. *Burton's Anat. of Mel.*—Not that any man desires to see himself *pasquined* and affronted. *Dryden's Ded. of the D. of Guise.*

PASQUILLER, *f.* A lampooner.—Adrian the sixth, pope, was so highly offended and grievously vexed with *pasquillers* at Rome, that he gave command that statue should be demolished. *Burton's Anat. of Mel.*—Any triebolary *pasquiller* is licensed to throw dirt in the faces of sovereign princes, in open printed language: but I hope the times will mend. *Howell's Letters.*

PASQUIN, a mutilated statue at Rome, in a corner of the

the palace of the Urfini. It takes its name from a cobbler of that city, called *Pasquin*, famous for his sneers and gibes, and who diverted himself by passing his jokes on all who went by his shop. He soon became famous; and, had he had time to *publish*, he would have been the Peter Pindar of his day. But his genius seems to have been satisfied to rest on his shop-board. Some time after his death there was found under the pavement of his shop the statue of an ancient gladiator, well cut, but maimed and half-spoiled; this they set up in the place where it was found, and by common consent inscribed it with his name. Since that time all satires are attributed to that figure; and are either put into its mouth, or pasted upon it, as if they were written by *Pasquin redivivus*; and these are addressed by *Pasquin* to *Marforio*, another statue at Rome. When *Marforio* is attacked, *Pasquin* comes to his assistance; and, when *Pasquin* is attacked, *Marforio* assists him in his turn; that is, the people make the statues speak just what they please.

MARFORIO'S is a statue that lies at its whole length, and in a different quarter of the city. It represents, according to some, the *Panarian Jove*; according to others, the river Rhine, or the Nar; but the origin of the name is not known. *Curiosities of Lit.* vol. i.

PASQUINA'DE, *f.* See PASQUIL.

To PASS, *v. n.* [*passer*, Fr. *passus*, a step, Lat. from the Heb. *pasahh*.] To go; to move from one place to another; to be progressive. Commonly with some particle.—If I have found favour in thy sight, *pass* not away from thy servant. *Gen.* xviii. 3.—While my glory *passeth* by, I will put thee in a cleft of the rock, and will cover thee while I *pass* by. *Exod.* xxxiii. 22.—Thus will I cut off him that *passeth* on, and him that returneth. *Ezek.* xxxv. 7.—This heap and this pillar be witness, that I will not *pass* over to thee, and that thou shalt not *pass* over it and this pillar unto me for harm. *Gen.* xxxi. 52.—An idea of motion not *passing* on, is not better than idea of motion at rest. *Locke*.—If the cause be visible, we stop at the instrument, and seldom *pass* on to him that directed it. *Wake's Prep. for Death*.

Tell him his long trouble is *passing*
Out of this world. *Shakespeare's Hen.* VIII.

Heedless of those cares, with anguish stung,
He felt their fleeces as they *pass'd* along. *Pope*.

To go forcibly; to make way:
Her face, her hands, were torn
With *passing* through the brakes. *Dryden*.

To make a change from one thing to another.—Others, dissatisfied with what they have, and not trusting to those innocent ways of getting more, fall to others, and *pass* from just to unjust. *Temple's Miscell.*—To vanish; to be lost.—He hath also stablished them for ever and ever; he hath made a decree which shall not *pass*. *Pf.* cxlviii. 6.

Trust not too much to that enchanting face;
Beauty's a charm, but soon the charm will *pass*. *Dryden*.

To be spent; to go away progressively.—We see, that one who fixes his thoughts very intently on one thing, so as to take but little notice of the succession of ideas that *pass* in his mind, whilst he is taken up with that earnest contemplation, lets slip out of his account a good part of that duration, and thinks that time shorter than it is. *Locke*.—To be at an end; to be over:

Their officious haste,
Who would before have borne him to the sky,
Like eager Romans, ere all rites were *pass'd*,
Did let too soon the sacred eagle fly. *Dryden*.

To die; to pass from the present life to another state:
The pangs of death do make him grin;
Disturb him not, let him *pass* peaceably. *Shakespeare*.

To be changed by regular gradation.—Inflammations are translated from other parts to the lungs; a pleurisy easily

passeth into a peripneumony. *Arbuthnot*.—To go beyond bounds. *Obsolete*.—Why this *passes*, Mr. Ford: you are not to go loose any longer; you must be pinioned. *Shakespeare*.—To be in any state.—I will cause you to *pass* under the rod, and I will bring you into the bond of the covenant. *Ezek.* xx. 37.—To be enacted.—Many of the nobility spoke in parliament against those things, which were most grateful to his majesty, and which still *passed* notwithstanding their contradiction. *Clarendon*.

Among the laws that *pass'd*, it was decreed,
That conquer'd Thebes from bondage should be freed.
Dryden.

To be effected; to exist. Unless this may be thought a noun with the article suppressed, and be explained thus: It came to the *pass*, that.—I have heard it enquired, how it might be brought to *pass* that the church should everywhere have able preachers to instruct the people. *Hooker*.—When the case required dissimulation, if they used it, it came to *pass*, that the former opinion of their good faith made them almost invisible. *Bacon's Ess.*—To gain reception; to become current: as, This money will not *pass*.—Though frauds may *pass* upon men, they are as open as the light to him that searches the heart. *L'Estrange*.—False eloquence *passeth* only where true is not understood, and nobody will commend bad writers that is acquainted with good. *Felton on the Classics*.—To be practised artfully or successfully:

This practice hath most shrewdly *pass'd* upon thee;
But, when we know the grounds and authors of it,
Thou shalt be both the plaintiff and the judge. *Shakespeare*.

To be regarded as good or ill.—He rejected the authority of councils, and so do all there formed; so that this won't *pass* for a fault in him, till 'tis proved one in us. *Atterbury*.—To occur; to be transacted.—If we would judge of the nature of spirits, we must have recourse to our own consciousness of what *passes* within our own mind. *Watts's Logic*.—To be done.—Zeal may be let loose in matters of direct duty, as in prayers, provided that no indirect act *pass* upon them to defile them. *Bp. Taylor's Rule of Living Holy*.—To heed; to regard. *Not in use*.

As for these silken-coated slaves, I *pass* not;
It is to you, good people, that I speak,
O'er whom, in time to come, I hope to reign. *Shakespeare*.

To determine finally; to judge capitally:
Though well we may not *pass* upon his life,
Without the form of justice; yet our pow'r
Shall do a courtesy to our wrath. *Shakespeare*.

To be supremely excellent:
Sir Hudibras's *passing* worth,
The manner how he fallied forth. *Hudibras*.

To thrust; to make a push in fencing.—To see thee fight,
to see thee *pass* thy puncto. *Shakespeare*.

They lash, they foin, they *pass*, they strive to bore
Their corsets. *Dryden*.

To omit to play:
Full piteous seems young Alma's case,
As in a luckless gamester's place,
She would not play, yet must not *pass*. *Prior*.

To go through the alimentary duct.—Substances hard cannot be dissolved, but they will *pass*; but such, whose tenacity exceeds the powers of digestion, will neither *pass* nor be converted into aliment. *Arbuthnot*.—To be in a tolerable state.—A middling sort of man was left well enough to *pass* by his father, but could never think he had enough, so long as any had more. *L'Estrange*.

To Pass away. To be lost; to glide off.—Defining the soul to be a substance that always thinks, can serve but to make many men suspect, that they have no souls at all, since they find a good part of their lives *passing* away without thinking. *Locke*.—To vanish.—The heavens shall *pass* away

away with a great noise, and the elements shall melt with fervent heat. 2 *Pet.* iii. 10.

To PASS, *v. a.* To go beyond.—As it is advantageable to a physician to be called to the cure of a declining disease; so it is for a commander to suppress a sedition which has *passed* the height: for in both the noxious humour doth first weaken, and afterwards waste to nothing. *Hayward.*—To go through: as, The horse *passed* the river.—To go through: in a legal sense.—Neither of these bills have yet *passed* the house of commons, and some think they may be rejected. *Swift.*—To spend; to live through.—We have examples of such *pass* most of their nights without dreaming. *Locke.*

The people, free from cares, serene and gay,
Pass all their mild untroubled hours away. *Addison.*

To impart to any thing the power of moving.—Dr. Thurston thinks the principal use of inspiration to be, to move or *pass* the blood from the right to the left ventricle of the heart. *Derham's Phys. Theol.*—To carry hastily.—I had only time to *pass* my eye over the medals, which are in great number. *Addison on Italy.*—To transfer to another proprietor, or into the hands of another.—And *passed* his business into other hands. *Doddridge's Fam. Expos.*

He that will *pass* his land,
As I have mine, may set his hand
And heart unto this deed, when he hath read;
And make the purchase spread. *Herbert.*

To strain; to percolate.—They speak of severing wine from water, *passing* it through ivy-wood. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—To vent; to pronounce.—How many thousands take upon them to *pass* their censures on the personal actions of others, and pronounce boldly on the affairs of the public. *Watts.*—To utter ceremoniously.—Many of the lords and some of the commons *passed* some compliments to the two lords. *Clarendon.*—To utter solemnly; or judicially.—All this makes it more prudent, rational, and pious, to search our own ways, than to *pass* sentence on other men. *Hammond.*—To transmit; to procure to go.—Waller *passed* over five thousand horse and foot by Newbridge. *Clarendon.*—To put an end to.—We'll *pass* the business privately and well. *Shakespeare.*—To surpass; to excel.—Whom dost thou *pass* in beauty? *Ezek.* xxxii. 19.

Martial, thou gav'st far nobler epigrams
To thy Domitian, than I can my James:
But in my royal subject I *pass* thee;
Thou flattered'st thine, mine cannot flatter'd be.
B. Jonson.

The ancestor and all his heirs,
Though they in number *pass* the stars of heav'n,
Are still but one. *Davies.*

To omit; to neglect; whether to do or to mention.—I *pass* their warlike pomp, their proud array. *Dryden.*

If you fondly *pass* our proffer'd offer,
'Tis not the rounder of your old fac'd walls
Can hide you. *Shakespeare's K. John.*

I *pass* the wars that spotted linxes make
With their fierce rivals. *Dryden.*

To transgress; to transgress.—They did *pass* those bounds, and did return since that time. *Burnet's Theory.*—To admit; to allow.—The money of every one that *passeth* the account, let the priests take. 2 *Kings*, xii. 4.

I'll *pass* them all upon account,
As if your natural self had don't. *Hudibras.*

To enact a law.—How does that man know, but the decree may be already *passed* against him, and his allowance of mercy spent? *South.*—Could the same parliament, which address'd with so much zeal and earnestness against this evil, *pass* it into a law? *Swift.*—To impose fraudulently:

The indulgent mother did her care employ,
And *pass'd* it on her husband for a boy. *Dryden.*

To practise artfully; to make succeed.—Five of my jests, then stol'n, *pass* him a play. *B. Jonson's Epigr.*—Time lays open frauds, and after that discovery there is no *passing* the same trick upon the mice. *L'Estrange.*—To send from one place to another: as, *Pass* that beggar to his own parish.

To PASS away. To spend; to waste.—The father waketh for the daughter, lest she *pass* away the flower of her age. *Eeelus.* xlii. 9.

To PASS by. To excuse; to forgive.—However God may *pass* by single sinners in this world; yet, when a nation combines against him, the wicked shall not go unpunished. *Tillotson.*—To neglect; to disregard.—Certain passages of scripture we cannot, without injury to truth, *pass* by here in silence. *Burnet's Theory.*

To PASS over. To omit; to let go unregarded.—It does not belong to this place to have that point debated, nor will it hinder our pursuit to *pass* it over in silence. *Watts.*

Better to *pass* him o'er, than to relate
The cause I have your mighty fire to hate. *Dryden.*

PASS, *f.* [from the verb.] A narrow entrance; an avenue.—The straight *pass* was damm'd with dead men. *Shakespeare's Cymbeline.*—Truth is a strong hold, fortified by God and nature, and diligence is properly the understanding's laying siege to it; so that it must be perpetually observing all the avenues and *passes* to it, and accordingly making its approaches. *South.*—Passage; road.—The Tyrians had no *pass* to the Red Sea, but through the territory of Solomon, and by his sufferance. *Ralegh.*

Pity tempts the *pass*;
But the tough metal of my heart resists. *Dryden.*

A permission to go or come any where: a passport.—A gentleman had a *pass* to go beyond the seas. *Clarendon.*

Give quiet *pass*
Through your dominions for this enterprize. *Shakespeare.*

An order by which vagrants or impotent persons are sent to their place of abode.—Push; thrust in fencing.—The king hath laid that, in a dozen *passes* between you and him, he shall not exceed you three hits. *Shakespeare.*

With seeming innocence the crowd beguil'd;
But made the desperat'st *passes* when he smil'd. *Dryden.*

State; condition.—I could see plate, hangings, and paintings, about my house, till you had the ordering of me; but I am now brought to such *pass*, that I can see nothing at all. *L'Estrange.*—Matters have been brought to this *pass*, that, if one among a man's sons had any blemish, he laid him aside for the ministry, and such an one was presently approved. *South.*

In my feare of hospitable Jove,
Thou did'st to this *pass* my affections move. *Chapman.*

PASS, in a military sense, a strait and difficult passage which shuts up the entrance into a country. A particular passage, or road, by which persons, especially armed bodies of men, may go from one country into another.—Of this description are the *passes* through the Pyrenees, which separate Spain from France. They are five in number; viz. First *pass* at Bayonne in France, which is always passable, leading to Fontarabia, in the Bay of Biscay. Second *pass* at Perpignan, a town of Roussillon in France, which is also passable at all times, leading through Bellegarde to Figueras in Catalonia. Third *pass*, passable from May to October, leading to Pampeluna, the capital of Navarre in Spain. Fourth *pass*, passable for muleteers only, leading through Verdun, a strong town of Armagnac, in France, to Jacca, or Xacca, and Saragossa, in Arragon. Fifth *pass*, very difficult and little used, leading through Venasque into Catalonia. It may, however, be said, that there are only two military *passes* of material consequence

consequence to both countries, viz. PERPIGNAN in France, on the side of the Mediterranean sea, leading to Figueras, Rosas, and Barcelona; and PAMPOLUNA, which is covered by Fontarabia, from Bayonne, on the Atlantic. *James's Mil. Dict.*

PASS, among miners, a kind of open trough, consisting of two or three bottom boards, and two side ones, set slopewise; through which the ore slides down into the coffer of the stamping-mill. *Chambers.*

PASSABLE, *adj.* [Fr. from *pass.*] Possible to be passed or travelled through or over.—His body is a *passable* carcass, if he be not hurt. It is a thoroughfare for steel. *Shakespeare's Cymbeline.*—Antiochus departed in all haste, weening in his pride to make the land navigable, and the sea *passable* by foot. 2 *Macc.*—Supportable; tolerable; allowable.—White and red, well mingled on the face, make what was before but *passable*, appear beautiful. *Dryden.*—Capable of admission or reception.—In counterfeits, it is with men as with false money; one piece is more or less *passable* than another. *L'Esrange.*—Popular; well received. *This is a sense less usual.*—Where there is no eminent odds in sufficiency, it is better to take with the more *passable*, than with the more able. *Bacon.*—A man of the one faction, which is most *passable* with the other, commonly giveth best way. *Bacon's Essays.*

PASSABLY, *adv.* Tolerably; moderately.—Other towns are *passably* rich, and stored with shipping; but not one very poor. *Howell.*

PASSACAGLIO, *f.* [Ital. *passacaille.* Fr.] A slow dance, resembling the chaconne; the only difference is, that it is generally somewhat slower, and more pathetic: on this account, the *passacaglii* are almost always composed in the minor key. *Brossard.*

PASSA'DO, *f.* [Italian.] A push; a thrust.—A duellist, a gentleman of the very first house; ah! the mortal *passado.* *Shakespeare's Rom. and Jul.*

PASSADUNKE'AG, a considerable branch of the river Penobscot.

PASS'AGE, *f.* [French.] Act of passing; travel; course; journey.—Live like those who look upon themselves as being only on their *passage* through this state, but as belonging to that which is to come. *Atterbury.*—Though the *passage* be troublesome, yet it is secure, and shall in a little time bring us ease and peace at the last. *Wake.*

In souls prepar'd, the *passage* is a breath
From time t' eternity, from life to death.

Harte.

Road; way.—Human actions are so uncertain, as that seemeth the best course, which hath most *passages* out of it. *Bacon.*—The land-enterprise of Panama was grounded upon a false account, that the *passages* towards it were no better fortified than Drake had left them. *Bacon.*

Is there yet no other way besides
These painful *passages*, how we may come
To death, and mix with our connatural dust. *Milton.*

The *passage* of a river is a ford or bridge. *Judg. xii. 16.* On land, a *passage* often signifies a narrow way between mountains, lakes, &c. such as the *passages* of Michmas and Abarim, that were rendered narrow by the hills or rocks on each side. 1 *Sam. xiii. 23. Jer. xxii. 20.*—The Persian army had advanced into the straight *passages* of Cilicia, by which means Alexander with his small army was able to fight and conquer them. *South.*—Entrance or exit: liberty to pass.—*Passage* (passagium) is properly over water, as *way* is over land. And thus, *passagio* is the name of a writ directed to the keepers of the ports to permit a man to pass over sea, who has the king's leave. *Jacob's Law Dict.*

You shall furnish me
With cloake, and coate, and make my *passage* free
For lov'd Dulichius. *Chapman.*

The state of decay. *Not in use.*

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Would some part of my young years

Might but redeem the *passage* of your age! *Shakespeare.*

Intellectual admittance; mental acceptance.—I would render this treatise intelligible to every rational man, however little versed in scholastic learning, among whom I expect it will have a fairer *passage* than among those deeply imbued with other principles. *Digby.*—Occurrence; hap:

It is no act of common *passage*, but
A strain of rareness.

Shakespeare.

Unsettled state; aptness by condition or nature to change the place of abode.—Traders in Ireland are but factors; the cause must be rather an ill opinion of security than of gain: the last entices the poorer traders, young beginners, or those of *passage*; but, without the first, the rich will never settle in the country. *Temple.*

In man the judgment shoots at flying game;
A bird of *passage*! lost as soon as found;
Now in the moon perhaps, now under ground. *Pope.*

Incident; transaction.—This business, as it is a very high *passage* of state, so it is worthy of serious consideration. *Hayward.*

Thou dost in thy *passages* of life
Make me believe that thou art only mark'd
For the hot vengeance of heav'n. *Shakespeare's Hen. IV.*

Management; conduct.—Upon consideration of the conduct and *passage* of affairs in former times, the state of England ought to be cleared of an imputation cast upon it. *Davies on Ireland.*—Part of a book; single place in a writing.—A critic who has no taste nor learning, seldom ventures to praise any *passage* in an author who has not been before received by the public. *Addison's Spect.* As to the cantos, all the *passages* are as fabulous as the vision at the beginning. *Pope.*

How commentators each dark *passage* shun,
And hold their farthing candle to the fun. *Young.*

A game at dice, to be played at but by two, and performed with three dice.—800l. a year; but let it pass, for *passage* carried away the most part of it, a plague of fortune. *The Hog hath lost his Pearl.*

PASSAGE, or *Right of Passage*, is an imposition, which some princes exact in certain narrow close places of their territories, either by land or sea, on all vessels and carriages, and even sometimes on persons as passengers coming in or going out of ports, &c. The *passage* of the Sound (that famous freight, which carries us out of the German into the Baltic sea) is the most celebrated *passage* in Europe. The dues thereof belong to the king of Denmark, and are paid at Elsinore or Cronenburg.

PASS'AGE, a town of South America, in the government of Tucuman, on a river of the same name: 116 miles north of St. Miguel de Tucuman.

PASS'AGE (Great), one of the Virgin islands, in the West Indies, about seven miles long, and two wide: twelve miles east of Porto Rico.

PASS'AGE (Little), one of the Virgin islands, near Great Passage Island.

PASS'AGE CANAL, an inlet in Prince William's Sound. Lat. 60. 48. N. lon. 212. 15. E.

PASSAGE FORT, a small town of Jamaica, situated in the road between Port Royal and Spanish Town, seven miles south-east of the latter, and at the mouth of the river Cobre, where it has a fort, with ten or twelve guns. It has a brisk trade, and contains about 400 houses, the greatest part of them houses of entertainment.

PASSAGE ISLAND, a small island at the entrance of a channel from the North Pacific Ocean, among the Philippine islands; about twenty miles east from the island of Leyta. Lat. 10. 44. N. lon. 125. 27. E.

PASSAGE ISLAND, a small low island in the gulf of Georgia, at the entrance into Howe's Sound. Lat. 49. 21. N. lon. 237. 3. E.

PASSAGE ISLANDS, two small islands among the Virgin-islands, in the West Indies, near the coast of Porto Rico.

PASSAGE POINT, a cape on the coast of Patagonia, in the Straits of Magellan. Lat. 15. 53. S. lon. 73. 40. W.

PASSAGE ROCK' (North), a rock in Prince William's Sound, about two miles and a half north-north-west from the north point of entrance into Port Chalmers, Montague's Island.

PASSAGE ROCK' (South), a rock in Prince William's Sound, half a mile west from the north point of entrance into Port Chalmers.

PASSAGES (Los), a seaport town of Spain, in Guipuscoa, with a good harbour, well sheltered by mountains, with sufficient depth of water for a fifty-gun ship: three miles east of St. Sebastian. Lat. 43. 10. N. lon. 2. W.

PASSA'IC, a river of America, which rises in New Jersey, and runs into Newark Bay four miles east-south-east of Newark; in lat. 40. 43. N. lon. 74. 8. W.

PASSA'IS, a town of France, in the department of the Orne: six miles south-west of Domfront.

PASSALORHYN'CHITES, in ecclesiastical history, a sect of Montanists, in the second century, who made profession of perpetual silence, and, the better to maintain it, kept the thumb continually upon the lips; founding their practice on that of the Psalmist, *Set a guard, O Lord, on my mouth*. St. Jerome mentions his having met with some of them in his time. *Chambers*.

PASSAMAN, a town on the west coast of the island of Sumatra, near the Equator.

PASSAMAQUODDY, a town and river of America, near which is the division-line between the British province of New Brunswick and the United States. The island of Campo Bello, in the North Atlantic Ocean, is at the middle or west passage of the bay, in lat. 44. 50. N. and lon. 66. 46. W. The distance from Cross-isle, Machias, to West Passamaquoddy-head, is nine leagues north-east by east; and from the head over the bar to Allen's isle, north-north-east two leagues. Three rivers fall into the bay; the largest of which is called by the Indians the *Seodich*, but by De Mons and Champlaine, *Etchemina*. Its main source is near Penobscot river; and the carrying-place between the two rivers is only three miles.

PASSAMEZZO, *f.* [from the Ital. *passer*, to walk, and *mezzo*, the middle.] A flow dance, differing little from the action of walking.—As a galliard consists of five paces, or bars, in the first strain, and is therefore called a *cinqüe pace*, the *passamezzo*, which is a diminutive of the galliard, has just half that number, and from that peculiarity takes its name. *Chambers*.

PASSANGAN, a town on the north coast of the island of Sumatra. Lat. 4. 45. N. lon. 97. 2. E.

PASS'ANT, *adj.* [French.] Cursory; careless.—What a severe judgment all our actions (even our *passant* words, and our secret thoughts) must hereafter undergo. *Barrow*.

PASSANT, in heraldry, a term applied to a lion or other animal in a shield, appearing to walk leisurely: for most beasts, except lions, *trippant* is frequently used instead of *passant*.

En PASSANT, *adv.* [French.] By the way; slightly; in haste. This affected term has long been in use among us.—Reflecting upon this Egyptian prayer, or apology rather, made in the name of the dead, we may *en passant* observe both a touch of pharisaical arrogance and self-justification. *Transl. of Plato's Apol. of Socrates, &c.* 1675.

PASSA'RA, a town of the island of Borneo, on the west coast: eighty miles south-west of Borneo.

PASSAR'GE, a river of Prussia, which runs into the Frisch Haff in lat. 54. 23. N. lon. 19. 42. E.

PASSAR'GOS (Los), a small island in the Grecian Archipelago, between the coast of Nátolia and the island of Scio. Lat. 38. 17. N. lon. 26. 14. E.

PASSA'RO, a town of Sicily, in the Val di Noto: thirty miles south of Syracuse, and thirteen south-west of Noto.

PASSARON', a town of the Morea: eighteen miles south of Argos.

PASSAROT'TI (Bartolomeo), an Italian engraver and painter, was born at Bologna in the year 1540, and died in the same city in 1592. Bartolomeo was the most eminent of the numerous family of artists of his name; and excelled both in historical subjects and portraits. Huber claims for him the honour of having been the founder of the celebrated Academy at Bologna, where the Carracci so much distinguished themselves. He was a painter of great merit, and Ph. Thomassin, C. Cort, Aug. Carracci, and many other artists, have engraved after his pictures. He likewise produced many etchings from his own designs, and from those of F. Salviati, and P. Perugino.

PASSAR'OWITZ, a town of European Turkey, in Servia, near the river Morava; well known for a peace concluded there, in the year 1718, between Charles VI. and Achmet III. thirty-three miles east-south-east of Belgrade, and forty-four west of Orsova.

PASSARU'AN, or PASSAROWAN, a town of the island of Java, and capital of a kingdom, situated on the north-coast: the chief trade is in cotton. The houses are neatly built; and the country appears to be well cultivated. The produce of this settlement is rice, of which they export large quantities. There are but few Dutch here; the Javanese are numerous, and their chief lives with considerable splendour. They have good roads, and posts are established along the coast; and it appears to be a busy and well-regulated settlement: thirty miles west of Panarucan. Lat. 7. 36. S.

PASSAU', a city of Germany, in the circle of Bavaria, and capital of a bishopric and principality of the same name, on the Danube, where it receives the Inn and the Ilz. It consists of three towns: namely, of that which is properly called *Passau*, and lies betwixt the rivers Danube and Inn; of the *Imstadt*, which stands on the other side of the Inn, being joined with the former by means of a bridge, and standing on the side of the ancient town of Boiodurum; and lastly of the *Ilzstadt*, which lies on the north side of the Danube, where it receives into it the Ilz. The last of these rivers runs betwixt the Ilzstadt and the mountain of St. George, on which stands the castle of Oberhaufz. From this fortress a bridge leads over the Danube into the road to Passau. The city, on those sides of it which are surrounded by the water, is without the walls, but towards the land-side of Bavaria is fortified both with ramparts and ditches.

Passau enjoys a very good situation for trade. It remained under the power of the Romans, till after the year 475, when it was taken by the Alemanni. After that it fell under the dominion of the Franks, and continued under the government of the dukes of Bavaria. In the year 999, the emperor Otho III. made it subject to the bishop. In 1552, the religious peace, which is usually called *The Treaty of Passau*, was concluded here soon after the advantage gained by Maurice elector of Saxony against the emperor Charles V. As this treaty is considered by the German Protestants as the basis of their liberty, it may not be improper to insert here some of its principal articles. By the three first it was stipulated, that Maurice and the confederates should lay down their arms, and should lend their troops to Ferdinand king of the Romans, the emperor's brother, to defend Germany against the Turks; and that the landgrave of Hesse should be set at liberty. By the fourth, it was agreed, that the rule of faith, called INTERIM, (see vol. xi. p. 166.) should be considered as null and void; that the contending parties should enjoy the free and undisturbed exercise of their religion, and a diet should be assembled, within six months, to determine all the present disputes; and that this religious liberty should continue always, if it should be found impossible to come to an uniformity in doctrine and worship. It was also resolved, that

that all those who had suffered banishment, or any other calamity, on account of their having been concerned in the league or war of Smalcald, should be reinstated in their privileges, possessions, and employments; that the Imperial Chamber of Spire should be open to Protestants as well as Catholics; and that there should be always a certain number of the Lutheran persuasion in that high court.

The bishop of Passau was formerly suffragan of Salzburg; but, from the year 1728, only dependent on the see of Rome. As a prince of the empire, his assent in the imperial matricula was 18 horse and 70 foot, or 528 florins; to the chamber at Wetzlar he paid 94 rix-dollars, 62½ kruitzers. In 1802, part of the bishopric beyond Iltz and the Inn, towards Austria, was given to the Grand Duke of Tuscany. It is eighty-two miles east-north-east of Munich, and 120 east of Vienna. Lat. 48. 34. N. lon. 13. E.

PASS'AVANT, a town of France, in the department of the Marne: six miles south of St. Menesould.

PASS'AVANT, a town of France, in the department of the Doubs: four miles south of Baume les Dames, and thirteen east-north-east of Besançon.

PASS'AVANT, a town of France, in the department of the Maine and Loire: six miles east-south-east of Vihiers, and fifteen south-west of Saumur.

PASSAVAN'TE (James), an Italian dominican monk, was descended from a noble family, and born at Florence, where he died in 1357. His name is celebrated in Italy, on account of his being the author of a treatise on genuine repentance, entitled, "Le Specchio della vera Penitenza," which was published for the first time in the year 1595, quarto. What entitles it to our notice is the circumstance, that the famous Academy de la Crusca directed an edition of it to be printed in 1681, which was its seventh impression, and received their *imprimatur* as a beautiful exemplar of chaste and elegant Italian style. In 1725, it was again reprinted at Florence, in quarto. *Gen. Biog.*

PASS'AWAY, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Jyengar: thirty miles east of Parasaoli.

PASSE, or DE PASSE, a family of Dutch engravers, of whom the elder came to England from Utrecht early in the seventeenth century, and introduced a better taste, and a neater and more elaborate style of engraving, than had hitherto been practised in England.

CRISPIN DE PASSE, the patriarch of the family, was a man of letters, studious, and of a liberal mind. Holland's Heroologia was embellished and published at his expense; and in the preface to a drawing-book, published by him at Amsterdam, in the year 1643, (after his departure from England,) he discovers some knowledge in geometry and perspective; gives directions for the proportions of the human body; for drawing in the academy by lamp-light, and for the use of the lay-figure in studying draperies; and details the proportions of horses, lions, and other quadrupeds, and of birds and fishes. In the same preface he says of himself, that he applied early to the study of the arts; and mentions Reubens, Bloemart, and other distinguished contemporary artists, as his friends and encouragers: but he appears also to have looked with advantage at the neater productions of the German school of engraving. The following is a tolerably just estimate of his powers as an artist, and is from the pen of the late Mr. Strutt. "Passe worked entirely with the graver, in a neat clear style, which has much originality; and, excepting some little stiffness which frequently appears, and the want of harmony with respect to the distribution of the light and shadow, (a fault which prevailed at the time in which he lived,) his best works possess a very considerable share of merit, especially his portraits, many of which he drew from the life; and the far greater part of his historical and emblematical subjects are engraved from his own compositions. He drew the human figure very correctly, and marked the

extremities with a degree of exactness not usually found in the works of those masters who employed themselves upon small subjects.

Crispin, the eldest son, produced but few prints; and hence it has been supposed that he either died young, or quitted the profession of engraving. The principal of these are the portraits of Frederic elector palatine, and Johannes Angelius Werdenhagen, both from his own drawings; but the date of the latter, 1630, shows that he lived at least to the age of thirty years; and three plates from the History of Lazarus. A fourth plate from this history, which completes the set, was engraven by De Passe the elder.

The works of *William*, the second son, who resided chiefly in London, were somewhat more abundant, but consist chiefly of portraits; among which are those of Robert Dudley earl of Leicester; Robert Devereux earl of Essex, and George Villiers duke of Buckingham, both on horseback; and Frances, duchess of Richmond, &c. all of quarto dimensions. King James I. with his family, inscribed "Triumphus Jacobi Regis Augustæ qui ipsius scrolis;" James I. with prince Henry of Wales, &c. folio. A set of the Five Senses, with each a Latin verse, in quarto; a family of gypsies, dated 1621, in folio; and a family-piece, supposed to be that of the palatine, where the youngest child is represented playing with a rabbit, folio size.

Simon, the youngest of the sons of Crispin, resided also for some time in England, where he was employed by Hilliard, who was the Reynolds of his day, and for whom he engraved the portraits of most of the royal family of England. He was afterwards employed by the king of Denmark, and probably died at Copenhagen. The latest of his works executed in England are dated 1613. They chiefly consist of portraits, with some few devotional subjects and book-ornaments.

The works of *Magdalen*, the first female engraver we read of who practised the art in England, are not equal to the best of those of her brethren. In three plates from Ovid's Metamorphoses, which she has engraved after pictures by Elsheimer, she has judiciously imitated the style of Goudt; but has not produced the same forcible effect, nor attained the same exquisite degree of finish. Lists of the numerous portraits and other engravings by his family, may be seen in Lord Orford's Catalogue, and Mr. Strutt's Dictionary of Engravers; and in the royal library at Paris, before the revolution, was a collection of their works in two or three large volumes. The monograms of William, Simon, and Magdalen, de Passe, will be found on the preceding Plate.

PASSE-PAR-TOUT, *f.* [French.] A master-key; a key that opens several locks.

PASSE-VOLANT, *f.* [Fr. from *passer*, to pass, and *volant*, flying.] A man that is not really in the service, but who stands to be mustered for the purpose of completing the *supposed* number of effectives in a regiment, or on-board a ship of war. They are likewise called *faggots*.

Passe-volans likewise mean those wooden pieces of ordnance which are made to resemble real artillery, and fill up the vacant places in a ship. These were first adopted by the French, in consequence of a regulation which was made by M. de Pontchartrain, when he became minister of the marine department. He gave orders that no vessels, except such as carried 16 guns, should sail to and from America: in order to comply, at least in outward appearance, with this regulation, the merchants had recourse to *passe-volans*, or wooden guns; this invention has been adopted by other nations, for the purpose of deceiving an enemy as to the strength and probable resistance of small ships of war, privateers, &c.

PASSEHENDAELE, a town of the kingdom of the Netherlands, in the province of West Flanders. Before the peace of 1815, it was a town of France, in the department of the Lys, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Ypres. The place contains 2664 inhabitants.

PASSEMAN'T,

PASSEMANT (Claude Simeon), an able French optician and mathematical instrument-maker, was born at Paris in the year 1702. As his parents were not endowed with the gifts of fortune, he found it necessary to support himself by his own industry, and wrote for some time in an attorney's office. Afterwards he served as clerk to a woollen-draper; and then carried on the business of a haberdasher on his own account. Having married, he committed the care of his shop to his wife, and directed his attention to the study of natural philosophy, optics, and astronomy, which he had cultivated from his youth at his leisure hours; and he also devoted much of his time to the construction and improvement of mathematical instruments, for which a strong mechanical turn well qualified him. In 1738, he published "A Treatise on the Construction of *reflecting* Telescopes, from sixteen Inches to six Feet and a Half in Length," the largest of which were equal in power to such *refracting* instruments as were then known, supposing them to be carried to the length of an hundred and fifty feet. Some time afterwards he published, "The Description and Use of Telescopes, Microscopes, &c." of his own invention. He constructed an astronomical pendulum, crowned with a moving sphere, which represented the revolutions of the planets in a manner that exactly corresponded with the astronomical tables. This machine was presented to Louis XV. and was formerly to be seen in the royal apartments at Versailles. He made a similar instrument for the Turkish emperor, which showed the rising and setting of the sun and moon. He also furnished the king of France with sets of instruments for making experiments in optics, and other branches of science; a burning mirror of 45 inches diameter, which melted silver in three seconds; time-pieces, &c. This able artist died suddenly in 1769, about the age of sixty-two, equally respected for his integrity and amiable character as for his talents. *Gen. Biog.*

PASSENBERG. See **PASZBERG.**

PASSENGER, *f.* [*passager*, Fr.] A traveller; one who is upon the road; a wayfarer.—Apelles, when he had finished any work, exposed it to the sight of all *passengers*, and concealed himself to hear the censure of his faults. *Dryden's Dufresnoy.*

The nodding horror of whose shady brows
Threats the forlorn and wandering *passenger*. *Milton.*

One who hires in any vehicle the liberty of travelling.—The diligent pilot in a dangerous tempest doth attend the unskilful words of a *passenger*. *Sidney.*

PASSENHAM, a village in Northamptonshire, one mile south-west of Stoney Stratford in Buckinghamshire. This is said to be the place where king Edgar placed a garrison to guard the passage over the Ouse against the Danes from Northampton.

PASSER, a river of the Tyrolese, which runs into the Adige near Meran.

PASSER, *f.* One who passes; one that is upon the road.—Under you ride the home and foreign shipping in so near a distance, that, without troubling the *passer* or borrowing Stentor's voice, you may confer with any in the town. *Carew.*

Then, like a matron, butcher'd by her sons,
And cast beside some common way a spectacle
Of horror and affright to *passers* by,
Our groaning country bled at every vein. *Rowe.*

PASSERA'T (John), an ancient French poet and man of letters, was born in 1534 at Troyes in Champagne. After studying law at Bourges under Cujas, he repaired to Paris, and taught the belles-lettres in the colleges of the university. In 1572 he succeeded Peter Ramus as professor-royal of eloquence. His lectures were much frequented by the most cultivated persons in the capital, and he received marks of esteem from Charles IX. and Henry III. The disorders of the League caused him to

shut up his school, till the entry of Henry IV. into Paris in 1594. Being at Espernay when that place was besieged by the prince of Condé, who threatened to put the inhabitants to the sword, he was deputed by them to that prince, who pardoned them at his request. He had the misfortune to lose an eye from the stroke of a tennis-ball, and this accident aggravated the naturally severe and gloomy expression of his countenance; but nothing could be more amiable than his temper, or gayer than his conversation. He was particularly patronized by Henry de Mesmes, who gave him an apartment in his house, which he occupied for thirty years. He was extremely ardent in study, and often passed days together without a regular meal. This excess of application brought on a paralytic disorder, under which he sunk in 1602, at the age of sixty-eight.

This author is principally known by his Latin and French verses. The Latin are chiefly distinguished by their purity and facility, and by the elegant turn which he gives to common thoughts. His French poems, published in 1606, octavo, consist chiefly of short pieces, which, notwithstanding the language is antiquated, are still read with pleasure on account of their ingenious thoughts and simple graces. His metamorphosis of a man into a bird is particularly admired, and served as a model to la Fontaine in his tales. He joined Rapin in composing the verses of the Satire Menippée, against the Leaguers. He also wrote, 3. *De Cognatione Litterarum*, 1606, 8vo. a work on ancient orthography. 4. *Orationes et Præfationes*, 1606, 1637, 8vo. 5. *Commentaries on Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius*. 6. A Translation of the *Bibliotheca of Apollodorus*. *Moreri.*

PASSE'RES, *f.* [from *passer*, Lat. a sparrow.] The name of the sixth and last order of birds. See the article **ORNITHOLOGY**, vol. xvii. p. 766.

PASSE'RI (Giambatista), an eminent antiquarian, was born at Farnese in 1694. He was destined to the profession of the law; but his inclination led him to the study of antiquities, which he pursued with assiduity during a four-years' residence at Rome. Returning thence to Todi, where his father practised physic, he collected the monuments of antiquity in that place and its vicinity. In 1726 he turned his attention to Etruscan antiquities, and collected a great number of lamps, which he arranged in classes. In 1738, having lost his wife, he entered into the ecclesiastical order, and obtained the office of vicar-general of Pesaro, which he exercised for many years with zeal and fidelity. His death, in 1780, was occasioned by a fall from his carriage. He was the author of a great number of works, among which are the following: 1. *Lucernæ fictiles Musæi Passerii*, 3 vols. a description of the earthen lamps in his collection. 2. A Discourse on the History of the Fossils of the District of Pesaro. 3. *Picturæ Etruscorum in Vasculis, in unum collectæ, Dissertationibus illustratæ*, 3 vols. He wrote a great number of learned dissertations in the different journals of Italy. At the time of his death, the first volume of an extensive work of his, entitled "Thesaurus Gemmarum Selectissimarum," was printing at Rome. *Gen. Biog.*

PASSERINA, *f.* [from *passer*, a sparrow; a name which has been applied to some plants, on account of the resemblance of their leaves to the tongue of a small bird. But Linnæus, who has chosen this appellation for the genus that now bears it, cites Plukenet for saying it is so called because the fruit represents the head of a little bird with its beak; see Linn. Hort. Cliff. 146. The resemblance is not very striking; but the name is preferable to that given by Clusius to the same genus, *Sanamunda*, supposed to be derived from *sano*, to heal, and *munda*, clean; though he adopted it from the Moors of Grenada, who were accustomed to use some of this tribe as a purge.] **SPARROW-WORT**; in botany, a genus of the class octandria, order monogynia, natural order of vercueulæ, (thymelææ, *Juss.*) Generic characters—Calyx: none. Corolla: one-petalled, shrivelling; tube cylindrical,

cal, slender, ventricose below the middle; border four-cleft, spreading: segments concave, ovate, blunt. Stamina: filaments eight, bristle-shaped, the length of the border, placed upon the point of the tube; antheræ subovate, erect. Pistillum: germen ovate, within the tube of the corolla; style filiform, springing from the side of the very point of the germ, the same length with the tube of the corolla. Stigma capitate, hispid all over with villose hairs. Pericarpium: coriaceous, ovate, one-celled. Seed: single, ovate, acuminate at both ends, with the points oblique.—*Essential Character.* Calyx none; corolla four-cleft; stamina placed on the tube; seed one, corticate.

1. *Passerina filiformis*, or filiform sparrow-wort: leaves linear, convex, imbricate in four rows, (three-cornered, acute;) branches tomentose, (flowers racemed. *Thunberg.*) This rises with a shrubby stalk five or six feet high, sending out branches the whole length, which, when young, grow erect, but, as they advance in length, they incline towards a horizontal position, but more so when the small shoots at the end are full of flowers and seed-vessels. The branches are covered with a white down like meal, and are closely beset with very narrow leaves in four rows, so that the young branches seem as if they were four-cornered. The flowers come out at the extremity of the young branches, from between the leaves on every side; they are small and white, so that they make no great appearance. The seed-vessels are small, and seem withered and dry. The tube of the corolla is the length of the germen. The floral leaves have a wide membranaceous rim at the base, which is not the case in the rest. It is a native of the Cape of Good Hope, whence it was first brought to the gardens in Holland. Mr. Miller cultivated it here in 1752. It flowers from June to August.

2. *Passerina hirsuta*, or shaggy sparrow-wort: leaves fleshy, smooth on the outside; stems tomentose. This has shrubby stalks, which rise to a greater height than the former; the branches grow more diffused, and are covered with a mealy down. Leaves imbricate, short, thick, succulent, smooth and green on the outside, but downy on the inner. Flowers small and white, like those of the former, and appearing about the same time. Native of Spain and Portugal, Provence, Italy, and the Levant.

3. *Passerina ericoides*, or heath-like sparrow-wort: leaves linear even subimbricate, corollas globular. This has so entirely the appearance of an *Erica*, that, at first sight, no one would doubt of its being one. It has the stature of the first species. The branchlets are pubescent. The leaves short (like those of *Erica*), ovate-oblong, fleshy, opposite, the floriferous one subcordate. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

4. *Passerina capitata*, or headed sparrow-wort: leaves linear, smooth, heads peduncled, tomentose. Leaves scattered. Heads terminating, globular. Flowers many, white, sessile without a tube. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

5. *Passerina ciliata*, or fringed sparrow-wort: leaves lanceolate, ciliate; branches naked, flowers sub-solitary. This has a shrubby stalk, rising five or six feet high, sending out many branches which are naked to their ends, where they have oblong leaves, standing erect, and having hairy points. The flowers are small, and come out among the leaves at the end of the branches; Linnæus remarks, that the flowers are purple, with the throat villose. Native of the Cape of Good Hope, not of Europe. The history of this species is extremely confused, as the late Mr. Dryander has shown in the *Linn. Trans.* ii. 234. that excellent botanist and critic having been able to prove rather what it was not than what it was. The plant described in Hort. Cliff. is merely *Struthiola virgata*, with which it seems three others are confounded in the Cliffortian collection. The Herbarium of Linnæus has no specimen. We can, therefore, only depend on Burmann's synonym, which Linnæus uni-

formly cited, and which he has marked in his copy of Burmann's book. Of this the young branches are square. We cannot learn why Willdenow defines the stem as villose. The leaves are sessile, opposite, crossing each other in pairs, ovato-lanceolate, acute, entire, many-ribbed, half an inch, or more, in length, smooth, except a dense silky marginal fringe. Flowers solitary, with a slender tube, about twice the length of the leaf. Burmann's figure has all the appearance of a *Gnidium*. The representation on the preceding Engraving, fig. 2, is from Seba.

6. *Passerina uniflora*, or one-flowered sparrow-wort: leaves linear, opposite, (lanceolate even;) flowers terminating, solitary; branches smooth. This has a shrubby stalk, seldom rising more than a foot high, dividing into many branches, which are slender, smooth, and spread out on every side. Leaves dark-green, having the appearance of those of the fir-tree, but narrower. The flowers are larger than those of the former, and the upper part of the petals is spread open flat; they are of a purple colour, and appear about the same time as the former. There are eight stamens at the throat of the corolla, and eight rudiments of antheræ lie concealed at the bottom. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

7. *Passerina anthyllodes*, or hairy-headed sparrow-wort: leaves oblong, villose; flowers in heads. 8. *Passerina spicata*, or spiked sparrow-wort: leaves ovate, villose; flowers lateral sessile. 9. *Passerina laxa*, or loose-branched sparrow-wort: leaves ovate hairy, flowers in heads, branches loose. These were found at the Cape of Good Hope by Thunberg.

10. *Passerina grandiflora*, or great-flowered sparrow-wort: very smooth, leaves oblong acute, concave, wrinkled on the outside, flowers terminating sessile solitary. Native of Africa. Recently introduced, says Mr. Curtis, from the Cape. It flowered in 1794, at Mess. Lee and Kennedy's, and forms a small neat shrub, like *Phyllica ericoides*.

11. *Passerina Gnidia*: two-stamened, very smooth; leaves lanceolate acute. The leaves are more rigid, and very like those of the *Gnidia*. Native of New Zealand, in the fissures of rocks, by the sea-coast, and at the tops of mountains.

12. *Passerina pilosa*, or hairy sparrow-wort: two-stamened, hairy; leaves linear, blunt. Native of New Zealand.

13. *Passerina prostrata*, or prostrate sparrow-wort: two-stamened, hairy; leaves ovate. Native of New Zealand, on dry mountains. These diandrous *Passerinas* have the smell of *Syringa* flowers, and are evergreen. They are not separated from their natural genus, though the number of stamens be less. The *Struthiolæ* might have been referred to this genus, had it not been for the nectaries. *Daphne* also agrees with *Passerina*.

14. *Passerina cephalophora*, or great-headed sparrow-wort: leaves three-cornered, in four rows; heads woolly.

15. *Passerina linoides*, or flax-like sparrow-wort: leaves linear-lanceolate, smooth, three-ribbed; flowers terminating, solitary. 16. *Passerina nervosa*, or ribbed sparrow-wort: leaves lanceolate, smooth, three-ribbed; flowers in heads. 17. *Passerina fetosa*, or bristly sparrow-wort: leaves lanceolate, smooth, five-nerved; flowers in heads, bristly on the outside. 18. *Passerina stricta*, or rigid sparrow-wort: leaves ovate-hirsute, flowers in heads, branches rigid. 19. *Passerina pentandra* or pentandrous sparrow-wort: leaves ovate-hirsute, spike ovate terminating. Natives of the Cape of Good Hope, where they were found by Thunberg.

Propagation and Culture. These shrubs from the Cape of Good Hope may be increased by cuttings during the summer months, planted in a bed of loamy earth, and closely covered with a bell or hand glass to exclude the air, shading them from the sun, and refreshing them now and then with water. They will take root in about two months, when they may be planted each in a small pot

filled with loamy earth; placing them in the shade till they have taken new root: then remove them into a sheltered situation, there to remain till October, when they must be placed in the green-house, and treated as myrtles. Those also which produce seeds, or when they can be procured, may also be propagated that way. Sow them in autumn, soon after they are ripe, in small pots filled with light earth, plunged into an old bark-bed, under a common frame in winter. The plants will come up in the spring, and may be treated like the cuttings; but the seedling plants will grow more erect, and make a handfomer appearance. The second sort will live abroad in common winters, in a dry soil and warm situation; but in hard frosts, the plants are frequently destroyed; one or two, therefore, should be kept in pots, and sheltered in winter. See GNIDIA, LACHNEA, LINUM, STELLERA, and STRUTHIOLE.

PASSERO, or PASSERI (Bernardino), an Italian artist, was born at Rome some time about the year 1542, and resided there most part of his life. In painting he possessed some talent, and appears to have imitated the Zuccheri; but the attitudes of his figures are, to a certain degree, forced and uneasy. In the Abecedario he is called an universal engraver, but for what reason is not known, unless it means, that he occasionally practised all the branches of that art which were then in vogue. It is certain that he has engraved a considerable number of prints, which, in general, he first etched, and afterwards finished with the graver, in a bold, easy, and loose style. His works prove him to have been a man of ability; but his drawing is not always correct, nor are the characters of his heads always beautiful, or well chosen. The following are the names of a few of his works, which are by no means uncommon: A Holy Family, where the Virgin is represented with a Bohemian bonnet, dated 1583, in 4to. The Life of St. Bruno, represented on several middling-sized upright plates, in 4to. and a considerable number of Holy Families, Madonnas, and other pious subjects.

PASSERO'E, a river of Prussia, which runs into the Frisch Haff a little below Braunberg.

PASSER'G, a town of Prussia, in the province of Nantangen, on the Frisch Haff: twenty-two miles south-west of Brandenburg.

PASSER'G, a river of Prussia. See PASSARGE.

PASSERON ISLANDS, a cluster of small islands, in the Indian Sea, near the coast of Africa. Lat. 11. 10. S.

PASSEROT'TI (Bartolomeo), an artist of Bologna, was a pupil of Zuccari, and a very ingenious painter; one of whose works (a picture of Tityus) was mistaken by the connoisseurs of Bologna for a painting of Michael Angelo; and whose portraits were thought by Guido to have nearly approached those of Titian. He was a skilful draftsman; and aided in forming the Carracci, particularly Agostino, who made his lines in his penned drawings the guide of his graver. He composed a book on anatomy and symmetry; but was not always guided by his own directions; allowing his better talents to bend to facility of execution, and looseness of manner.

PASSIBILITY, *f.* [*passibilité*, Fr. from *passible*.] Quality of receiving impressions from external agents.—The last doubt, touching the *passibility* of the matter of the heavens, is drawn from the eclipses of the sun and moon. *Hakewill on Providence.*

PASSIBLE, *adj.* [Fr. from *passibilis*, Lat.] Susceptive of impressions from external agents.—Theodoret disputeth with great earnestness, that God cannot be said to suffer; but he thereby meaneth Christ's divine nature, against Apollinarius, which held even Deity itself *passible*. *Hooker.*

PASSIBLENESS, *f.* Quality of receiving impressions from external agents.—It drew after it the heresy of the *passibleness* of the Deity; the deity of Christ was become, in their conceits, the same nature with the humanity that was *passible*. *Brerewood.*

PASSIDAGPOUR, a town of Hindoostan, in Oude: twenty-four miles north of Manickpour.

PASSIFLO'RA, *f.* [a name altered by Linnæus from the *Flos Passionis* of preceding authors. This was applied to the beautiful genus in question, known universally at present by the appellation of passion-flowers, because the instruments of Christ's passion were thought to be represented in the parts of fructification: the five stamens were compared to his five wounds; the three styles, more aptly, to the nails by which he was fixed to the cross; the column which elevates the germen to the cross itself, or to the pillar to which he was bound; and the rays of the nectary to his crown of thorns.] In botany, a genus of the class gynandria, order pentandria, Linn. (pentandria trigynia, Schreb. *Thumb. &c.* monadelphia pentandria, Swartz, *Willd. Cavan.*) natural order of cucurbitaceæ. Generic characters—Calyx: perianthium five-parted, flat, coloured. Corolla: petals five, femilanceolate, flat, blunt, of the same size and form with the calyx. Nectary: a triple crown; the outer longer, encircling the style within the petals, more contracted above. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, fastened to a column at the base of the germ, and united at bottom, spreading. Antheræ incumbent, oblong, blunt. Pistillum: germen roundish, placed on the apex of a straight cylindrical column. Styles three, thicker above, spreading; stigmas capitate. Pericarpium: berry fleshy, subovate, one-celled, pedicelled. Seeds: very many, ovate, arilled. Receptacle of the seeds triple, growing longitudinally to the rind of the pericarp.—*Essential Character.* Styles three; calyx five-leaved; petals five; nectary a crown; berry pedicelled.

The species of this genus are numerous. Linnæus, in his dissertation de *Passiflorâ*, published in 1745, and reprinted in the first vol. of his *Amœnitates*, describes 22, with imperfect indications of 18 more. The leaves of those twenty-two, on which the specific differences chiefly depend, are there very neatly engraved. Twenty-six species are given in Sp. Pl. ed. 2. and 28 only in the 14th edition of Syst. Veg. Lamarck, in his Dictionary, (Grenadille,) has 35. Cavanilles in his tenth dissertation describes 44, of which 31 are there figured. Willdenow has 46. We have now 58.

These beautiful plants were unknown till the discovery of America; and it is remarkable that every described species is exclusively of South-American or West-Indian origin, except two found in Virginia and Florida, one in the remote counties of New Caledonia and Norfolk-island, and one in Cochinchina. The whole are disposed in four sections, by the forms of their leaves.

I. Leaves undivided.

1. *Passiflora ferratifolia*, or notch-leaved passion-flower: leaves ovate ferrate. This is a perennial shrubby species; the stems are round; the younger ones very slightly villous, and climbing very high: the footstalks of the leaves are furnished with two pair of glandules: the leaves are ovate, smooth, and slightly ferrated round their whole outline: the peduncles are one-flowered and solitary. The calyx is outwardly green, inwardly whitish; petals pale purple; the filaments of the nectary deep purple at their base, from thence bluish, and at length pale; antheræ yellow; stigmas greenish. The flowers have an extremely agreeable odour. Mr. Miller has wholly omitted this species in his descriptions, though he has inserted it in his list of species. Native of the West Indies. Introduced in 1731, by William Houstoun, M. D. It flowers from May to October.

2. *Passiflora pallida*, or pale passion-flower: leaves ovate quite entire, petioles biglandular. Stem perennial, long, round, branching, climbing by solitary tendrils. Leaves smooth, opposite. Flowers pale, large, axillary, two together: corolla five-petalled, flat, with a crown; berry egg-shaped, small. Native of Brasil, the island of Dominica, and Cochinchina.

3. *Passiflora*



Copper-coloured Passion-flower.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1801.

3. *Passiflora cuprea*, or copper-coloured passion-flower: leaves ovate, commonly quite entire; petioles equal. This has slender three-cornered stalks, which send out tendrils at each joint, fastening themselves to any neighbouring support by them, and climbing to the height of twelve or fourteen feet. Leaves about two inches long, and one inch wide, of a light green colour; on slender petioles, an inch in length, from which arise three longitudinal veins, one running through the middle of the leaf, the other two diverging to the sides, but drawing towards each other again at the point. Flowers axillary, on slender peduncles, an inch long: calyx composed of five oblong narrow purplish leaves; within which are five narrower petals of the same colour, turning back after they have been some time expanded. The column in the middle of the flower is very long and slender, supporting a round germ, from the base of which spread out five slender stamens. Fruit oval, about the size of a sparrow's egg, changing to a purple colour when ripe; and filled with oblong seeds inclosed in a soft pulp.

Linnaeus remarks, that the leaves are ovate, but the older ones subcordate; that the young ones are scarce apparently ferrate; and that the glands on the petioles are hardly visible. According to Dillenius, the stem attained the height of three cubits in three years from the seed, with few branches. Leaves close, rigid, smooth, deep green above, somewhat paler underneath. Petals of an obsolete purple colour, or such as is seen on polished copper; whence the trivial name. Crown very small; rays short, rigid, smooth, saffron-coloured, very dark violet and shining at the base, not spreading out but converging, and in the centre a cavity full of clear honey-juce; styles purple, green at the end; filaments also purple. The flowers open in the evening, and last a day or two; but have no smell. It grows naturally in the Bahama islands, whence Mr. Catesby sent the seeds to England. The annexed Plate is copied from him.

4. *Passiflora tiliaefolia*, or lime-leaved passion-flower: leaves cordate, quite entire, petioles equal. With a perennial root, and a climbing stem of about a finger's thickness. Flowers red; the nectaries red with a white ring; the fruit globose, and variegated with red and yellow, and having a sweet pulp. Native of South America, about Lima; found there by Feuillée.

5. *Passiflora maliformis*, or apple-fruited passion-flower: leaves cordate-oblong, quite entire; petioles biglandular, involucre quite entire. Stem thick, triangular, by slender tendrils thrown out at every joint, rising to the height of fifteen or twenty feet: at each joint is one leaf, six inches long, and four broad in the middle, of a lively green, and thin texture, having a strong mid-rib, whence arise several small nerves, diverging to the sides, and curving up towards the top. The cover of the flower is composed of three soft velvety leaves, of a pale red, with some stripes of a lively red colour; the petals are white, and the rays are blue. The flowers being large make a fine appearance, but they are of short duration; there is however a succession on them for some time. Fruit roundish, the size of a large apple, yellow when ripe, having a thicker rind than any of the other sorts; inclosing a sweetish pulp, in which are lodged many oblong black seeds, of a brownish colour, a little rough to the touch. It grows naturally in the West Indies, where the inhabitants call it *Granadilla*. The fruit is served up there in deserts. Linnaeus says it is a native of Dominica and Tortuga. In the Kew Catalogue it is said to be a native of Dominica; and to have been cultivated by Mr. Miller in 1731.

6. *Passiflora quadrangularis*, or square-stalked passion-flower: leaves oval, subcordate, smooth, many-nerved; petioles glandular; stem membranaceous four-cornered, stipules oval-oblong. Stem almost simple, thick, membranaceous at the four corners, somewhat hispid. Leaves petioled, five or six inches long, entire, somewhat rugged, but without any pubescence. Flowers very large, en-

compassed by a three-leaved involucre, the leaves of which are roundish, concave, entire, smooth, pale; petals red within, white on the outside; styles purple; stigmas black, bifid within. Fruit shaped like an egg, shining, greenish-yellow, larger than a goose's egg, smelling sweet, having a soft spongy rind, a finger in thickness, brittle, whitish, insipid: the pulp succulent; of a watery colour, and sweetish smell, and very pleasant taste, sweet and gently acid, contained in a membrane or bag, which may be easily separated from the rind. Native of Jamaica and other islands of the West Indies, in woods. Jacquin says he did not find it wild any-where, but in gardens every-where; to the ornament of which it contributes very much, by forming large and very close arbours in a few months. It is attended however with this inconvenience, that these arbours serve to shelter venomous serpents, which lurk there to seize on little animals that come for the fruit, of which they are very fond. The fruit is brought to table whole, and is much esteemed; and the pulp taken out of the rind, with or without the seeds, first put into wine. The French call it *granadille*; and Browne, the *granadilla vine*.

β. Jacquin has a variety, which he names *P. sulcata*. It perfectly resembles the *quadrangularis*, except in the size and form of the fruit, which is roundish, frequently larger than a child's head, and marked with a circular transverse groove, deep enough to lay a finger in. It grows on Terra Firma. *P. quadrangularis* was cultivated by Mr. Miller in 1768, and flowers in our stoves in August and September.

7. *Passiflora alata*, or wing-stalked passion-flower: leaves ovate subcordate, even, few-nerved; petioles glandular; stem membranaceous, four-cornered; stipules lanceolate ferrate. This is very like the preceding, but smaller in every part; generally with four glands only on the footstalks; not more than five or six curved transverse ribs on each side of the principal one. The flowers are very agreeably and powerfully fragrant; the upper sides of the petals and calyx of a peculiar deep scarlet red; the rays erect, as long as the petals, variegated with purple, white, and crimson, incurved at the points. No fruit has ever been produced in England. The plant is propagated by cuttings, and is a great ornament to a stove. We must observe that the flower-stalks, cylindrical when fresh, become triangular in drying. It is a native of the West Indies, and according to the Kew Catalogue, was introduced in 1772, by Mr. William Malcolm. There is a plant of this species in the hot-house of the botanic garden at Hull, in full bloom; (Sept. 1821.) Our representation, Plate II. fig. 1. is from Curtis's Botanical Magazine.

8. *Passiflora laurifolia*, laurel-leaved passion-flower, or water-lemon: leaves ovate, quite entire; petioles biglandular, involucre toothed. Stem suffrutescent, with very divaricating filiform branches. Jacquin describes it as a woody plant, smooth all over; the younger branches round and green. Leaves some acute, others obtuse, shining, flat. Peduncles solitary. Flowers very handsome and odoriferous. Leaflets ovate, acute, greenish, either quite entire, or having a few teeth; calyxine leaflets pale green on the outside, variegated pale and flesh-colour within; petals rose-coloured within, pale without; crown elegantly variegated transversely with white, purple, and violet. Fruit three inches long, with a coriaceous, yellow, soft, tough rind, containing a watery sweet tasteful juice, having a peculiar fine smell. In the West Indies they suck this pleasant juice through a hole in the fruit. The French call it *pommes de liane*, and the English *honey-suckle*. Browne says it is cultivated in many parts of America for the sake of its fruit, which is very delicate, and much esteemed by most palates; it is about the size of a hen's egg, and full of a very agreeable gelatinous pulp. He calls his fourth species *water-lemon*; and informs us that it is a native of Jamaica, frequent in the woods, and supplying the wild hogs

hogs with a great part of their food in the season. Jacquin says it grows every-where in the island of Martinico; Merian (who has figured it beautifully), in Surinam; it is pretty general in the West Indies. Mr. Bentick introduced it here in 1690. It flowers in June and July. This and the two preceding are particularly described and figured in the Linn. Trans. vol. ii.

9. *Passiflora coccinea*, or scarlet passion-flower: leaves ovate, somewhat heart-shaped, sharply serrated, nearly smooth; footstalks with four or six glands. Bractes elliptical, concave, obtuse, as long as the calyx. Observed by Aublet in Guiana, flowering in August, when also he gathered the fruit, which he describes as divided into three cells, full of a pleasant eatable pulp. The strong sharp serratures of the leaves distinguish this from all the rest of the present section. Cavanilles, who saw specimens in Jussieu's collection, says they are downy beneath when young; and he also represents the large inflated bractes as serrated throughout; Aublet figures them entire. The flowers are of a brilliant red, with orange rays.

10. *Passiflora mucronata*, or pointed passion-flower: leaves heart-shaped, obtuse, reticulated, smooth, entire; footstalks with two glands; stipules and bractes broad-ovate, pointed, entire, flat; stem cylindrical. Gathered by Commerçon at Rio Janeiro. The texture of the leaves is like *laurifolia*; but their form is ovate, heart-shaped at the base; the young ones elegantly speckled.

11. *Passiflora glandulosa*, or glandular passion-flower: leaves ovate acute, reticulated, smooth, entire; footstalks with two glands; bractes much shorter than the tube of the calyx, with two glands at their base; nectary extremely short. Gathered by Mr. Stoupey in Cayenne. Fruit the size and shape of a hen's egg.

12. *Passiflora multiflora*, or many-flowered small passion-flower: leaves ovate-oblong, entire, downy on both sides; flower-stalks aggregate, hairy; petals none. This has slender stalks, sending out many small branches, and climbing to the height of twenty-five or thirty feet; by age they become woody towards the bottom, and their joints are not far asunder. Leaves on short slender petioles, three inches and a half long, and two broad in the middle, rounded at the base, but terminating in a point at top, smooth, entire, and of a lively green colour. Germ oval, swelling to the size of a pullet's egg, and changing to a pale yellow when ripe. The flowers have an agreeable odour, but seldom continue twenty hours open: there is a succession of them from June to September, and sometimes the fruit will ripen here. It grows naturally at Vera Cruz in New Spain, where it was found by Dr. Houstoun, who sent the seeds to England in 1731. It had been before found by Plumier in the island of Dominica.

13. *Passiflora angustifolia*, or narrow-leaved passion-flower: leaves subcordate, lanceolate, entire; petioles biglandular; flowers solitary. Native of Jamaica.

14. *Passiflora adulterina*, or oval-leaved tubular passion-flower: flower-leaves oblong-oval, entire; flowers tubular; calyxes three-leaved. Stem angular, lanuginose all over. Flowers solitary, peduncled, pendulous, purple. Native of New Grenada, where it was found by Mutis.

II. Leaves two-lobed.

15. *Passiflora perfoliata*, or perfoliate passion-flower: leaves oblong, transverse, embracing, petioled, dotted underneath; crown simple, many-parted. Stem herbaceous, climbing and twining, three-cornered, subdivided, striated, pubescent. Flowers middle-sized, scarlet. Native of Jamaica, in dry hedges near the coast, on the southern side of the island; flowering in the middle of summer.

16. *Passiflora rubra*, or red-fruited passion-flower: leaves cordate, lobes acuminate, submentose underneath; stem villose. Stem herbaceous, twining round, grooved, hirsute, red. Flowers alternate, nodding, on solitary one-flowered peduncles. Native of the West Indies. Cultivated

in 1748, by Mr. Miller; it flowers in April and May.

17. *Passiflora normalis*, or compass-leaved passion-flower: leaves emarginate at the base; lobes linear, blunt, divaricate, the middle one obsolete mucronate. This has slender angular stalks, which rise twenty feet high, sending out many branches. The flowers and tendrils come out from the same joints: the former are of a pale colour and small; fruit egg-shaped, ovate, purple, the size of small grapes. Native of South America. Mr. Miller says it was found by Dr. Houstoun, growing naturally at La Vera Cruz.

18. *Passiflora murucuja*, or tubular-crowned passion-flower: leaves ovate, undivided at the base, dotted underneath; nectary one-leaved. Stem herbaceous, grooved, smooth. Flowers in pairs, axillary, scarlet, large. Berry ovate, the size of a pigeon's egg, pedicelled. According to Browne, it is of an oblong oval form, about the size of a large olive, and flesh-coloured when ripe. Both the syrup and decoction of the plant are much used in the leeward parts of Jamaica, where it is frequent; and it is said to answer effectually all the purposes for which syrup of poppies and liquid laudanum are generally administered. The flowers are most in use; they are commonly infused in, or pounded and mixed immediately with, wine or spirits; and the composition is generally thought a very effectual and easy narcotic. Browne names it *bull-hoof*, or *Dutchman's laudanum*, which are probably the vulgar names of the country. It is a native of the West Indies.

19. *Passiflora vespertilio*, or bat-winged passion-flower: leaves rounded at the base and glandular; lobes acute, divaricate, dotted underneath. This has slender roundish stalks, less than a straw, and of the same thickness from top to bottom, of a brownish-red colour, dividing into many slender branches. Leaves shaped like the wings of a bat when extended, about seven inches in length, or rather breadth; from the base to the top not more than two inches and a half, the upper ones smaller, the middle wider, and the lower narrower, smooth and somewhat shining; the colour in the upper ones pale, in the middle deeper, in the lower darker green, with two purple tubercles or glands towards the base, where they are connected with the petiole. Flowers on short round peduncles from the axils of the middle and upper leaves, white, and about three inches in diameter when expanded: calyx greenish on the outside, whitish within; petals somewhat smaller, white; rays very long and white, twisted in the middle; at the base of these others more slender, like hairs; next to them a ring of white plaited scales collected into a short tube, from the middle of which arises the short purple column supporting the germ, which is green and of an oblong spheroidal form. The flowers are without scent, open in the evening or during the night, in the month of July, and finally close about eight or nine o'clock in the morning. Dr. Sherard received it from the Amsterdam garden, without any notice of its original place of growth. It is, however, a native of the West Indies. Mr. Miller, who cultivated it about the same time, says that it was discovered by Mr. Robert Millar, growing naturally near Carthagena, in New Spain.

20. *Passiflora lunata*, or crescent-leaved passion-flower: leaves dotted, at the base slightly cordate, and having two glands; outer rays of the nectary club-shaped, compressed, obtuse. Stems several, above thirty feet high in a cultivated state, roundish and woody at the base. Flowers axillary, two together, drooping; opening early in the day, and smelling like honey. Mr. Sowerby remarks that the flower is much smaller than in *quadrangularis*, *alata*, *laurifolia*, and *cærulea*; and is remarkably different in having but one row of principal rays, and that of a quadrangular form; with the operculum or cover of the nectary curiously plaited; but this is a common case with the still smaller ones. (Linn. Trans. vol.

ii.) It was gathered at Vera Cruz by Dr. Houstoun, who sent seeds of it to Mr. Miller. It was also found by Dr. Wright in Jamaica.

21. *Passiflora clypeata*, or peltate bat passion-flower: leaves smooth, peltate, five-ribbed, with two rounded pointed widely-spreading lobes. Of this we have an incomplete specimen in the Herbarium of the younger Linnæus, marked as from the West Indies, and a single leaf sent by Mutis from New Granada, and called in his letter "*Passifloræ folium magnum*." This last expands six inches; the former are smaller and younger. The stem is slender, angular. Footstalks an inch or more in length, with two cup-like glands near the base, and, in one instance, two at the top. Leaves truly peltate, the stalk being inserted above a quarter of an inch from the base; five strong radiating ribs spring from its insertion; with two much smaller, directed towards the base. Both sides are smooth, reticulated with innumerable veins; lobes very broad, rounded with short points; in the leaf from Mutis only, there is a shallow minutely-pointed intermediate lobe; but that character is sometimes found to be variable in this tribe. No traces of flowers are to be seen.

22. *Passiflora oblongata*, or oblong-leaved passion-flower: leaves oblong, dotted beneath, rounded at the base; with two erect, lunate, very short, terminal lobes, and a minute intermediate bristle. Gathered by Swartz on shrubby hills in Jamaica. The stem is rough and rigid, climbing by its tendrils to a great height. Leaves stalked, two or three inches long, entire, three-ribbed, veiny, thin, smooth; paler beneath, with a double row of remote dots. Flowers solitary, rather large.

23. *Passiflora capsularis*, or capsular passion-flower: leaves cordate, oblong, petioled. Stalks slender, rising to twenty feet high when supported, and dividing into many weak branches. Leaves four inches long and three broad, ending at their points in two horns, in some more acute than in others, several of them appearing as if cut a little hollow at the top, like those of the tulip-tree: they are of a deep green on their upper side, but pale underneath, and stand on short footstalks. Peduncles very slender, an inch and a half long, purplish. Flowers, when expanded, not more than an inch and a half in diameter, of a soft red colour, with little scent. Fruit small, oval; when ripe, purple. Native of Jamaica; whence Dr. Houstoun sent the seeds to England.

24. *Passiflora contrayerva*, or horse-shoe passion-flower: leaves smooth, without glands, somewhat heart-shaped, with two obtuse, oblong, pointless, slightly-spreading lobes; footstalks without glands or stipules; stem angular, calyx spreading. Hernandez says this plant is found in various parts of the country of Mexico; and the root is famous for its medicinal virtues, being sweetish, with some pungency and fragrance, and considered as a powerful counter-poison, deobstruent, cordial, &c. three ounces of the bruised root being a dose. Hence the appellation of *contrayerva*, which it possesses in common with *Dorstenia*, and some other reputed counter-poisons. Hernandez describes the leaves as shaped like a crescent, or a horse-shoe: they are about an inch long, his figure being scarcely half the natural size: he represents three dots, like nails, on their disk, which he says are yellow. The stems are slender, angular, twining, and climbing by tendrils. Flowers shaped like a carnation, but much smaller, and of many colours; berries globular, dark chestnut-coloured. This seems to have been confounded by Linnæus with *normalis*, N° 17.

III. Leaves three-lobed.

25. *Passiflora rotundifolia*, or round-leaved passion-flower: leaves roundish, three-lobed only at top, dotted underneath; nectary simple. Stem suffrutescent at bottom, subdivided, angular, grooved. Leaves semiovate, three-nerved, veined, smooth on both sides, marked behind longitudinally with pellucid dots: lobes terminated by very small bristles; the middle one a little larger than

the others. Flowers nodding, pale green, inodorous. Germ roundish. Berry egg-shaped. It is distinguished from the other species by its rounded leaves slightly three-lobed at top only. Jacquin says it is very common in the woods about Carthagena in New Spain. Swartz found it in coppices on the southern side of Jamaica; flowering at the beginning of the year. According to the Kew Catalogue, it was introduced in 1786.

26. *Passiflora orbiculata*, or orbicular tubular-crowned passion-flower: leaves roundish, with three very shallow obtuse lobes; dotted beneath, but not at the base; footstalks without glands; petals none; nectary tubular, abrupt, undivided. Native of Hispaniola. Given by Thouin to the younger Linnæus. The leaves of this rare species much resemble the last, but the lobes are very obtuse, the middle one broadest; in a young state the under side is downy, and always very much reticulated with prominent veins. Flowers in pairs, crimson, the size of murucuja, N° 18, and with the same undivided nectary, but no petals.

27. *Passiflora oblongata*, or oblong passion-flower: leaves elliptic, subtrilobate in front, dotted underneath; lobes sharpish, the middle one shortest. Native of Jamaica.

28. *Passiflora punctata*, or dotted passion-flower: leaves roundish, slightly heart-shaped, with three shallow obtuse lobes, and many rows of dots at the back, but not at the base; footstalks without glands; calyx flat; rays spreading half the length of the petals. Gathered by Feuillée in a garden at Malambo, a suburb on the north of Lima: he never met with this plant elsewhere. Cavanilles saw it in flower at Paris. Linnæus had not seen it: his description in the Mant. and Syst. Veg. copied by Willdenow, being taken from our *lunata*, which is the *punctata* of Ait. Hort. Kew. ed. 1. The leaves are broader and shorter than in the two last described, and more copiously dotted at the back. Flowers solitary, with a flatly expanded calyx, whitish ovate petals, and violet rays, tipped with bright yellow, which are much shorter than the petals, and somewhat club-shaped. Fruit rather oval, with a sweet pulp.

29. *Passiflora lutea*, or small yellow passion-flower: leaves heart-shaped, three-lobed, obtuse, smooth; footstalks downy, without glands; flowers in pairs; petals half the breadth of the calyx. Root creeping, sending up many weak stalks three or four feet high. Leaves shaped like those of ivy, and almost as large, but of a pale green and very thin consistence. Flowers dirty yellow, not larger than a sixpence when expanded. Native of Virginia and Jamaica; cultivated here in 1714; flowers in May and June.

30. *Passiflora parviflora*, or small-flowered passion-flower: leaves smooth, lobes ovate entire, the middle one more produced; petioles biglandular; stem herbaceous. Native of Jamaica.

31. *Passiflora pannosa*, or cloth-leaved passion-flower: leaves heart-shaped, unequally three-lobed, bluntish, downy on both sides, as well as the stalks, tendrils, and branches; petals none; germen bristly. Native of the West Indies. The form and size of the leaves are like *rubra*, N° 16. and some of them have but two lobes, as in that; but most have a broad central lobe, as long as the others. Every part is pubescent like *rubra*, and the germen bristly; but the flowers are otherwise totally unlike that species, scarcely a quarter so large, destitute of petals, and with a very small nectary; though their stalks bear conspicuous finely three-cleft bractes, which *rubra* wants.

32. *Passiflora glauca*, or glaucous-leaved passion-flower: leaves cordate, smooth, lobes ovate, equal; petioles glandular; stipules semi-ovate. The whole plant is very smooth and even. Leaves glaucous underneath, undotted. Flowers sweet. Native of Cayenne. Introduced in 1779, by Messrs. Kennedy and Lee.

33. *Passiflora minima*, or dwarf passion-flower: leaves smooth,

smooth, lobes lanceolate, quite entire, the middle one more produced; petioles biglandular; stem even, suberous at bottom. Stem twining, simple, becoming corky at the base with age, round, smooth. Flowers small, whitish. It is nearly allied to *P. suberosa*; but differs in the lobes of the leaves being narrow and divaricated: the stem herbaceous, becoming like cork only when old; and the flowers smaller.

Mr. Sowerby remarks, (Linn. Transf. ii.) that, though this has its name from its smallness, there are others nearly if not quite as small, and not well distinguished; that several of them have no involucre, though there is a joint on the peduncle, or, as he has it, between the peduncle and the pedicel; and that they have but five petals, consequently nothing that serves as a calyx. He thus describes the flower of this species: peduncle cylindrical; pedicel also cylindrical, curved a little, thickest at the flat base of the flower; petals lanceolate, turned back; principal rays cylindrical, spreading, curved back; imperfect rays mostly clubbed, sometimes bifid; operculum plaited and fringed at the edge. Nectary as in *lunata*, except that at the ridge of the protuberating bank are some small regular roundish glands, or imperfect rays. Native of Curassao, and Jamaica. Introduced in 1790 by Mr. Benthick. It flowers in July.

34. *Passiflora heterophylla*, or narrow-leaved passion-flower: leaves undivided, linear-oblong, and three-lobed, smooth, quite entire; petioles biglandular. Native of the West Indies. Introduced about 1773. It flowers from June to September.

35. *Passiflora suberosa*, or cork-barked passion-flower: leaves sub-peltate; lobes ovate-entire; petioles biglandular; stem suberose. This rises with a weak stalk to the height of twenty feet: as the stalks grow old, they have a thick fungous bark like that of the cork-tree, which cracks and splits; the smaller branches are covered with a smooth bark. Leaves smooth, on very short petioles: the middle lobe is much longer than the lateral ones, so that the whole leaf is halbert-shaped. The flowers are small, of a greenish-yellow colour. Fruit egg-shaped, dark purple when ripe. Native of the West Indies. Cultivated in 1759 by Mr. Miller. It flowers from June to September.

36. *Passiflora peltata*, or peltate spreading-lobed passion-flower: leaves peltate, smooth, three-ribbed, with three deep, equal, oblong, spreading lobes; footstalks with two glands; flowers solitary, without petals. Found in hedges in the Antilles, according to Plumier; few other botanists have seen it. The peltate insertion of the footstalks, and the large deeply three-lobed leaves, mark this species. Its flowers are twice the size of *P. suberosa*, with longer and straighter rays. Fruit much the same.

37. *Passiflora hederacea*, or peltate ivy passion-flower: leaves peltate, ovate, smooth, five-ribbed, three-lobed; footstalks with two glands; flowers solitary, without petals. From the same country as the last, where Plumier only appears to have seen it. The leaves are peltate and five-ribbed, exactly as in our *clipeata*, N° 21. but of a very different outline, rounded at the base, and terminating in three rather spreading but not deep lobes: their size and appearance, except having but three lobes, is like our broadest variety of *Hedera helix*, called Irish ivy. Flowers like the preceding.

38. *Passiflora viridiflora*, or tubular-green passion-flower: leaves peltate, smooth, with three deep obovate lobes; tube of the calyx as long as its segments; petals and bractes wanting. Gathered by Louis Née, near Acapulco, flowering in February. The leaves have seven radiating ribs, and three deep lobes, of which the middle one especially is greatly contracted at the base; each two or three inches long. A curious species, known only from the work of Cavanilles.

39. *Passiflora reflexa*, or reflexed passion-flower: leaves peltate, smooth, with three deep, spreading, obtuse, lobes; their sinuses and stalks glandular; tube of the ca-

lyx as long as its segments; bractes ovate, veiny. Gathered by Louis Née near Panama. About the size of the preceding.

40. *Passiflora holosericea*, or silky-leaved passion-flower: leaves ovate, three-lobed, downy on both surfaces, with a recurved tooth on each side at the base. The stalks rise twenty feet high, dividing into many slender branches, covered with a soft hairy down. Leaves shaped like the point of a halbert, three inches long, and an inch and a half wide at the base, light green, soft and silky to the touch, standing obliquely to the footstalks. Flowers an inch and a half broad; petals white; rays purple, with a mixture of yellow. Fruit small, roundish, yellow when ripe. Discovered by Dr. Houltoun, growing naturally at Vera Cruz; and therefore was introduced before 1733, in which year he died. It flowers most part of the summer.

41. *Passiflora hirsuta*, or hairy passion-flower: leaves villose, the lower smooth above; lobes oblong, quite entire, the middle one more produced; petioles biglandular. Native of the West Indies. Introduced in 1778, by Mr. Gilbert Alexander: it flowers in September.

42. *Passiflora foetida*, or stinking passion-flower: leaves cordate, hairy; involucre capillary-multifid. The stalks rise five or six feet high, when supported; they are channelled and hairy. The middle lobe of the leaf is three inches long, and one and a half broad; the two side-lobes are short, but broad; they are covered with short brown hairs. Flowers on strong hairy peduncles, two inches long; calyx composed of slender hairy filaments, wrought like a net, longer than the petals, and turning up round them; they are white, and of short duration. Fruit roundish-ovate, about the size of a golden pippin, of a yellowish-green colour, inclosed in the netted calyx. The whole plant has a disagreeable scent when touched, grows naturally in most of the islands of the West Indies, where the British inhabitants call it *love in a mist*, which is one vulgar name of *Nigella damascena*, that it resembles in the involucre. It was cultivated by Mr. Miller in 1731; and flowers in July and August.

43. *Passiflora ciliata*, or ciliated passion-flower: leaves smooth, ciliate-ferrate; the middle one very long; petioles not glandular. Native of Jamaica. Cultivated in 1783, by Mrs. Norman. It runs to a great height, and has dark-green glossy leaves; the involucre is composed of three leaves divided into capillary segments, each terminating in a viscid globule: the pillar supporting the germen is bright purple, with darker spots: the petals are greenish on the outside and red within. The crown consists of four rows of radii, which are varied with white and purple. The leaves of this species vary occasionally; and Mr. Curtis suspects it to be a variety of *P. foetida*.

44. *Passiflora ferrulata*, or finely-ferrated passion-flower: leaves three-lobed, very minutely serrated; the middle lobe longest; footstalks with two glands; bractes distinct, entire. Gathered by Jacquin at Carthage: he compares it with *incarnata*, N° 45. from which he says it is very certainly distinguished by the leaves not being cut away close to the side-ribs at the base, and by the minuteness of their serratures. The flowers are variegated with purple and white, delightfully fragrant, two inches and a half wide.

45. *Passiflora incarnata*, rose-coloured passion-flower, or maycock: leaves ferrate, equal; petioles biglandular. Root perennial. Stalks annual, slender, rising four or five feet high. At each joint one leaf, on a short footstalk, having mostly three oblong lobes, but the two side ones are sometimes divided part of their length into two narrow segments, and thus becoming five-lobed; they are thin, of a light green, and slightly ferrate. The flowers are produced from the joints of the stalk, at the footstalks of the leaves, on long slender peduncles, in succession as the stalks advance in height during the summer-months: calycine leaflets oblong, blunt, pale green; petals white, with a double circle of purple rays, the rays

of the lower circle, longest. The flowers have an agreeable scent, but are of short duration, opening in the morning, and fading away in the evening. Fruit as large as a middling apple, changing to a pale orange-colour when ripe; inclosing many oblong rough seeds, lying in a sweetish pulp. It grows naturally in Virginia and other parts of North America, and was the first known in Europe of all the species, but was not very common in the English gardens till of late years. It was cultivated here in 1629, according to Parkinson, who has given a good figure and description of it, with a copy of the Jesuit's sophisticated figure to contrast with his own, and a copious abuse of their attempts to deceive mankind.

46. *Passiflora aurantia*, or Norfolk-island passion-flower: leaves smooth, dotted beneath, with three spreading bluntish lobes; rounded at the base; calyx somewhat tubular, longer than the petals; nectary tubular, abrupt, lobed, surrounded with upright rays. Native of New Caledonia and of Norfolk island. It flowers copiously in a stove in summer, requiring a light dry soil. The leaves are sometimes slightly five-lobed. Flowers orange, the tube of their nectary green, longer than the purple upright rays which surround it. The nectary is very peculiar, being, like the whole flower, shaped much as in *P. murucuja*, No 18, but nevertheless accompanied with rays; its orifice moreover is lobed or jagged.

47. *Passiflora cuneifolia*, or wedge-leaved passion-flower: leaves deeply three-lobed, serrated, acute; three-ribbed, with two glands, at the base; bractes distinct, elliptical, entire; calyx flat; rays not half so long as the petals. Native of America. Seen by Cavanilles in Thonin's Herbarium. The specific characters distinguish it from *incarnata*, which it greatly resembles.

48. *Passiflora sanguinea*, or blood-coloured passion-flower: leaves deeply three-lobed, serrated, acute, without glands; bractes distinct, lanceolate, with glandular teeth; calyx downy, its tube half as long as the segments; rays half the length of the petals; stamens linear, flat. Gathered by Smeathman in the West Indies. A very fine species. The branches, and all the stalks, are downy; tendrils smooth. Flowers near three inches broad; as far as can be judged from the dried specimen, they appear of a rich deep red.

49. *Passiflora peduncularis*, or long-stalked passion-flower: leaves with three rounded serrated lobes; bractes combined, tubular, downy; calyx downy, its tube nearly equal to the segments; rays very minute; stem square. Gathered by Louis Née, in several places in Peru, flowering in March. The square stem, which is slightly downy, and the bractes united into an ovate, obtuse, slightly notched, and three-cleft, tube, full half as long as the tube of the calyx, are characteristic of this species, which is one of Jussieu's genus *Tafconia*, like the four following. The leaves of this are rather broader than long, their lobes broad and rounded, equally serrated; glaucous, and in some degree downy, at the back. Flower-stalks near four inches long, being twice the length of the leaves. Flowers rose-coloured, large and handsome, externally downy; their petals elliptical, an inch long, a little shorter than the calyx. Fruit globose, rather downy, one inch and a half in diameter.

50. *Passiflora trifoliata*, or three-leaved passion-flower: leaves ternate, elliptical, downy, entire; bractes distinct, toothed; tube of the calyx as long as the segments, tumid at the base; rays very minute. Native of Peru and Chili, where it was found by Louis Née, flowering in March and April. Remarkable for its truly ternate leaves. Flowers rose-coloured, large and handsome, like the last, but with a longer calyx-tube, whose base is inflated and umbilicated.

51. *Passiflora pennipes*, or wing-footed passion-flower: leaves three-lobed, serrated, acute; woolly beneath; bractes distinct, serrated; tube of the calyx as long as the segments; rays half as long as the petals; stipules

deeply pinnatifid. Found by Louis Née in various parts of Chili, from whence also we have a specimen, gathered by Mr. Menzies. The leaves are three-cleft more than half way, reticulated, serrated, two or three inches long; very smooth, and bright green, above; their backs, like the branches and stalks, clothed with dense white woolly pubescence. Flowers much larger than in the last, of a pale rose-colour, very finely downy externally, as is also the germen.

52. *Passiflora tomentosa*, or downy long-tubed passion-flower: leaves three-lobed, serrated; downy on both sides; bractes combined, tubular; tube of the calyx thrice as long as the segments. Gathered long ago, by Joseph de Jussieu, in Peru. His specimens were seen in his celebrated nephew's herbarium at Paris, by Lamarck, and Cavanilles, from whose publication only our knowledge concerning this magnificent plant is derived. The respective proportions of the flower and its minute rays agree with our third species; but the whole flower appears to be larger. The leaves have three broad moderately deep lobes, and, like the rest of the plant, are clothed with fine short down. The flower expands three inches, and is said to be rose-coloured; its tube is five inches long. Fruit ovate-oblong, soft, full of yellow eatable pulp. The Peruvians know this plant by the name of *taçô*.

53. *Passiflora mixta*, or smooth-leaved long-tubed passion-flower: leaves with three or five lobes, serrated, acute; smooth on both sides; bractes combined, tubular; tube of the calyx thrice as long as the segments. Sent by Mutis from New Granada to Linnæus, along with drawings, in Indian ink, of this and our third species. The present differs from the last in having smooth more-deeply-lobed leaves, whose side-lobes are occasionally slightly divided; but that such a circumstance is accidental, may be presumed, not only from the coincidence of every other part, but because there are always five ribs more or less apparent. The footstalks bear about six glands, and are rather downy; the flower-stalks, tubular bractes, and especially the outside of the calyx, are finely and densely pubescent. Flowers rose-coloured or purplish, a little smaller than those of *P. tomentosa*, with much the same sort of nectary. Fruit obovate, with a slight longitudinal furrow.

Dr. Smith collects from this species and *P. adulterina*, that the flower of *passiflora* is ten-petalled; and that what Linnæus calls the involucre is the calyx. Jussieu, on the contrary, calls the whole the calyx, and asserts the *Passiflora* to have no corolla. In most of the species the involucre cannot properly be regarded as a perianth, and even in this species it is permanent, and in the fruiting state at a considerable distance from the fruit. Nothing could be greater acquisitions to our conservatories than these tubular passion-flowers, whose seeds the Spaniards surely might obtain with great ease, and which would probably prove almost hardy in our climate, like the elegant *Fuchsia*, *Cobæa*, and other late discoveries, from the same country.

54. *Passiflora racemosa*, or branched passion-flower: leaves subpeltate, emarginated at the base, smooth, three-lobed, the lobes ovate-acute, very entire, the middle one longest; petioles four-glanduled; flowers terminal, racemed. Root perennial; stem thick, obconic, inodorous; the whole plant smooth. Leaves alternate, from two to four inches apart, broad, fleshy, smooth on both sides. Flowers very large and beautiful, but without smell. Inhabits shady woods about the city of Rio Janeiro and elsewhere in Brasil; where it flowers in November and December. Discovered by Mr. Woodford, who carried it to Lisbon, and communicated it to F. A. Brotero, professor of botany in the university of Coimbra; who has described it very minutely in the Linn. Transf. vol. xii. for 1817. where it is accompanied by an engraving.

IV. Leaves with many segments.

55. *Passiflora cœrulea*, common or blue passion-flower: leaves deeply palmate, in five entire smooth segments. This rises in a few years to a great height with proper support: it may be trained up more than forty feet high. The stalks will grow almost as large as a man's arm; and are covered with a purplish bark, but do not become very woody. The shoots often grow to the length of twelve or fifteen feet in one summer; and, being very slender, must be supported, otherwise they will hang to the ground, intermix with each other, and appear very unightly. At each joint is one leaf, composed of five smooth entire lobes; the middle one, which is longest, is almost four inches long, and one inch broad in the middle; the others are gradually shorter, and the two outer lobes are frequently divided on their outer side into two smaller ones. Their footstalks are near two inches long, and have two embracing stipules at their base; and from the same point issues a long clasper or tendril. The flowers come out at the same joint with the leaves, on peduncles almost three inches long: the outer cover (or involucre) is composed of three concave ovate leaves, of a paler green than the proper leaves of the plant, and are little more than half the length of the calyx; the leaflets of which are oblong, blunt, pale green; the petals are nearly of the same shape and size, and stand alternately between them. Column about an inch long; germ oval; styles purplish, near an inch long; rays of the crown in two circles; the inner, which is the shortest, inclines towards the column; the outer, which is near half the length of the petals, spreads open flat upon them, and is purple at bottom, but blue on the outside. Fruit egg-shaped, the size and shape of the Mogul plum, and when ripe of the same yellow colour, inclosing a sweetish disagreeable pulp, in which are lodged oblong seeds.

This beautiful species is represented on the Plate II. fig. 2. It is a native of Brasil; and, though not brought to Europe till long after the *incarnata*, has now, from its much greater hardness, and facility of culture, taken the place of that, and is generally dispersed throughout the more temperate parts of Europe. In Italy, Spain, Portugal and the Levant, it combines with the jasmine, more especially, to form luxuriant bowers; and in those countries bears abundance of orange-coloured fruit, as well as fragrant and beautiful flowers. With us it only blossoms in the open air; requiring protection for its roots and stems against hard frosts. Loureiro speaks of *P. cœrulea* as wild about Canton in China; and there is a narrow-leaved rather tender variety, known in our stoves, reported to have come from that country, or the East Indies. But we are inclined to suspect both may originally have gone thither from Europe or the Brasils. Each flower lasts only one day; but there is a copious succession.

56. *Passiflora filamentosa*, or long-rayed blue passion-flower: leaves palmate, in five acute serrated segments; footstalks with two sessile glands; bractes distinct, serrated; rays longer than the corolla. Native of America. Cavanilles described it from the garden of the late duke del Infantado, to whose family he was preceptor. The glands of the footstalks agree with those of *serulata*, No 44. but the shape of the leaves, and their coarser serratures, as well as the serrated bractes, materially differ. From *incarnata* and *cuneifolia*, the only species besides with which it can be compared, it is distinguished by the leaves not being cut away close to the ribs at the base, as well as by the situation of the glands on their stalks, and the presence of other glands in the sinuses. The leaves we understand to be smooth; their side-lobes much smaller than the others. Flower coloured somewhat like the *cœrulea*; furnished with five rows of rays, of which the outermost extend beyond the calyx and petals. Fruit globose, with white viscid pulp.

57. *Passiflora ferrata*, or many-lobed serrated passion-

flower: leaves palmate, in five or seven very deep serrated segments; footstalks with several glands; bractes combined, entire. Gathered by Plumier in Martinico, in one place only, near St. Mary's river. Cavanilles saw a specimen in Jussieu's collection, and there is one without flowers, in that of the younger Linnaeus; but this very magnificent species is unknown in our gardens. The flowers equal even those of *quadrangularis* in magnitude and splendour, and the broad many-lobed leaves, whose under side is somewhat downy, are much more handsome. Plumier says the shoots are as large, hard, and knotty, as those of a vine, spreading widely over the trees and bushes, which they decorate with verdant foliage. The flower-bud, invested with its large, ovate, pale purple-veined bractes, combined at their base, and entire at their margin, is as big as a hen's egg. The calyx has a broad funnel-shaped base; its segments are of a violet-colour, like the petals, but much broader, each about one inch and a half long. Rays about the same length, very numerous, thick, and somewhat angular, in a double row, the outermost shortest, each ray whitish at the point, violet in the middle, paler from thence to the base, with five violet bands. The tube of the calyx is internally lined with short red-headed glandular rays. Fruit as big as an orange, with a thick coat. Plumier did not meet with it ripe, but it seems much like that of the *quadrangularis* in colour and structure. The flowers are fragrant.

58. *Passiflora pedata*, or curled passion-flower; leaves pedate, of seven serrated acute leaflets; bractes distinct, serrated; rays twisted. Found by Plumier, by the roadside near Miragoan in Hispaniola, and nowhere else. Leaves remarkable for being pedate, as in *Helleborus niger*, consisting of seven, almost entirely distinct, elliptic-lanceolate, acute, single-ribbed, sharply-serrated leaflets, of a fine shining-green, the central one three or four inches long. Flowers surpassing all the rest, according to Plumier, in size, fragrance, and brilliancy of colours. Calyx pale green, dotted on the inside with red; petals blue; rays in one principal row, spreading, longer than the petals, deep red, with two or three white bands, their extremities of a fine violet, tapering, zigzag, and twisted; column, stamens, and styles, white, speckled with red. Fruit globose, like a small gourd, the size of a moderate apple, speckled with shades of green. Mr. Masson is recorded as having sent this noble plant to Kew in 1781, from the West Indies; but there is no account of its flowering, and we fear it is now lost.

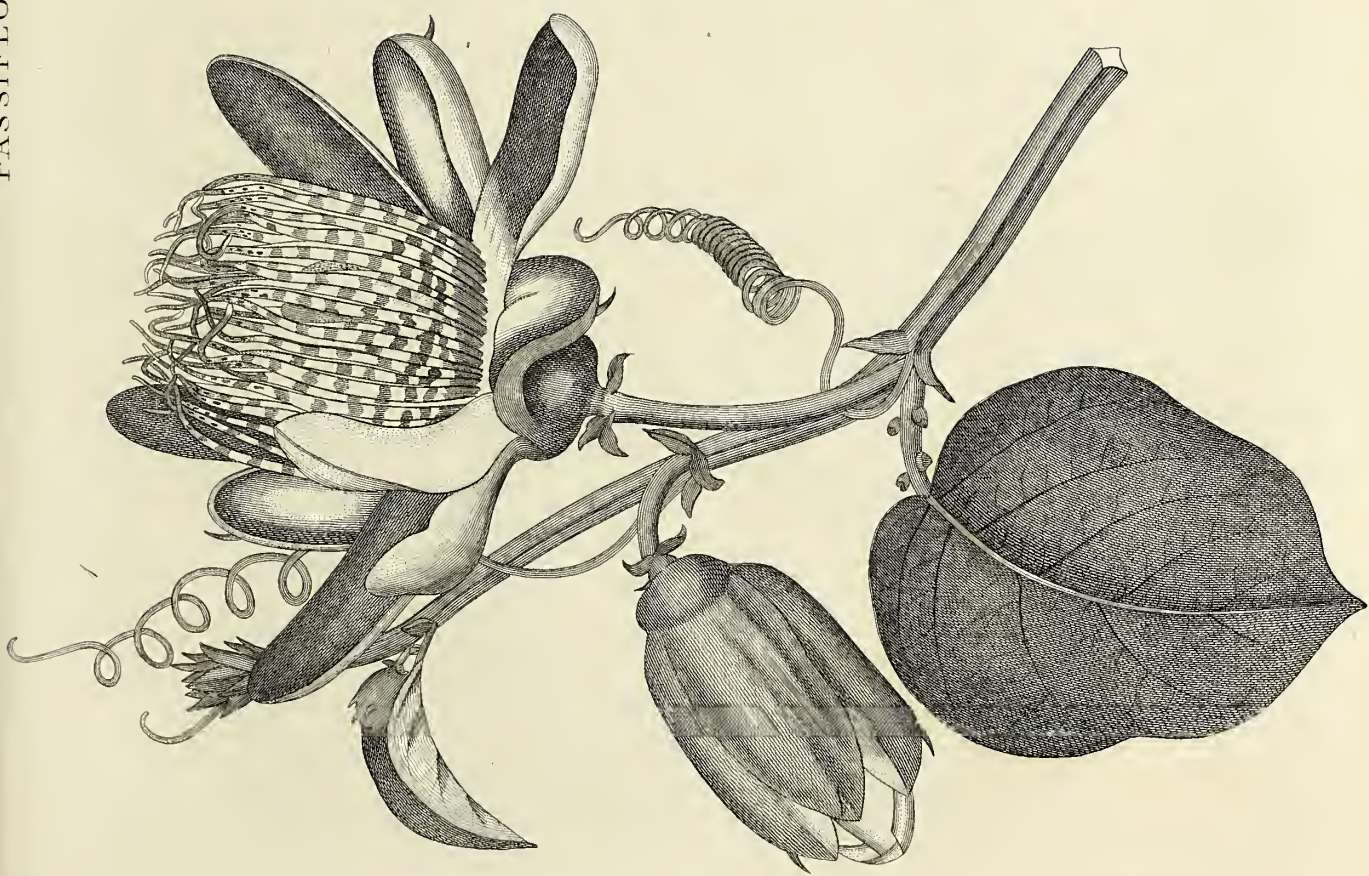
Propagation and Culture. All the perennial sorts, which are natives of the hot parts of America, require a stove to preserve them here, without which they will not thrive; for, although some of the sorts will live in the open air during the warm months in summer, yet they make but little progress; nor will the plants produce many flowers, unless the pots in which they are planted are plunged into the tan-bed of the stove, and their branches are trained against an espalier. The best way to have them in perfection, is to make a border of earth at the back of the tan-bed, which may be separated by planks to prevent the earth from mixing with the tan; and, when the plants are strong enough, they should be turned out of the pots, and planted in this border; adjoining to which, should be a trellis erected to the top of the stove; against this the stalks must be trained, and as they advance they will form a hedge to hide the wall of the stove; and their leaves continuing green all the year, together with their flowers which will be plentifully intermixed in summer, will have a very agreeable effect.

These plants are propagated by seeds, which should be sown upon a good hot-bed in the spring; and, when the plants are fit to remove, they should be each planted in a small pot filled with good kitchen-garden earth, and plunged into a bed of tanner's bark, observing to shade them from the sun till they have taken new root; then they must be treated like other tender plants from the same



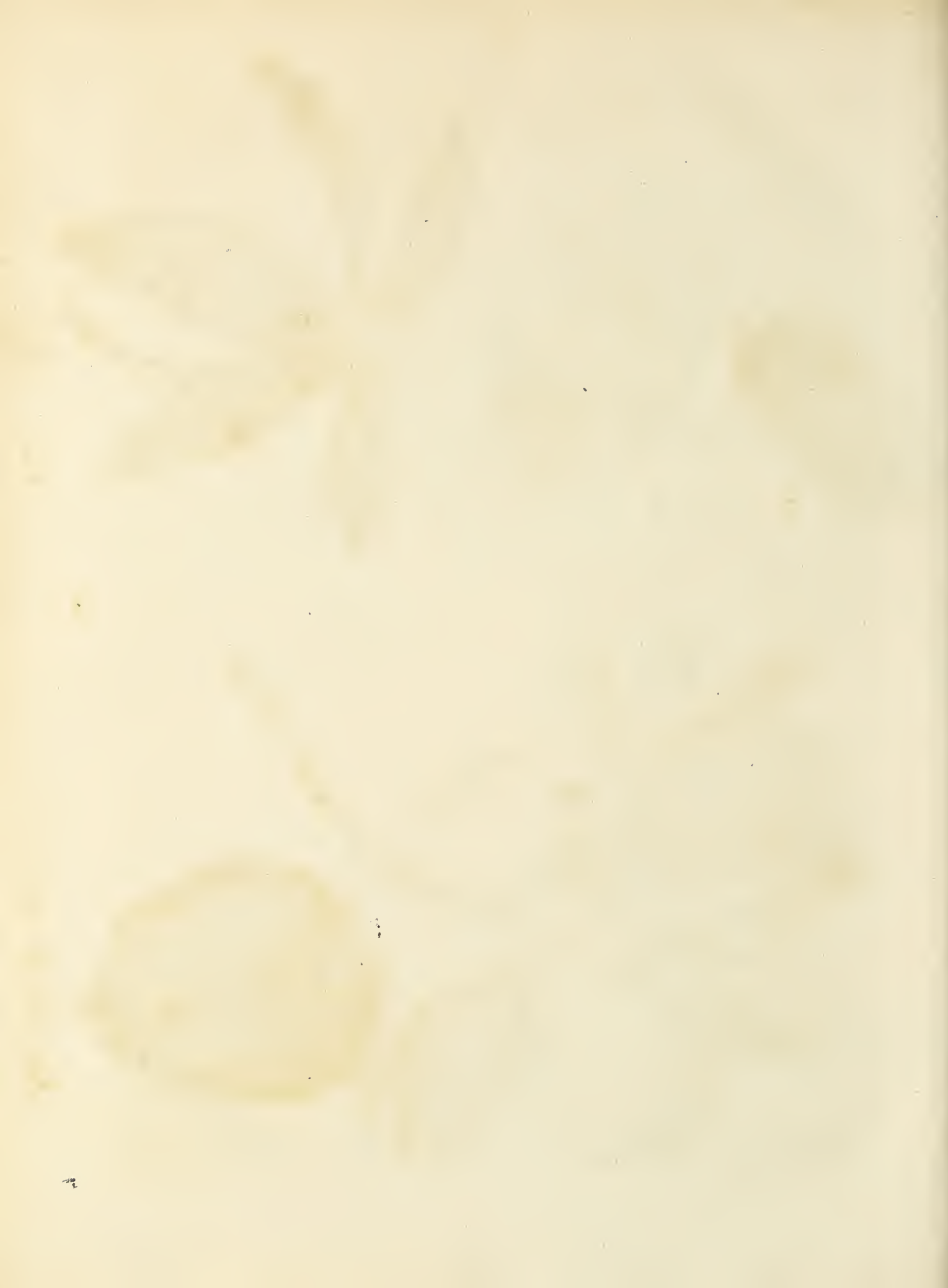
Common Passion-flower.

PASSIFLORA.



Wing-stalked Passion-flower.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1845.



same countries. When they are too high to remain under the glasses of the hot-bed, they should be turned out of the pots and planted in the stove, in the manner before-mentioned. As these plants do not often perfect their seeds here, they may be propagated by laying down their branches; which if done in April, they will put out roots by the middle of August, when they may be separated from the old plants, and either planted in pots to get strength, or into the border of the stove, where they are to remain.

Some of these sorts may also be propagated by cuttings; these should be planted into pots about the middle or latter end of March, and plunged into a moderate hot-bed, observing to screen them from the sun, and refresh them with water gently as often as the earth may require it; and in about two months, or ten weeks, they will put out roots, and may then be treated as the seedling plants.

The yellow passion-flower (N^o 29.) may be propagated by its creeping roots, parted in April, and planted where they are to remain. This lived many years in a south-west border in the Chelsea garden; but in the year 1740 all the plants were killed by the frost.

N^o 45 is usually propagated by seeds which are brought from America, for the seeds do not often ripen in England. The seeds should be sown upon a moderate hot-bed, which will bring up the plants much sooner than when they are sown in the open air, so that they will have more time to get strength before winter. When the plants are two or three inches high, they should be carefully taken up, and each planted in a separate small pot filled with good kitchen-garden earth, and plunged into a moderate hot-bed to forward their taking new root; after which they should be gradually inured to bear the open air, to which they should be exposed in summer, but in the autumn they must be placed under a garden-frame to screen them from the frost; but they should have the free air at all times in mild weather. The spring following some of these plants may be turned out of the pots, and planted in a warm border, where, if they are covered with tanner's bark every winter to keep out the frost, they will live several years, their stalks decaying in the autumn, and new ones arising in the spring, which in warm seasons will flower very well. If those plants which are continued in pots are plunged into a tan-bed, some of them may produce fruit; and, if the stalks of these are laid down in the beginning of June, into pots of earth plunged near them, they will take root by the end of August.

The common or blue passion-flower may also be propagated by seeds, which should be sown in the same manner as those of the 45th sort, and the plants treated in the same way till the following spring, when they should be turned out of the pots, and planted against a good-aspected wall, where they may have height for their shoots to extend, otherwise they will hang about and entangle with each other, so as to make but an indifferent appearance; but, where buildings are to be covered, this plant is very proper for the purpose. After they have taken good root in their new quarters, the only care they will require, is to train their shoots up against the wall, as they extend in length, to prevent their hanging about; and, if the winter proves severe, the surface of the ground about their roots should be covered with mulch to keep the frost from penetrating the ground; and, if the stalks and branches are covered with mats, pease-haulm, straw, or any such light covering, it will protect them in winter against severe frosts; but this covering must be taken off in mild weather, otherwise it will cause the branches to grow mouldy, which will be more injurious to them than the cold. In the spring the plants should be trimmed, when all the small weak shoots should be entirely cut off, and the strong ones shortened to about four or five feet long, which will cause them to put out

strong shoots for flowering the following year. This plant is also propagated by laying down the branches, which in one year will be well rooted, may be taken off from the old plants, and transplanted where they are designed to remain. The cuttings of this will also take root, if they are planted in a loamy soil not too stiff, in the spring, before they begin to shoot. If these are covered with bell or hand glasses to exclude the air, they will succeed much better than when they are otherwise treated; but, when the cuttings put out shoots, the air should be admitted to them, otherwise they will draw up weak, and spoil, and they must be afterwards treated as the layers. Those plants which are propagated by layers or cuttings, do not produce fruit so plentifully as the seedling plants. If in very severe winters the stalks of these plants are killed to the ground, the roots often put out new stalks the following summer, therefore they should not be disturbed: and, where there is mulch laid on the ground about their roots, there will be little danger of their being killed, although all the stalks should be destroyed.

PASSIGNA'NO, a town of Italy, in the Perugiano, on the north side of the lake: twenty-two miles north-west of Perugia, and eight south-east of Cortona.

PASS'ING, *part. adj.* [from *pass.*] Supreme; surpassing others; eminent:

No strength of arms shall win this noble fort,
Or shake this puissant wall, such *passing* might
Have spells and charms, if they be said aright. *Fairfax.*

It is used adverbially to enforce the meaning of another word. Exceeding.—Oberon is *passing* fell and wroth. *Shakespeare.*

She was not only *passing* fair,
But was withal discreet and debonaire.

Dryden.

PASSING-BELL, *f.* The bell which was wrung or tolled at the hour of departure, to obtain prayers for the passing soul: it is now used for the bell which rings immediately after death.—When any christian bodie is *passing*, that the bell be tolled, and that the curate be speciallie called for to comforte the sicke person; and, after the time of his passing, to ring no more but one short peale; and one before buriall, and another short peale after the buriall. *Advert. for due Order, &c. in the 7th year of queen Elizabeth.*—The learned physician Smith thus distinguishes the ceremony while the person is dying, and after he is dead.—The tolling of a *passing-bell* may put him and all his friends in mind, that he is shortly going the way of all flesh: the stinging of the *passing-bell*, or rather the ringing out of the knell, gives notice unto all that he is gone. *K. Solomon's Portr. of Old Age. 1666.*

Before the *passing-bell* begun,

The news through half the town was run.

Swift.

PASSING MEASURES, *f.* A slow Spanish dance.—Pry'thee sit still; thou must dance nothing but the *passing-measures*. *Brewer's Lingua.*

PASSING NOTES, or TRANSIENT NOTES, *f.* in music, are those which *pass* between the essential notes of the fundamental harmony. Passing-notes proceed either gradually or by skips; and are either accented or unaccented. In the different parts of a movement, or in the divisions of a bar, the uneven numbers 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, imply accented, and the even numbers 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, unaccented, notes; thus of two equal notes the 1st is accented, and the 2d unaccented; of four equal notes the 1st and 3d are accented, and the 2d and 4th unaccented. Discords introduced in this way, are not subject to the usual treatment of other discords, but are brought in without preparation.

The most beautiful melodiés in modern music are formed by the intermixture of essential and passing notes on a simple ground bass. See *Transition*, in the article MUSIC, vol. xvii. p. 334.

PASS'ING-PLACES, *f.* in canal-navigation, are certain places wider than the ordinary breadth of the canal, for boats to turn occasionally, or to lie in while others pass.

PASS'ING-TICKET, *f.* A kind of *permit*, being a note or check which the toll-clerks on some canals give to the boatmen, specifying the lading for which they have paid toll.

PASSINGLY, *adv.* Exceedingly.—I pursue *passingly* [in the present version, "beyond measure"] the church of God. *Wicliffe*, *Gal.* i. 13.—Cardinal Pole having heard a certain preacher of great name, who arrogated much to himself, and did *passingly* please himself; he was asked what he thought of the man; Pole answered, I would that he would first preach unto himself, and then afterward to others. *Canden's Remains*.

PASSION, *f.* [Fr. from *passio*, Lat.] Any effect caused by external agency.—A body at rest affords us no idea of any active power to move; and, when set in motion, it is rather a *passion* than an action in it. *Locke*.—Susceptibility of effect from external action.—The differences of mouldable and not mouldable, scissible and not scissible, and many other *passions* of matter, are plebeian notions, applied to the instruments men ordinarily practise. *Bacon*.—Violent commotion of the mind.—All the art of rhetoric, besides order and perspicuity, only moves the *passions*, and thereby misleads the judgement. *Locke*.

Passion's too fierce to be in fetters bound,
And nature flies him like enchanted ground. *Dryden*.

I am doubtful, lest
You break into some merry *passion*,
And so offend him. *Shakespeare*.

Anger.—The word *passion* signifies the receiving any action in a large philosophical sense; in a more limited philosophical sense, it signifies any of the affections of human nature; as love, fear, joy, sorrow: but the common people confine it only to anger. *Watts*.—Zeal; ardour.—Where statesmen are ruled by faction and interest, they can have no *passion* for the glory of their country, nor any concern for the figure it will make. *Addison on Medals*.—Love.—For your love, you kill'd her father: you confessed you drew a mighty argument to prove your *passion* for the daughter. *Dryden and Lee's Oedipus*.

He, to grate me more,
Publickly own'd his *passion* for Amestris. *Rowe*.

Survey yourself, and then forgive your slave,
Think what a *passion* such a form must have. *Granville*.

Eagerness.—Abate a little of that violent *passion* for fine cloaths, so predominant in your sex. *Swift*.—A plaintive love-song.—My meditations are loaded with metaphors, songs, and sonnets; not a one shakes his tail, but I sigh out a *passion*. *Albumazar*.—Emphatically, the last suffering of the Redeemer of the world.—He shewed himself alive after his *passion*, by many infallible proofs. *Acts* i. 3.

PASSION, is a word of which, as Dr. Reid observes, the meaning is not precisely ascertained, either in common discourse or in the writings of philosophers. In its original import, it denotes every *feeling* of the mind occasioned by an extrinsic cause; but it is generally used to signify some *agitation* of mind, opposed to that state of tranquillity in which a man is most master of himself. That it was thus used by the Greeks and Romans, is evident from Cicero's rendering *passio*, the word by which the philosophers of Greece expressed it, by *perturbatio* in Latin. In this sense of the word, passion cannot be itself a distinct and independent principle of action; but only an occasional degree of vehemence given to those dispositions, desires, and affections, which are at all times present to the mind of man; and that this is its proper sense, we need no other proof than that passion has al-

ways been conceived to bear analogy to a storm at sea, or a tempest in the air.

With respect to the number of passions of which the mind is susceptible, different opinions have been held by different authors. Le Brun, a French writer on painting, justly considering the expression of the passions as a very important as well as difficult branch of his art, has enumerated no fewer than twenty, of which the signs may be expressed by the pencil on canvas. That there are so many different states of mind producing different effects which are visible on the features and the gestures, and that those features and gestures ought to be diligently studied by the artist, are truths which cannot be denied; but it is absurd to consider all these different states of mind as *passions*, since *tranquillity* is one of them, which is the reverse of passion.

Mr. Haslam very judiciously asks, "Why should the most *active* characteristics of our nature be termed *passions*? The word seems properly employed in *Passion-week*, the period commemorative of Christ's *passion*, or suffering. But we are said to fly or fall into a passion, and then passion gets the better of us. For the softer sex we conceive the most delicate, refined, and honourable, *passion*; yet every one allows the dreadful consequences which ensue from an indulgence of our *passions*, and most persons agree that *passion* carried to excess, constitutes *madness*." *Observations on Madness*, p. 33, 4.

In propriety, all those motions whereby the soul is carried towards any thing, as Love, Ambition, Revenge, &c. are rather *actions* than *passions*. Those motions by which the soul finds itself interrupted in its actions, as Grief, &c. are the only real *passions*.

The common division of the passions into Desire and Aversion, Hope and Fear, Joy and Grief, Love and Hatred, has been mentioned by every author who has treated of them, and needs no explication; but it is a question of some importance in the philosophy of the human mind, whether these different passions be each a degree of an original and innate disposition, distinct from the dispositions which are respectively the foundations of the other passions, or only different modifications of one or two general dispositions common to the whole race.

The former opinion is held by all who build their system of metaphysics upon a number of distinct internal senses; and the latter is the opinion of those who, with Locke and Hartley, resolve what is commonly called instinct into an early association of ideas. That without deliberation mankind instantly feel the passion of fear upon the apprehension of danger, and the passion of anger or resentment upon the reception of an injury, are truths which cannot be denied; and hence it is inferred, that the seeds of these passions are innate in the mind, and that they are not generated, but only swell to magnitude on the prospect of their respective objects. In support of this argument, it has been observed that children, without any knowledge of their danger, are instinctively afraid on being placed on the brink of a precipice; and that this passion contributes to their safety long before they acquire, in any degree equal to their necessities, the exercise of their rational powers. Deliberate anger, caused by a voluntary injury, is acknowledged to be in part founded on reason and reflection; but, where anger impels one suddenly to return a blow, even without thinking of doing mischief, the passion is instinctive. In proof of this, it is observed, that instinctive anger is frequently raised by bodily pain, occasioned even by a stock or a stone, which instantly becomes an object of resentment, that we are violently incited to crush to atoms. Such conduct is certainly not rational, and therefore it is supposed to be necessarily instinctive.

With respect to other passions, such as the lust of power, of fame, or of knowledge, innumerable instances, says Dr. Reid, occur in life, of men who sacrifice to them their ease, their pleasure, and their health. But it is absurd to suppose that men should sacrifice the end to what they

they desire only as means of promoting that end; and therefore he seems to think that these passions must be innate. To add strength to this reasoning, he observes that we may perceive some degree of these principles even in brute animals of the most sagacious kind, who are not thought to desire means for the sake of ends which they have in view. But it is in accounting for the passions which are disinterested that the advocates for innate principles seem most completely to triumph. As it is impossible not to feel the passion of pity upon the prospect of a fellow-creature in distress, they argue, that the basis of that passion must be innate; because pity, being at all times more or less painful to the person by whom it is felt, and frequently of no use to the person who is its object, it cannot in such instances be the result of deliberation, but merely the exertion of an original instinct. The same kind of reasoning is employed to prove that gratitude is the exercise of an innate principle. That good offices are, by the very constitution of our nature, apt to produce good-will towards the benefactor, in good and bad men, in the savage and in the civilized, cannot surely be denied by any one in the least acquainted with human nature. We are grateful not only to the benefactors of ourselves as individuals, but also to the benefactors of our country; and *that*, too, when we are conscious that from our gratitude neither they nor we can reap any advantage. Nay, we are impelled to be grateful even when we have reason to believe that the objects of our gratitude know not our existence. This passion cannot be the effect of reasoning, or of association founded on reasoning; for, in such cases as those mentioned, there are no principles from which reason can infer the propriety or usefulness of the feeling. That *public spirit*, or the affection which we bear to our country, or to any subordinate community of which we are members, is founded on instinct, is deemed so certain, that the man destitute of this affection, if there be any such, has been pronounced as great a monster as he who has two heads.

This reasoning has certainly great force; and, if authority could have any weight in settling a question of this nature, we know not that name to which greater deference is due than the name of him from whom it is taken. Yet it must be confessed that the philosophers, who consider the affections and passions as early and deep rooted *associations*, support their opinion with very plausible arguments. We have attended with much solicitude to the actions of children; and have no reason to think that they feel terror on the brink of a precipice till they have been repeatedly warned of their danger in such situations by their parents or their keepers. Every person knows not only that they have no original or instinctive dread of fire, which is as dangerous to them as any precipice; but that it is extremely difficult to keep them from that destructive element till they are either capable of weighing the force of arguments, or have repeatedly experienced the pain of being burnt by it. With respect to sudden resentment, we cannot help considering the argument which is brought in proof of its being instinctive, as proving the contrary in a very forcible manner. Instinct is some mysterious influence of God upon the mind, exciting to actions of beneficial tendency: but can any benefit arise from wreaking our impotent vengeance on a stock or a stone? or is it supposable that a Being of infinite wisdom would excite us to actions so extravagantly foolish? We learn from experience to defend ourselves against rational or sensible enemies, by retaliating the injuries which they inflict upon us; and, if we have been often injured in any particular manner, the idea of that injury becomes in time so closely associated with the means by which it has been constantly repelled, that we never receive such an injury—a blow for instance—without being prompted to make the usual retaliation, without reflecting whether the object be sensible or insensible. So far from being instinctive does resentment appear to us, that we think an attentive observer may easily per-

ceive how the seeds of it are gradually infused into the youthful mind; when the child, from being at first a timid creature shrinking from every pain, learns by degrees to return blow for blow and threat for threat.

But, instead of urging what appears to ourselves of most weight against the instinctive system, we shall lay before our readers a few extracts from a dissertation on the origin of the passions, by a writer whose elegance of language and ingenuity of investigation do honour to the school of Hartley. "When an infant is born (says Dr. Sayers), there is every reason to suppose that he is born without ideas. These are rapidly communicated through the medium of the senses. The same senses are also the means of conveying to him pleasure and pain. These are the hinges on which the passions turn: and till the child is acquainted with these sensations, it would appear that no passion could be formed in his mind; for, till he has felt pleasure and pain, how can he desire any object, or wish for its removal? How can he either love or hate? Let us observe then the manner in which love and hatred are formed; for on these passions depend all the rest. When a child endures pain, and is able to detect the cause of it, the idea of pain is connected in his mind with that of the thing which produced it; and, if the object which occasioned pain be again presented to the child, the idea of pain *associated* with it arises also. This idea consequently urges the child to avoid or to remove the object; and thus arises the passion of dislike or hatred. In the same manner, the passion of liking or love is readily formed in the mind of a child from the association of pleasant ideas with certain objects which produced them. The passions of hope and fear are states of the mind depending upon the good or bad prospects of gratifying love or hatred; and joy or sorrow arises from the final success or disappointment which attends the exertions produced by love or by hatred. Out of these passions, which have all a perceptible relation to our own good, and are universally acknowledged to be selfish, all our other passions are formed." *Disquisitions Metaphysical and Literary.*

Thus have we stated the two opposite theories respecting the origin of passions in the mind, and given our readers a short specimen of the reasonings by which they are supported by their respective patrons. Were we called upon to decide between them, we should be tempted to say, that they have both been carried to extremes by some of their advocates, and that the truth lies in the middle between them. "It is impossible (says Dr. Price,) but that creatures capable of pleasant and painful sensations, should love and choose the one, and dislike and avoid the other. No being who knows what happiness and misery are, can be supposed indifferent to them, without a plain contradiction. Pain is not a *possible* object of desire, nor happiness of aversion." To prefer a greater good, though distant, to a less good that is present, or to choose a present evil, in order to avoid a greater future evil, is indeed wise and rational conduct; but to choose evil ultimately, is absolutely impossible. Thus far then must be admitted, that every being possessed of sense and intellect necessarily desires his own good as soon as he knows what it is; but, if this knowledge be not innate, neither can the desire. Every human being comes into the world with a capability of knowledge, and of course with a capability of affections, desires, and passions; but it seems not to be conceivable how he can actually love, or hate, or dread, any thing, till he know whether it be good or ill, safe or dangerous. If, therefore, we have no *innate ideas*, we cannot possibly have *innate desires or aversions*. Those who contend that we have, seem to think, that without them reason would be insufficient, either for the preservation of the individual or the continuation of the species; and some writers have alleged, that if our affections and passions were the mere result of early *associations*, they would necessarily be more capricious than we ever find them. But this objection seems to arise from their not rightly understanding the theory

theory of their antagonists. The disciples of Locke and Hartley do not suppose it possible for any man in society to prevent such associations from being formed in his mind as shall necessarily produce desires and aversions; far less do they think it possible to form associations of ideas utterly repugnant, so as to desire that as good which his senses and intellect have experienced to be evil. Associations are formed by the very same means, and at the very same time, that ideas and notions are impressed upon the mind; but, as pain is never mistaken for pleasure by the senses, so an object which has given us only pain is never associated with any thing that makes it desirable. We say an object that has given us only pain, because it is possible to form such an association between life and the loss of a limb, as to make us grateful to the surgeon by whom it was amputated. Associations being formed according to the same laws by which knowledge is acquired, it by no means follows that passions resulting from them should be more capricious than they are found to be; and they certainly are sufficiently capricious to make us suspect that the greater part of them has this origin, rather than that they are all infused in the mind by the immediate agency of the Creator. If man be a being formed with no innate ideas, and with no other instinctive principles of action than what are absolutely necessary to preserve his existence and perpetuate the species, it is easy to perceive why he is placed in this world as in a state of probation, where he may acquire habits of virtue to fit him for a better. It is likewise easy to perceive why some men are better than others, and why some are the slaves of the most criminal passions. But all this is unintelligible, upon the supposition that the seeds of every passion are innate, and that man is a compound of reason and of instincts so numerous and various as to suit every circumstance in which he can be placed.

If passions be the result of early *associations*, it is of the utmost consequence that no improper associations be formed in the minds of children, and that none of their unreasoned desires be gratified. Upon this theory it seems indeed to depend almost wholly upon education, whether a child shall become a calm, benevolent, steady, and upright, man; or a passionate, capricious, selfish, miscreant. By teaching him to resent every petty injury, the seeds of irascibility are sown in his mind, and take such root, that before the age of manhood he becomes intolerable to all with whom he must converse. By exciting numberless desires in his youthful mind, and instantly gratifying them, you make him capricious and impatient of disappointment; and in representing other children as in any degree inferior to him, you inspire him with the hateful passion of pride. According to the instinctive theory, education can only augment or diminish the strength of the passions; according to the other theory, it is the source of by far the greater part of them. On either supposition, parents should watch with solicitude over the actions of their children; but they will surely think themselves obliged to be doubly watchful, if they believe, that through their neglect their children may acquire hateful passions, to which, if properly educated, they might have remained strangers through their whole lives. And let it be remembered, that this solicitude should begin at an early period; because the mind is susceptible of deep associations much sooner than is sometimes imagined. Without this susceptibility, no language could be learned; and therefore a child, by the time he learns to speak, may have planted in his mind the seeds of passions, on the just regulation and subordination of which depends, in a great measure, the happiness of mankind.

External Signs of the Passions.—So intimately connected are the soul and body, that every agitation in the former produces a visible effect upon the latter. There is, at the same time, a wonderful uniformity in that operation; each class of emotions and passions being invariably at-

tended with an external appearance peculiar to itself. These external appearances, or signs, may not improperly be considered as a natural language, expressing to all beholders emotions and passions as they rise in the heart. Hope, Fear, Joy, Grief, are displayed externally: the character of a man may be read in his face; and beauty, which makes so deep an impression, is known to result, not so much from regular features and a fine complexion, as from good-nature, good-sense, sprightliness, sweetness, or other mental qualities, expressed upon the countenance. Though perfect skill in that language be rare, yet what is generally known is sufficient for the ordinary purposes of life. But by what means we come to understand the language, is a point of some intricacy. It cannot be by sight merely; for, upon the most attentive inspection of the human visage, all that can be discerned are, figure, colour, and motion, which, singly or combined, never can represent a passion nor a sentiment: the external sign is indeed visible; but to understand its meaning, we must be able to connect it with the passion that causes it; an operation far beyond the reach of eye-sight. Where then is the instructor to be found that can unveil this secret connexion? If we apply to experience, it is found, that, from long and diligent observation, we may gather, in some measure, in what manner those we are acquainted with, express their passions externally; but, with respect to strangers, we are left in the dark; and yet we are not puzzled about the meaning of these external expressions in a stranger, more than in a bosom companion. Further; had we no other means but experience for understanding the external signs of passion, we could not expect any uniformity, nor any degree of skill in the bulk of individuals; yet matters are so much better ordered, that the external expressions of passion form a language understood by all, by the young as well as the old, by the ignorant as well as the learned: we talk of the plain and legible characters of that language; for undoubtedly we are much indebted to experience, in deciphering the dark and more delicate expressions. Where then shall we apply for a solution of this intricate problem, which seems to penetrate deep into human nature? Undoubtedly, if the meaning of external signs be not derived to us from sight, nor from experience, there is no remaining source whence it can be derived but from Nature.

We may then venture to pronounce, with some degree of confidence, that man is provided by nature with a sense or faculty that lays open to him every passion by means of its external expressions. And we cannot entertain any reasonable doubt of this, when we reflect, that the meaning of external signs is not hid even from infants: an infant is remarkably affected with the passions of its nurse expressed on her countenance; a smile cheers it, a frown makes it afraid: but fear cannot be without apprehending danger; and what danger can the infant apprehend, unless it be sensible that its nurse is angry? We must therefore admit, that a child can read *anger* in its nurse's face; of which it must be sensible intuitively, for it has no other mean of knowledge. We do not affirm, that these particulars are clearly apprehended by the child; for, to produce clear and distinct perceptions, reflection and experience are requisite: but that even an infant, when afraid, must have some notion of its being in danger, is evident.

That we should be conscious intuitively of a passion from its external expressions, is conformable to the analogy of nature: the knowledge of that language is of too great importance to be left upon experience; because a foundation so uncertain and precarious, would prove a great obstacle to the formation of societies. Wisely, therefore, is it ordered, and agreeably to the system of Providence, that we should have Nature for our instructor.

Such is the philosophy of lord Kames, to which objections unanswerable may be made. It is part of the instinctive

sensitive system of metaphysics, which his lordship has carried farther than all who wrote before him, and perhaps farther than all who have succeeded him in this department of science. "That a child intuitively reads anger in its nurse's face," say the objectors, "is so far from being true, that for some short time after birth it is not terrified by the most menacing gestures. It is indeed absolutely incapable of fear till it has suffered pain; and, could we constantly caress it with what is called an *angry look*, it would be cheered by that look, and frightened at a smile. It feels, however, the effects of anger, and is soon capable of observing the peculiarity of feature with which that passion is usually accompanied; and these two become in a short time so linked together in its tender mind, that the appearance of the one necessarily suggests to it the reality of the other.

"Should it be said that a loud and sudden noise startles a child immediately after birth, and that, therefore, the infant must be instinctively afraid, the fact may be admitted, without any necessity of admitting the inference. The nerves of an infant are commonly very irritable; and a strong impulse on the *auditory* nerves may agitate its whole frame, without inspiring it with the passion of fear. The loud noise is in all probability not the sign of approaching danger, but the immediate cause of real pain, from which the infant shrinks as it would from the prick of a pin or the scorching of a candle."

Manifold and admirable are the purposes to which the external signs of passion are made subservient by the Author of our nature.

1. The signs of internal agitation displayed externally to every spectator, tend to fix the signification of many words. The only effectual means to ascertain the meaning of any doubtful word, is an appeal to the thing it represents; and hence the ambiguity of words expressive of things that are not objects of external sense; for in that case an appeal is denied. Passion, strictly speaking, is not an object of external sense: but its external signs, are: and, by means of these signs, passions may be appealed to with tolerable accuracy; thus the words that denote our passions, next to those that denote external objects, have the most distinct meaning. Words signifying internal action and the more delicate feelings, are less distinct.

2. Society among individuals is greatly promoted by that universal language. Looks and gestures give direct access to the heart; and lead us to select, with tolerable accuracy, the persons who are worthy of our confidence. It is surprising how quickly, and for the most part how correctly, we judge of character from external appearance.

3. After social intercourse is commenced, these external signs, which diffuse through a whole assembly the feelings of each individual, contribute above all other means to improve the social affections. Language, no doubt is the most comprehensive vehicle for communicating emotions: but in expedition, as well as in power of conviction, it falls short of the signs under consideration, the involuntary signs especially, which are incapable of deceit. Where the countenance, the tones, the gestures, the actions, join with the words in communicating emotions, these united have a force irresistible. Thus all the pleasant emotions of the human heart, with all the social and virtuous affections, are, by means of these external signs, not only perceived, but felt. By this admirable contrivance, conversation becomes that lively and animating amusement, without which life would at best be insipid: one joyful countenance spreads cheerfulness instantaneously through a multitude of spectators.

4. Diffocial passions, being hurtful by prompting violence and mischief, are noted by the most conspicuous external signs, in order to put us upon our guard: thus anger and revenge, especially when sudden, display themselves on the countenance in legible characters. The ex-

ternal signs, again, of every passion that threatens danger, raise in us the passion of fear; which frequently operating without reason or reflection, moves us by a sudden impulse to avoid the impending danger.

5. These external signs are remarkably subservient to morality. A painful passion, being accompanied with disagreeable external signs, must produce in every spectator a painful emotion: but then, if the passion be social, the emotion it produces is attractive, and connects the spectator with the person who suffers. Diffocial passions only are productive of repulsive emotions, involving the spectator's aversion, and frequently his indignation. This artful contrivance makes us cling to the virtuous and abhor the wicked.

6. Of all the external signs of passion, those of affliction or distress are the most illustrious with respect to a final cause, and deservedly merit a place of distinction. They are illustrious by the singularity of their contrivance; and also by inspiring sympathy, a passion to which human society is indebted for its greatest blessing, that of providing relief for the distressed. A subject so interesting deserves a leisurely and attentive examination. The conformity of the nature of man to his external circumstances is in every particular wonderful: his nature makes him prone to society; and society is necessary to his well-being, because, in a solitary state, he is a helpless being, destitute of support, and, in his distresses, destitute of relief: but mental support, the shining attribute of society, is of too great moment to be left dependent upon cool reason; it is ordered more wisely, and with greater conformity to the analogy of nature, that it should be enforced even instinctively by the passion of sympathy. Here sympathy makes a capital figure; and contributes, more than any other means, to make life easy and comfortable. But however essential the sympathy of others may be to our well-being, one beforehand would not readily conceive how it could be raised by external signs of distress; for, considering the analogy of nature, if these signs be agreeable, they must give birth to a pleasant emotion, leading every beholder to be pleased with human woes: if disagreeable, as they undoubtedly are, ought they not naturally to repel the spectator from them, in order to be relieved from pain? Such would be the reasoning beforehand; and such would be the effect were man purely a selfish being. But the benevolence of our nature gives a very different direction to the painful passion of sympathy, and to the desire involved in it: instead of avoiding distress, we fly to it in order to afford relief; and our sympathy cannot be otherwise gratified but by giving all the succour in our power. Thus external signs of distress, though disagreeable, are attractive; and the sympathy they inspire is a powerful cause, impelling us to afford relief even to a stranger, as if he were our friend or relation.

To conclude: the external signs of passion are a strong indication, that man, by his very constitution, is framed to be open and sincere. A child, in all things obedient to the impulses of nature, hides none of its emotions; the savage and clown, who have no guide but pure nature, expose their hearts to view, by giving way to all the natural signs. And, even when men learn to dissemble their sentiments, and when behaviour degenerates into art, there still remain checks, that keep dissimulation within bounds, and prevent a great part of its mischievous effects: the total suppression of the voluntary signs during any vivid passion, begets the utmost uneasiness, which cannot be endured for any considerable time: this operation becomes indeed less painful by habit; but, luckily, the involuntary signs cannot, by any effort, be suppressed, or even dissembled. An absolute hypocrisy, by which the character is concealed and a fictitious one assumed, is made impracticable; and nature has thereby prevented much harm to society. We may pronounce, therefore, that nature, herself sincere and candid, intends that mankind should preserve the same character,

by cultivating simplicity and truth, and banishing every sort of dissimulation that tends to mischief.

The annexed Engraving contains sixteen figures of the external expressions of the passions, from the drawings of Le Brun: for, though the arms, and indeed every part of the body, serve likewise, by their quick, languid, and variously-diversified, motions, to express the passions of the soul; yet this difference is most conspicuous in the face.

Fig. 1. *Tranquillity*.—This is the natural expression of the countenance, and may be taken as a standard from which the changes in the following figures are derived.

2. *Joy*.—Very little alteration is remarked in the face of those that feel within themselves the sweetness of joy, or Joy with *Tranquillity*. The forehead is serene; the eye-brow without motion, elevated in the middle; the eye pretty open, and with a laughing air; the eyeball lively and shining; the corners of the mouth turn up a little; the complexion is lively; the cheeks and lips are red.

3. *Admiration*—causes but little agitation in the mind, and therefore alters but very little the parts of the face: nevertheless the eyebrow rises; the eye opens a little more than ordinary; the eyeball placed equally between the eyelids appear fixed on the object; the mouth half opens, but makes no sensible alteration in the cheeks.

4. The motions that accompany *Admiration with Astonishment* are hardly different from those of simple *Admiration*, only they are more lively and stronger marked: the eyebrows more elevated; the eyes more open; the eyeball further from the lower eyelid, and more steadily fixed: the mouth is more open, and all the parts in a much stronger emotion.

5. In *Rapture*—the head inclines to the right side; the eyeballs and eyebrows rise directly up; the mouth half opens, and the two corners are also a little turned up: the other parts remain in their natural state.

6. *Love*.—Chaste love causes the most delightful expression of countenance, to which an engraver can hardly do justice. The head inclines to the left side; the lips are gently dissevered, though the mouth cannot be said to be open; and the spirits being in motion give a lively glowing colour.

7. *Hatred or Jealousy*—wrinkles the forehead; the eyebrows are sunk down and knit; the eye-ball is half hid under the eyebrows, which turn toward the object; the side next the nose sinks down, and the other side rises very much; the nostrils rise, and draw towards the eyes, and make wrinkles in the cheeks; the mouth shuts, its sides sinking down, and the under-lip is pushed out beyond the upper one.

8. An object hated sometimes causes *Horror*; and then the eyebrow knits, and sinks a great deal more. The eyeball, placed at the bottom of the eye, is half covered by the lower eyelid; the mouth is half open, but closer in the middle than the sides, which being drawn back, makes wrinkles in the cheeks; the face grows pale, and the eyes become livid; the muscles and the veins are marked.

9. The violence of *Terror*, or *Affright*, alters all the parts of the face: the eyebrow rises in the middle; its muscles are marked, swelled, pressed one against the other, and sunk towards the nose, which draws up as well as the nostrils; the eyes are very open; the upper eyelid is hid under the eyebrow; the white of the eye is encompassed with red; the eyeball fixes toward the lower part of the eye; the lower part of the eyelid swells and becomes livid; the muscles of the nose and cheeks swell, and these last terminate in a point toward the sides of the nostrils; the mouth is very open, and its corners very apparent; the muscles and veins of the neck stretched; the hair stands on end; the colour of the face, that is, the end of the nose, the lips, the ears, and

round the eyes, is pale and livid; and all ought to be strongly marked.

10. *Despair*.—The forehead wrinkles from the top to the bottom; the eyebrows bend down over the eyes, and press one another on the sides of the nose; the eye seems to be on fire, and full of blood; the eyeball is disturbed, hid under the eyebrow, sparkling and unfixed; the eyelid is swelled and livid; the nostrils are large, open, and lifted up; the end of the nose sinks down; the muscles, tendons, and veins, are swelled and stretched; the upper part of the cheeks is large, marked, and narrow towards the jaw; the mouth, drawn backwards, is more open at the sides than in the middle; the lower lip is large and turned out; they gnash their teeth; they foam; they bite their lips, which are pale, as is the rest of the face; the hair is straight, and stands on end.

11. The effects of *Anger* show its nature. The eyes become red and inflamed; the eyeball is staring and sparkling; the eyebrows are sometimes elevated and sometimes sunk down equally: the forehead is very much wrinkled, with wrinkles between the eyes; the nostrils are open and enlarged; the lips pressing against one another, the under one rising over the upper one, leaves the corners of the mouth a little open, making a cruel and disdainful grin.

12. In this figure it has been endeavoured to combine the expression of *Anger mixed with Fear*.

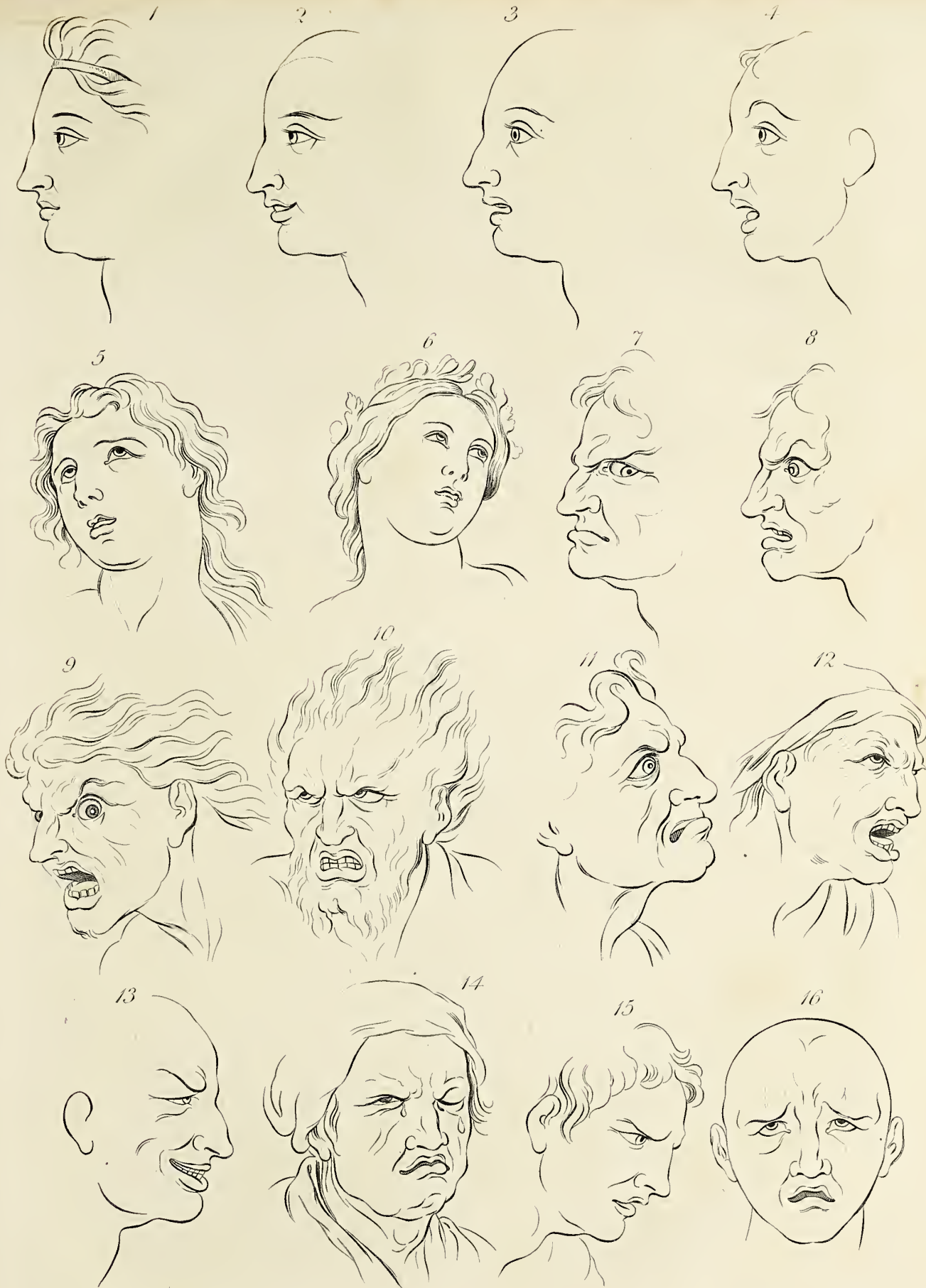
13. *Laughter*,—which is produced by joy mixed with surprise, makes the eyebrow rise towards the middle of the eye, and bend towards the sides of the nose; the eyes are almost shut, and sometimes appear wet, or shed tears, which make no alteration in the face; the mouth, half open, shows the teeth; the corners of the mouth, drawn back, cause a wrinkle in the cheeks, which appear so swelled as to hide the eyes in some measure; the nostrils are open, and all the face is of a red colour.

14. The alterations that *Weeping* occasions are strongly marked. The eyebrows sink down towards the middle of the forehead; the eyes are almost closed, wet, and drawn down towards the cheeks; the nostrils swelled; the muscles and veins of the forehead appear; the mouth is shut, and the sides of it are drawn down, making wrinkles on the cheeks; the under lip, pushed out, presses the upper one: all the face is wrinkled and contracted; its colour is red, especially about the eyebrows, the eyes, the nose, and the cheeks.

15. The lively attention to the misfortunes of another, which is called *Compassion*, causes the eyebrows to sink towards the middle of the forehead; the eyeball to be fixed upon the object; the sides of the nostrils next the nose to be a little elevated, making wrinkles in the cheeks; the mouth to be open; the upper lip to be lifted up and thrust forwards; the muscles and all the parts of the face sinking down, and turning towards the object which excites the passion.

16. *Acute Pain*—makes the eyebrows approach one another, and rise towards the middle; the eyeball is hid under the eyebrows; the nostrils rise, and make a wrinkle in the cheeks; the mouth half opens, and draws back; all the parts of the face are agitated in proportion to the violence of the suffering, whether mental or bodily, or both.

The influence of the passions on the thoughts and language, is a matter of universal experience and observation. When any subject presents itself to the mind with sufficient force to excite a passion, or very strong affections, all the powers of the imagination become immediately active, the whole soul is engaged upon its object, and the whole train of ideas is turned into a channel correspondent with the view we entertain of them. This state of mind not only manifests itself by gestures, looks, and tones, correspondent with the nature of the passion, but it has a characteristic influence upon the language and expressions employed to give vent to the passion,



External Signs of the Passions; from Le Brun.

passion, as it is emphatically termed. Upon the first impulse, the thoughts are tumultuous and confused; but, as the *passion* approaches somewhat nearer to an *affection*, the mind recovers in some degree its power over itself; though still, as it continues to feel strongly, it is eager to do justice to its feelings, by the strength, pertinency, and impetuosity, of its language. Impetuosity equally despises precision or detail: it eagerly seizes upon tropes and figures the most concise and the most suited to its new conceptions. When passions and emotions give place to more permanent affections, language becomes less vehement and more diffuse. Nature has accommodated the mode of utterance to the character of the passion; thus it has rendered Joy loud and vociferous, producing strong exclamations mixed with triumphant laughter. Sorrow communicates a plaintiveness to the voice, best adapted to wailings and lamentations. Anger is loud and turbulent; the voice rises with the passion in order to strike terror and silence opposition. Fear is oppressed and breathless, or screams aloud for help. Love is soft, soothing, insinuating, and gentle; sometimes assuming the plaintiveness of sorrow, sometimes the vivacity of hope, and the transports of joy.

The nature of the passions and affections indulged, and of the objects by which they are excited, and the degree of influence and permanency which they are allowed to exert upon us, constitute the moral characters of men; pointing out their innocence, their excellencies, or their defects. By *character* is generally understood the kind of reputation acquired by the prevalent disposition or temper, which suggests almost every motive, and takes the lead in almost every action; and *moral character* refers to that prevalent temper which relates to moral obligation, respecting either ourselves or others. The cardinal affections of Love and Hatred, in themselves, possess neither merit nor demerit. It is neither a duty, nor a possibility, to divest ourselves of them. The passions, emotions, and affections, which are immediately consequent upon these, or may be deemed simple modifications of them, are also inseparable from our nature, and are both unavoidable and innocent: such as Joy, Contentment, Hope, Desire, Fear, Sorrow, Anger, Repentment, &c. Virtue, however, directs, restrains, and controls their influence.

There is another distinction of the passions and affections, as they relate to the moral character, indicating a scale of comparative merit and demerit. Some are innocent simply, as Hope, Joy, moderate Grief. Some are laudable, as Contentment, Satisfaction, Complacency. Others are deemed peculiarly noble; thus the virtue of Benevolence is much more dignified than any of the affections that originate and terminate in *self*. And in the different branches of this virtue there are also degrees of excellence. But sentiments of this kind are familiar and obvious to the reader, and it is needless to enlarge. Upon the whole it appears, that character depends upon the prevalent use or abuse of certain propensities or affections of our natures. Those who select and cultivate the most beneficial, are the best of characters; those who are habituated to the most injurious, are the worst.

With regard to the influence of the passions and affections on happiness, we may observe, that, although the desire of good is in reality the cause of every passion, emotion, and affection, yet the immediate effects of each on our sensations are correspondent to its own specific nature. The influence of some is productive of temporary well-being; while others are comfortless, irksome, or productive of a great degree of wretchedness. Love, placed upon a deserving object, and recompensed with a reciprocal affection, Joy, Ecstasy, Complacency, Satisfaction, Contentment, lively Hope, are decidedly sources of personal enjoyment. The social affections of Benevolence, Sympathy, Compassion, and Mercy, are also other ingredients of happiness, from a less selfish and more refined source than the preceding. Every species of bene-

volence possesses the quality our great dramatic poet has ascribed to a merciful disposition:

The quality of mercy's not restrain'd:
It droppeth as the gentle rain from heaven
Upon the land beneath. It is twice blest'd;
It blesses him that *gives*, and him that *takes*.

Emotions and affections of another class are of the unquiet and irritating class: as the whole family of Anger. The emotions and affections of Fear, Dread, Horror, Despair, are of the most shocking and tremendous class. Excessive Jealousy, Envy, Remorse, Despair, Shame, arising from the detection of guilt, are misery unmixed. Surprise, Wonder, Astonishment, principally receive their complexion from the subjects that inspire them: and they are introductory to happiness or misery according to the nature of the cause that excites them.

On the importance of studying the passions, Mr. Colman thus writes: "It is according as the passions are exercised on good or bad objects that we rise into respectability or sink into contempt; that we enjoy happiness or suffer misery. An attention, therefore, to the workings of our own minds must be of considerable importance. The study of the passions is as necessary as the study of anatomy to a surgeon; for it is, in a moral view the anatomy of the heart, whereby it may be discovered whether our minds are in a sound state or not." The great object which we ought to propose to ourselves is to acquire a firm and composed mind, to obey religion and truth, and to listen calmly to the voice of conscience and reason. To govern the passions or affections, we should first ascertain the proper object of their pursuit, and then restrain them in that pursuit, lest they should go beyond the bounds of reason. Perhaps the due regulation of them may require great resolution, much self-denial, and long perseverance. But by continued exertions, with a dependence on the divine aid, we may at length obtain a complete conquest over our evil passions, and know how to guide and improve the use of those which are good.

We will give but one instance in illustration of the benefit and necessity of moderating and governing even the laudable passions, and it shall be taken from the first emotion (as we may say) that appears on our engraving; *Joy*. Joy, kept within due bounds, strengthens the body and mind, and exhilarates the animal spirits; not kept within due bounds, how fatal may be its effects! Pliny informs us, (lib. vii. §. 7.) that Chilo the Lacedæmonian died upon hearing that his son had gained a prize in the Olympic games. Valerius Maximus tells us, (lib. ix. cap. 12.) that Sophocles, the tragic writer, in a contest of honour, died in consequence of a decision being pronounced in his favour. Aulus Gellius (Not. Attic. lib. iii. cap. 15.) mentions a remarkable instance of the effects of what may be termed accumulated joy, in Diagoras, who expired at the instant when his three sons were crowned in the same day as victors; the one as a pugilist, the other as a wrestler, and the third in both capacities. Livy also (lib. 22. cap. 7.) mentions the instance of an aged matron, who, while she was in the depth of distress, from the tidings of her son's having been slain in battle, died in his arms from the excess of joy upon his safe return. We are also told by the Italian historian Guicciardini, that Leo X. died of a fever, occasioned by the agitation of his spirits, on his receiving the joyful news of the capture of Milan, concerning which he had entertained the most painful anxiety.

To PASS'ION, *v. n.* [*passionner*, old Fr.] To be extremely agitated; to express great commotion of mind. *Obsolete.*

'Twas Ariadne *passioning*
For Theseus' perjury and unjust flight. *Shakespeare.*

PASS'ION-FLOWER, *f.* See PASSIFLORA.—The *passion-flower*, or Virginian climber: the first of these names

names was given it by the Jesuits, who pretended to find in it all the instruments of our Lord's passion. *Note to Cowley.*

PASS'ION-SUN'DAY. The fifth Sunday in Lent has in the Romish church the appellation of Passion-Sunday, which latter title the sixth or Palm Sunday bears in the reformed calendar, from the circumstance of the death or passion of our Saviour being commemorated in the week of which Palm (or our Passion) Sunday is the first day. The Latins are stated to have called this fifth Sunday in Lent *Passion Sunday*, instead of the sixth, thereby anticipating its true station by a week, because they had established ceremonies for the latter, appropriate to its other name of Palm Sunday, which precluded the performance of the rites deemed applicable to the solemn occasion from whence they denominated their Passion Sunday: rites which they formerly carried to an excess of superstition, not surpassed by any of their usages. In the north of England there are yet to be found some vestiges of the superstitious observances of this day, which, before the Reformation, were general throughout the kingdom. Among other of the old ceremonies, soft beans were distributed as a kind of dole, to denote this season of grief; a custom perhaps derived from Pagan Rome, offerings of that species of pulse having been deemed by the Heathens peculiarly propitious in appeasing the ghosts of the departed. Instead of beans, our northern countrymen use grey pease in their repast of this day, especially in Northumberland: in some places they are first parboiled, and then parched; in other districts, they are only parched: and the day is still known by the name of Care or Carling Sunday, in Durham and the adjoining counties; a title it once universally bore in England, though now no longer noticed in our calendar, signifying a day of especial care, or devotional attention. The serving-up of beans or of grey-pease, as a repast on this day, is a sufficient evidence of mortification and abstinence, without seeking for any hidden meaning or superstitious tradition.

PASSION WEEK. The week immediately preceding Easter, of which the sixth Sunday in Lent, or Palm Sunday, is the first day. See the preceding article.

PASSIONARY, *f.* [*passionaire*, old Fr. *passionarius*, low Lat.] A book describing the sufferings of saints and martyrs.—It is collected from Bede, Alfred of Beverley, Malmesbury, Giraldus Cambrensis, Higden's Polychronicon, and the *Passionaries* of the female saints, Werburg, Ethelred, and Sexburgh, which were kept for public edification in the choir of the church. *Warton's Hist. E. P.*

PASSIONATE, *adj.* [*passionné*, Fr.] Moved by passion: feeling or expressing great commotion of mind.—Thucydides observes, that men are much more *passionate* for injustice than for violence; because the one coming as from an equal seems rapine; when the other proceeding from one stronger is but the effect of necessity. *Clarendon.*—Men, upon the near approach of death, have been roused up into such a lively sense of their guilt, such a *passionate* degree of concern and remorse, that, if ten thousand ghosts had appeared to them, they scarce could have had a fuller conviction of their danger. *Atterbury.*—Easily moved to anger.—Homer's Achilles is haughty and *passionate*, impatient of any restraint by laws, and arrogant in arms. *Prior.*

To PASSIONATE, *v. a.* To affect with passion. *Obsolete.*

Great pleasure, mix'd with pitiful regard,
That godly king and queen did *passionate*,
Whilst they his pitiful adventures heard.

Spenser.

To express passionately:

Thy niece and I want hands,
And cannot *passionate* our tenfold grief
With folded arms.

Titus Andronicus.

PASSIONATELY, *adv.* With passion; with desire, love or hatred; with great commotion of mind.—Who-

ever *passionately* covets any thing he has not, has lost his hold. *L'Estrange.*—If sorrow expresses itself never so loudly and *passionately*, and discharge itself in never so many tears, yet it will no more purge a man's heart than the washing of his hands can cleanse the rottenness of his bones. *South's Sermons.*—I made Melesinda, in opposition to Nourmahal, a woman *passionately* loving of her husband, patient of injuries and contempt, and constant in her kindness. *Dryden.*—Angrily.—They lay the blame on the poor little ones, sometimes *passionately* enough, to divert it from themselves. *Locke.*

PASSIONATENESS, *f.* State of being subject to passion.—Vehemence of mind.—To love with some *passionateness* the person you would marry, is not only allowable but expedient. *Boyle.*

PASSIONED, *adj.* Disordered; violently affected:

Great wonder had the knight to see the maid
So strangely *passioned*.

Spenser.

Expressing passion:

By lively actions he gan bewray
Some argument of matter *passioned*.

Spenser.

PASSIONEI (Dominico), cardinal, was born of a noble family at Fossombrone in the duchy of Urbino, in 1682. He was educated at the Clementine college in Rome, where he began to collect the copious library which he afterwards rendered so useful to men of learning. In 1706 he visited Paris, and contracted an acquaintance with all the eminent scholars of that metropolis, especially Mabillon and Montfaucon. He went to Holland in 1708, where he did not confine himself to objects of literature, but essayed his talents as a negociator. The belligerent powers in the Spanish-succession war had sent their deputies thither to treat of peace; and pope Clement XI. who could not have a nuncio in that country, secretly commissioned Passionei to take care of the interests of the holy see. His efforts were successful in procuring the evacuation of the papal territories by the German troops. He was recompensed in 1713 by the posts of privy chamberlain and domestic prelate to that pope. In 1714 he was sent to the congress at Basil, and in 1715 to Soleure; and in both those legations he displayed equal zeal and dexterity, and obtained the approbation of Clement, who, in 1719, nominated him secretary to the College of Propaganda. The succeeding pontiff, Innocent XIII. made him titular archbishop of Ephesus, and appointed him to the nunciature of Switzerland, which he kept till 1730. He was then sent by Clement XII. as nuncio to the court of Vienna, where he was highly distinguished by the emperor Charles VI. and prince Eugene. In this situation he had the credit of effecting by his pious labours the conversion to the Roman-catholic religion of the learned Eccard (see vol. vi. p. 223.) and the prince of Wirtemberg. In 1738 he was made secretary of the briefs, and honoured with the purple, and at the same was incorporated in all the congregations of Rome. Benedict XIV. entrusted him with the most important affairs, and in 1755 nominated him to the office of librarian of the Vatican. He exerted himself in augmenting the riches of this celebrated collection, and extended its usefulness by his correspondence. The Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-lettres chose him in the same year one of its foreign associates. This cardinal died of an apoplexy in 1761, at the mature age of seventy-nine. He was justly regarded as a great benefactor to learning, by the generous assistance he afforded to its votaries, and the liberal communication of his literary treasures. He was himself a writer: he joined Fontanini in a revision of The Liber diurnus Romanorum Pontificum; and wrote some Scriptural Paraphrases and Translations, and a Funeral Oration on Prince Eugene. He also compiled the "Acta Legationis Helveticae," folio, an useful guide to future nuncios. His nephew Benedict Passionei published at Lucca, in 1765, a volume

volume in folio, containing all the Latin and Greek inscriptions collected by this cardinal. *Gen. Biog.*

PASS'IONLESS, *adj.* Not easily moved to anger; cool; undisturbed.—An honest, noble, wary, retired, and *passionless*, woman. *Shelton's Don Quixote*.—The stricter examination of a now *passionless* judgement. *Instruct. for Oratory*.

PASS'IR, a town on the east coast of the island of Borneo, on a river which runs into the straits of Macassar, about 45 miles from its mouth, with two fathoms water. The town contains about 300 wooden houses, chiefly inhabited by merchants, who carry on a great deal of trade. The sultan, a Malay prince, has a house and wooden fort a little way from the river. Lat. 1. 57. S. lon. 116. 10. E.

PASS'IVE, *adj.* [*passif*, Fr. *passivus*, Lat.] Receiving impression from some external agent.—As the mind is wholly *passive* in the reception of all its simple ideas, so it exerts several acts of its own, whereby, out of its simple ideas, the other is formed. *Locke*.—The vis inertia is a *passive* principle by which bodies persist in their motion or rest, receive motion in proportion to the force impressing it, and resist as much as they are resisted: by this principle alone, there never could have been any motion in the world. *Newton's Optics*.

High above the ground
Their march was, and the *passive* air upbore
Their nimble tread.

Milton's P. L.

Unresisting; not opposing:

Not those alone, who, *passive*, own her laws,
But who, weak rebels, more advance her cause. *Pope*.

Suffering; not acting.—[In grammar.]—A verb *passive* is that which signifies passion, or the effect of action: as, *doceor*, I am taught. *Clarke's Lat. Gram.*

PASSIVE OBEDIENCE, a doctrine held by the non-jurors, or high-churchmen, who maintained, that it was never lawful for the people, under any provocation or pretext whatever, to resist their sovereign. This doctrine has been warmly opposed by many, who think it both lawful and necessary, in certain circumstances, and in cases of an urgent and momentous nature, to resist the prince for the happiness of the people. In the present advanced state of civil and religious liberty, this doctrine is now almost exploded in our country.

PASSIVE PRAYER, in the language of mystic divines, is a total suspension of the intellectual faculties, in virtue whereof, the soul remains, of itself, and as to its own power, impotent with regard to the producing of any effects. The *passive* state, says Fenelon, is only *passive* in the same sense as contemplation is so; i. e. it does not exclude peaceable disinterested acts, but only unquiet ones, or such as tend to our own interest. In the *passive* state, the soul has not properly any activity, any sensation of its own: it is a mere infinite flexibility of the soul, to which the feeblest impulse of grace gives motion.

PASSIVE VERBS. The English verbs become *passive*, by taking the auxiliary verb *I am*, in lieu of *I have*, with which the active are conjugated; the French, by *Je suis*, in lieu of *J'ay*; the Italian, by *Io so*, for *Io ho*, &c. Latin verbs become *passive*, by changing their terminations; as *amor* for *amo*, &c. *amari* for *amare*, &c. English verbs *passive* are nothing else, in effect, but the verb *I am* in all its inflexions, joined to the participle *passive*; as, "I am praised;" in Latin *laudor*; in French, *Je suis loué*; "I have been praised," *J'ay été loué*, *Laudatus sum*, &c.

Mr. Harris, who considers all verbs, that are strictly so called, as energies, distinguishes active and passive verbs in the following manner. Every energy, he says, is naturally situate between two substantives; an energizer, which is active, and a subject, which is passive. Hence then, if the energizer lead the sentence, the energy follows its character, and becomes what we call a

verb active. Thus we say, *Brutus amat*, Brutus loves. On the contrary, if the passive subject be principal, it follows the character of this too; and becomes what we call a verb passive. Thus we say, *Portia amatur*, Portia is loved.

PASSIVELY, *adv.* With a passive nature:

Though some are *passively* inclin'd,
The greater part degenerate from their kind. *Dryden*.

Without agency.—A man may not only *passively* and involuntarily be rejected, but also may, by an act of his own, cast out or reject himself. *Pearson*.—[In grammar.] According to the form of a verb passive.—A verb neuter is englished sometimes actively, as *curro*, I run; and sometimes *passively*, as *ægroto*, I am sick. *Lilly*.

PASSIVENESS, *f.* Quality of receiving impression from external agents:

You know a spirit cannot wounded be,
Nor wear such marks of human *passiveness*. *Beaumont*.

Passibility; power of suffering.—We shall lose our *passiveness* with our being, and be as incapable of suffering as heaven can make us. *Decay of Chr. Piety*.—Patience; calmness.—Gravity and *passiveness* in children is not from discretion, but phlegm. *Fell*.

PASSIV'ITY, *f.* *Passiveness*.—An innovated word, Dr. Johnson says; citing only the authority of Cheyne. It had been in use long before Cheyne's application of it, and has not been neglected since. *Todd*.—From this *passivity* in the mines and gallsies, to attain to a joy and voluptuousness in the employment. *Hammond*.—Some things are less active and more passive than others, are not so capable of enjoyments delectable unto others, and more subject to impressions distasteful to their particular nature: which *passivities* and displeasure are not simply evils, because they do suit the degree of the particular natures of those subjects, being also ever overbalanced with other pleasing activities and enjoyments. *Barrow on the Creed*.—There being no mean between penetrability and impenetrability, between *passivity* and activity, these being contrary and opposite, the infinite rarefaction of the one quality is the position of its contrary. *Cheyne's Philos. Principles*.—*Passivity* can only in the order of nature be consequent upon activity, as much as effect can only be consequent upon cause. *A. Baxter on the Soul*.

PASS'LESS, *adj.* Having no passage:

Behold what *passless* rocks on either hand,
Like prison-walls about them stand.

Cowley.

PAS'SO, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira: seven miles east-south-east of Lamego.

PASSO'DI MOI'A, a town of Naples, in Capitanata: seventeen miles west-south-west of Viesta.

PASS'OVER, *f.* [*pass* and *over*.] A feast instituted among the Jews in memory of the time when God, smiting the first-born of the Egyptians, *passed over* the habitations of the Hebrews.—The Jews' *passover* was at hand, and Jesus went up. *St. John*, ii. 13.—The Lord's *passover*, commonly called Easter, was ordered by the common law to be celebrated every year on a Sunday. *Ayliffe's Parergon*.—The sacrifice killed.—Take a lamb, and kill the *passover*. *Exod.* xii. 21.

The *passover* was celebrated on the fourteenth day of the moon next after the vernal equinox, or the 14th day of the first month of the ecclesiastical year, which commenced with the flight of the Israelites out of Egypt; and which had the two names of Abib and Nisan. On the 14th day at even, the paschal lamb was to be killed and eaten; and from thence the feast was to be kept seven days, till the 21st. *Exod.* xii. 6, 8, 15. *Lev.* xxiii. 5, 6.

In the time of Joshua, Samuel, Hezekiah, and Josiah, and after the return from Babylon, it was kept with great care. See *Josh.* v. 2. *Chron.* xxx. 2. *Kings* xxiii. *Ezra* vi. 19. Perhaps, after the blood of the *passover*-lambs came to be sprinkled on the altar, they no more

9 H. sprinkled.

sprinkled it on their doors. It is certain, from the instance of our Saviour, that they did not that night confine themselves to their houses.

This feast was called, by the ancient Latins and Greeks, *pascha*, not from *πασχω*, "I suffer," as Chrysostom, Irenæus, and Tertullian, imagine, but from the Hebrew *פסח*, *pesach*, "passage, leap;" the design of the feast being to commemorate the destroying angel's *passing-over* the houses of the Israelites, when he entered in, and destroyed the first-born in those of the Egyptians. *Exod. xii. 27.*

The Greeks, some of the Catholic doctors, and several considerable critics, from the thirteenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth, chapters of St. John, take occasion to conclude, that Jesus anticipated the day marked for the passover in the law; but the authority of three evangelists seems to evince the contrary. (See Whitby's Dissertation on this subject, in an appendix to the fourteenth chapter of St. Mark.) He, no doubt kept it on the very night on which the other Jews observed it; otherwise his adversaries, who so eagerly fought for matter of accusation, would have fixed on this.

The Jews still observe a kind of passover, mingling most of the ancient rites with many modern inventions. Thus we are told that, after the destruction of Jerusalem, the Jews found it requisite to make a law that the first two days of the passover should be kept with peculiar strictness, instead of one; and, also the seventh and eighth days, instead of ending on the seventh; so that, according to this regulation, the passover is now kept eight days. All the other festivals which, before that time, were celebrated only one day, are now ordered to be observed two days, *Yom Kipur*, or the Day of Atonement, excepted; and this is still celebrated, as originally commanded, from *eve* to *eve*.

Among the ancient Jews at Jerusalem, it was customary, when criminals had been condemned to death, to reserve them for execution till the celebration of the most solemn feasts, of which there were three in the year; viz. the Passover, the Feast of Weeks, and the Feast of Tabernacles. Then, when the Jews came up to Jerusalem to sacrifice, these malefactors were executed, in order "that all Israel might see, and fear." *Time's Telescope*, 1815. *Brown's Dict. Bible.*

PASSOURA, *f.* in botany, a genus of Aublet's, of which the flower is totally unknown. He describes the fruit as follows: "Pericarpium: capsula oblong, triangular, of one cell, and three valves; seeds orbicular, three affixed to a longitudinal partition in the middle of each valve." No account is given of the origin of the name. The tree, which is a native of the Timoutou woods in Guiana, and bore fruit in May, is described by Aublet as having a trunk sixteen or eighteen feet high, branched to the summit; leaves opposite, stalked, ovate, acute, smooth, entire; fruit forming a terminal spike, yellowish. Seeds spherical, green.

PASS'PORT, *f.* [*passport*, Fr.] Permission of passage. —Under that pretext, fain she would have given a secret *passport* to her affection. *Sidney.*

Let him depart; his *passport* shall be made,
And crowns for convoy put into his purse. *Shakespeare.*

PASSUMACAN' BAY, a bay on the east coast of the island of Luçon: fifteen miles south of Cape Engano.

PASSUM'SICK, a river of North America, in Vermont, which runs into the Connecticut.

PASS'US, *f.* A Roman measure of length, being about four feet ten inches, or the thousandth part of a Roman mile. The word properly signifies, the space betwixt the feet of a man walking at an ordinary rate. See MEASURE, vol. xiv. p. 600.

PASSY, a small town of France, nearly adjoining to Paris on the west. See the article PARIS, p. 494.

PASSY-MEASURE, *f.* [*passamezzo*, Ital.] An old stately kind of dance; a cinque-pace. See PASSING-

MEASURE.—After a *passy-measure*, or a pavin, I hate a drunken rogue. *Shakespeare's Tw. Night.*

PASSYUNK, a town of America, in Philadelphia county, Pennsylvania, containing 884 inhabitants.

PAST, *part. adj.* [from *pass*.] Not present; not to come. —*Past* and to come seem best; things present, worst. *Shakespeare.*

This not alone has shone on ages *past*,
But lights the present, and shall warm the last. *Pope.*
Spent; gone through; undergone.—A life of glorious labours *past*. *Pope.*

PAST, *f.* Elliptically used for *past* time:

The *past* is all by death possest,
And frugal fate that guards the rest,
By giving bids us live to-day. *Fenton.*

PAST, *prep.* Beyond in time.—Sarah was delivered of a child, when she was *past* age. *Heb. xi. 11.*—No longer capable of.—Fervent prayers he made, when he was esteemed *past* sense, and so spent his last breath in committing his soul unto the Almighty. *Hayward.*

Past hope of conquest, 'twas his latest care
Like falling Cæsar decently to die. *Dryden.*

Beyond; out of reach of.—That France and Spain were taught the use of shipping by the Greeks and Phœnicians is a thing *past* questioning. *Heylin.*—Love, when once *past* government, is consequently *past* shame. *LEstrange.*

What's gone, and what's *past* help,
Should be *past* grief. *Shakespeare's Wint. Tale.*

Her life she might have had; but the despair
Of saving his had put it *past* her care. *Dryden.*

Beyond; further than.—We will go by the king's highway, until we be *past* thy borders. *Num. xxi. 22.*—Above; more than.—The northern Irish Scots have bows not *past* three quarters of a yard long, with a string of wreathed hemp, and their arrows not much above an ell. *Spenser on Ireland.*

PASTA'CA, a river of Quito, South America, which rises near Riobamba, and runs into the Maragnon fifty miles west of St. Joachim de Omaguas.

PASTE, *f.* [*pâte*, Fr. from the Lat. *pasco*, to feed.] A soft composition of flour, wrought up with proper fluids, as water, milk, or the like, to serve for cakes or coffins, therein to bake meats, fruits, &c. It is the foundation and roof of pies, tarts, patties, pasties, and other works of pastry.—Dr. Cullen observes, that *paste* is very hard and indigestible without butter; and, even with it, is apt to produce heartburn and acedency. Perhaps this is increased by the burned butter, from a certain sensibility in the stomach, which occasions all empyreumatic oils to be long retained, and so produce acidity. *Ency. Brit.*

PASTE, in confectionary, &c. a preparation of some fruit, made by beating the pulp thereof, with some fluid or other admixture, into a soft pappy consistence, spreading it into a dish, and drying it with sugar, till it becomes as pliable as an ordinary paste.

PASTE is likewise used for a preparation of wheaten flour, boiled up and incorporated with water; used by various artificers, as upholsterers, saddlers, bookbinders, &c. instead of glue or size, to fasten or cement their cloths, leathers, papers, &c. When paste is used by bookbinders, or for paper-hangings to rooms, they mix a fourth, fifth, or sixth, of the weight of the flour of powdered resin; and, where it is wanted still more tenacious, gum arabic, or any kind of size, may be added. Paste may be preserved, by dissolving a little sublimate, in the proportion of a dram to a quart, in the water employed for making it; which will prevent not only rats and mice, but any other kind of vermin and insects, from preying upon it.

PASTE, a sort of composition made from calcined crystal, lead, and metallic preparations, to imitate the several

ral natural gems. These are no way inferior to the native stones, when carefully made and well polished, in brightness and transparency, but want their hardness. See the articles GEM and GLASS, vol. viii.

TO PASTE, v. a. To fasten with paste.—By *pasting* the vowels and consonants on the sides of dice, his eldest son played himself into spelling. *Locke*.—Young creatures have learned their letters and syllables, by having them *pasted* upon little flat tablets. *Watts*.

PASTEBOARD, f. A kind of thick paper, formed of several sheets pasted together.—Tintoret made chambers of board and *pasteboard*, proportioned to his models, with doors and windows, through which he distributed on his figures artificial lights. *Dryden*.

There is also a coarse kind of pasteboard, made of old paper and old pasteboard, beaten in a mortar with water, and reduced into a kind of pulp; to which is added a little paste, to give the mass a consistence; after which it is formed into a mould, and, to finish it, laid in a press, to squeeze out all the water, and reduce it to its proper thickness. Each kind is distinguished by marks, which express the fineness and value; the finest is covered on both sides with a very white smooth paper; others only on one side; and others on both sides with common paper.

The chief use of pasteboard is in the binding of books, and the making of letter-cases, hat-cases, &c. For the duty on pasteboard, see the article PAPER, p. 375.

PASTEBOARD, adj. Made of pasteboard.—Put silk-worms on whitened brown paper into a *pasteboard* box. *Mortimer*.

PASTEK, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the province of Diarbekir: fifty-six miles west-north-west of Diarbekir.

PASTEL. See PASTIL.

PASTER, f. [*pâture*, Fr.] That part of the leg of a horse between the fetlock, or joint next the foot, and the hoof.—This part should be short, especially in the middle-sized horses; because long *pasterns* are weak, and cannot so well endure travel. *Chambers*.

Upright he walks on *pasterns* firm and straight;
His motions easy, prancing in his gait. *Dryden*.

The legs of a human creature, in contempt, Dr. Johnson says; citing the example from Dryden. Elder poetry seems to exhibit the word for a *patten*.—She had better have worn *pasterns*. *Béaumont and Fl. Chances*.

So straight she walk'd, and on her *pasterns* high;
If, seeing her behind, he lik'd her pace,
Now, turning short, he better lik'd her face. *Dryden*.

PASTER, JOINT, f. The joint above the pastern.—The *pastern-joint*, after travelling, is very apt to be crowned; i. e. to have a swelling round it, beneath the skin, in form of a circle, a third of an inch broad. *Chambers*.

PASTIC'CIO, f. [Ital. a pie or pasty.] An oglio; a medley.—On our first entrance into the palace, which is a *pasticio* of Saracenic, Conventual, and Grecian, architecture, I was much taken with the principal front of the inner-court. *Swinburne's Trav. through Spain*—In music, an opera made up of detached airs by different composers.

PASTIL, f. [*pastillus*, Lat. *pastille*, Fr.] A sort of paste, made of several colours, ground up with gum-water, either together or separately, in order to make crayons to paint with on paper or parchment.—To draw with dry colours, make long *pastils*, by grinding red lead with strong wort, and so roll them up like pencils, drying them in the sun. *Peacham on Drawing*.

PASTIL is also used for a dry composition, yielding a fragrant smell when burnt in a perfuming-pan, to clear and scent the air of a chamber. It is composed of odorous resins, mixed with aromatic woods or drugs pulverised, and incorporated with mucilages of gum tragacanth. Some call these compositions *offsets of Cyprus*.

PASTIL, in confectionary, is a preparation of sugar with lemon-water, &c. boiled up with gum-water,

strained, beat up, and, by the addition of more dry sugar, worked into a pliable paste, and thus formed into round or oblong figures, and dried in a stove.

PASTIME, f. Sport; amusement; diversion. For a history of ancient pastimes, in this and other countries, see the article GAME, vol. viii. p. 199–204. also ARCHERY, vol. ii. LONDON, vol. xiii. and MAY, vol. xiv.—*Pastimes* of some kind seem to be absolutely necessary, and to none more than to the man of study; for the most vigorous mind cannot bear to be always bent. Constant application to one pursuit, if it deeply engage the attention, is apt to unhinge the mind, and to generate madness; of which the Don Quixote of Cervantes, and the astronomer of Johnson, are two admirably-conceived instances. Such *pastimes* or amusements, however, ought to be considered only as necessary relaxations from fever and more useful employment; and, in this point of view, they may be innocently and even wisely pursued; but they become criminal when they occupy the place of the business of life. *Ency. Brit.*

I'll be as patient as a gentle stream,
And make a *pastime* of each weary step,
Till the last step has brought me to my love. *Shakespeare*.

TO PASTIME, v. n. To sport; to take pastime. *Hulot*.

When did Perseda *pastime* in the streets,
But her Erastus over-ey'd her sport?

Soliman and Perseda, 1599.

PASTINACA, f. [said by some to be derived from *pasto*, Lat. to feed, or from *pastus*, a pasture, on account of the nourishing qualities of its roots, which are eaten by the poor. Linnæus rather considered the name as derived from *pastinum*, a forked tool used in digging or planting vineyards, which the root of *Pastinaca* resembles.] The PARSNIP; in botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order digynia, natural order of umbellatæ or umbelliferæ. Generic characters—Calyx: umbel universal, manifold, flat; partial manifold. Involucre: universal, none; partial none. Perianthium proper, obsolete. Corolla: universal, uniform; florets all fertile; proper of five lanceolate, involute, entire, petals. Stamina: filaments five, capillary; anthers roundish. Pistillum: germ inferior. Styles two, reflex. Stigmas blunt. Pericarpium: none. Fruit compressed, flat elliptic, bipartite. Seeds two, elliptic, girt, round the edge, almost flat on both sides.—*Essential Character*. Fruit elliptic, compressed, flat; petals involute, entire. There are but three species.

1. *Pastinaca lucida*, or shining-leaved parsnip: root-leaves simple, cordate-lobate, shining, acutely crenate: stem-leaves ternate and pinnate; branch-leaves simple, wedge-shaped. Root biennial, thick, milky. Stem stiff, rugged, grooved and angular, branched from the bottom, almost the height of a man; when cut, yielding a fetid, rue-like, whitish, tenacious, gum. Branches numerous, panicled. Root-leaves cordate, of different sizes, seldom lobed, netted scabrous, acutely crenate; petiole angular above. The first (or lower) stem-leaves ternate, with the lateral leaflets sessile and obliquely-ovate, the end leaflet petioled, cordate, three-lobed or five-lobed. The second (or upper) stem-leaves quinate (or pinnate with two pairs of lobes and an odd one), but very like the others; the leaflets three inches long, with sharp notches terminating in a white point, but sometimes obliterated. The uppermost leaves are quite simple, cordate-ovate, lobed, like those of the fig. All the branch-leaves wedge-shaped, quite entire from the base to the middle; thence to the tip acutely crenate, an inch long, on a petiole of the same length. Umbels very numerous, commonly with ten rays; the principal one terminating the stem; at the base of this are two, three, or four, branches, whence the top of the stalk becomes as it were proliferous. Seed suborbiculate, about three lines in diameter.

According

According to Linnæus, the stem is *smooth* and even, a foot and a half high and more. Leaves cordate, sometimes lobed, stiffish, wrinkled, shining, acutely notched or serrate. Petals yellow, entire, acute, bent in. Native of the south of Europe. Introduced in 1771, by Mons. Richard. It flowers in June and July.

2. *Pastinaca sativa*, or common parsnep: leaves simple, pinnate. Of this there are two varieties.

a. *P. sylvestris*, the wild parsnep, has a biennial, simple, whitish root, putting forth some large fibres from the side. Stem single, three or four feet high, erect, rigid, angular, pubescent, hollow, branched. Leaves alternate, smaller than those of the garden-parsnep, and of a darker green; in open situations pubescent, especially the root-leaves. Flowering-branches come out from the axils of the leaves from top to bottom, supporting umbels which are smaller than that which terminates the stem. Flowers small, yellow, with inflex regular petals. Wild parsnep is native of most parts of Europe, on the borders of ploughed fields and on the banks of hedges, chiefly in a calcareous or marly soil. It flowers from the end of June through August.

β. *P. sativa*, or garden-parsnep, has smooth leaves, of a light or yellowish green colour; in which it differs from the wild plant. The stalks also rise higher, and are deeper channelled; the peduncles are much longer, and the flowers of a deeper yellow colour. The roots are sweeter than carrots, and are much eaten by those who abstain from animal-food in Lent, or eat salt fish on fast-days: they are highly nutritious. In the north of Ireland they are brewed, instead of malt, with hops, and fermented with yeast. The liquor thus obtained is agreeable. Hogs are fond of these roots, and quickly grow fat with them.

Old Gerarde says, "There is a good and pleasant food or bread made of the roots of parsneps, as my friend Master Plat hath set forth in his book of experiments." It is asserted, says Ray, by some of our writers, that the roots, when old, bring on delirium and madness, and hence are called *madneps*. Parkinson, after informing us, that the seed ripens the second year after sowing, adds; "if they do flower the first year, the country people call them *madde neepes*." The seeds contain an essential oil, and will often cure intermittent fevers. The seeds used in medicine should be those of the wild plant; but the druggists commonly sell the seeds of the garden kind for it, which they purchase at an easy price when it is too old to grow. Villars says, that they have two remarkable varieties of the wild parsnep in Dauphiné: one with an angular branched stem approaching very near to the garden parsnep; the other with a simple round stem, very slightly striated, and receding so far from the cultivated plant, that it seems to be a distinct species.

3. *Pastinaca opopanax*, or rough parsnep: leaves pinnate and bipinnate, leaflets gashed at the base in front. Root perennial, as thick as the human arm, yellow, branched; the branches an inch or an inch and a half in thickness, a foot and a half in length, tubercled, with a corky bark. Stem from three feet to the height of a man, the thickness of a finger, striated, covered at the base with scariose membranaceous scales, like the ferns; in other parts very smooth and shining; angular at top, especially at the branches. Primary (or root) leaves quite simple, cordate, acutely crenate; the others ternate or quinate, with the end leaflet always cordate and very large; the lateral ones obliquely cordate, with the upper lobe shorter. The lowest stem-leaves more compound, considered as a whole triangular, two feet long, bipinnate, having five pinnules on each side; the lowest pinna pinnate, commonly with five leaflets, the end one cordate, the rest sessile and obliquely cordate: the leaflets are an inch to two inches long; the other pinnules are first ternate, then simple. The other stem-leaves decrease, and are first quinate, next ternate, and at the branches simple. Fruits flat, with the rim thicker, three or four lines in diameter, and a little longer. Juice

yellow, bearing no marks of a resinous or aromatic principle. This juice flows out where either the leaf or stalk is broken. They are both very rough; the former dark green, the latter seven or eight feet high. The stalks divide towards the top into many horizontal branches, each terminated by a large umbel of yellow flowers. They appear in July. Native of the south of Europe, south of France, Italy, and Sicily. Cultivated in 1731 by Mr. Miller.

This plant commonly ripens its seeds with us, and its juice manifests some of the qualities discovered in the officinal opopanax: but it is only in the warmer regions of the east, where this plant is also a native, that the juice concretes into this gum-resin. It is obtained by means of incisions made at the bottom of the stalk; and is imported from Turkey and the East Indies sometimes in little round drops or tears, but more commonly in irregular lumps, of a reddish-yellow colour, specked with white on the outside; internally paler, and frequently variegated with large white pieces. This gum-resin has a strong disagreeable smell, and a bitter, acrid, somewhat nauseous, taste. It readily forms a milky liquor with water by rubbing; and this on standing deposits a portion of resinous matter, and becomes yellowish: to rectified spirit it yields a gold-coloured tincture, which tastes and smells strongly of the drug. Water distilled from it is impregnated with its smell, but no essential oil is obtained on committing moderate quantities to the operation. Opopanax has been long esteemed for its attenuating, deobstruent, and aperient, virtues; but, as it is commonly prescribed in combination with other medicines, these qualities are by no means ascertained, nor do its sensible qualities indicate it to be a medicine of much power. Dr. Cullen classes it with the anti-spasmodics; it is however less fetid than galbanum, though more so than ammoniacum. It has commonly been given in hypochondriacal affections, visceral obstructions, menstrual suppressions, and asthma, especially when connected with a phlegmatic habit of body.

Propagation and Culture. The parsnep is cultivated in kitchen-gardens, the roots being large, sweet, and accounted very nourishing. It is propagated by seeds, which should be sown in February or March, in a rich mellow soil, well dug, that their roots may run downwards, the greatest excellency being the length and bigness of the roots. These may be sown alone, or with carrots, as is practised by the kitchen-gardeners near London; some of whom also mix leeks, onions, and lettuce, with their parsneps; but it is not possible that so many different things can thrive well together, except they are allowed a considerable distance; and, if so, it will be equally the same to sow the different sorts separate. However, carrots and parsneps may be sown together very well, especially where the carrots are designed to be drawn off very young; because the parsneps generally spread most towards the end of the summer, when the early carrots are gone.

When the plants are come up, hoe them out to ten or twelve inches asunder, cutting up all the weeds. This must be repeated three or four times, according as the weeds grow; but in the latter part of summer, when the plants cover the ground, they will prevent the growth of weeds. When the leaves begin to decay, the roots may be dug up for use. Before this they are seldom well tasted; nor are they good for much in the spring, after they have shot out again. To preserve them for this season, dig them up the beginning of February, and bury them in the sand in a dry place, where they will remain good until the middle of April or later.

To save seeds, make choice of some of the longest, straightest, and largest roots, and plant them two feet asunder, where they are defended from strong south and south-west winds, for the stems grow to a great height; keep them clear from weeds, and, if the season should prove dry, water them twice a-week. At the end of August or the beginning of September, the seeds will be ripe;

ripe; then carefully cut off the umbels, and spread them upon a coarse cloth for two or three days to dry; after which, beat off the seeds and put them up for use. Never trust to seeds that are more than a year old, for they will seldom grow beyond that age. The leaves are dangerous to handle, especially in a morning, while the dew remains upon them. Gardeners, when they have been drawing up carrots from among parsneps, while their leaves were wet with dew, and have turned the sleeves of their shirts up to their shoulders, have had their arms covered with large blisters, full of a scalding liquor, which have proved very troublesome for several days.

To cultivate parsneps for the farmer, sow the seed in autumn, soon after it is ripe; by which means the plants will come on early the following spring, and will get strong before the weeds can grow so as to injure them. The young plants never materially suffer through the severity of the seasons. The best soil for them is a rich deep loam; next to this is sand, or they will thrive well in a black gritty soil; but will never pay for cultivating in stone-brash, gravel, or clay soils; and they are always the largest where the staple is deepest. If the soil be proper, they do not require much manure. A very good crop has been obtained for three successive years without any. Forty cart-loads of sand laid on an acre of very stiff loam, and ploughed in, has answered very well. If land cannot be got in a proper condition to receive the seed in autumn, sow a plat in the garden or the corner of a field, and transplant thence at the end of April or early in May. The plants must be carefully drawn, and the land that is to receive them well pulverized by harrowing and rolling. When it is thus in order, open a furrow six or eight inches deep, and lay the plants in it regularly at the distance of ten inches or a foot, taking care not to let the root be bent, and that the plant stand upright after the earth is closed about it, which should be done immediately by persons following the planter with a hoe, and who must be attentive not to cover the leaves. Open another furrow eighteen inches distant from the last, plant it as before, and so proceed till the field is completely cropped. When any weeds appear, hoe the ground, and earth the plants.

With attention to the soil, the season for sowing, cleaning, and earthing the plants, and raising the seed from the largest and best parsneps, there is no doubt but the crop would answer much better than a crop of carrots. They are equal to them, if not superior, in fattening pigs; for they make the flesh whiter, and the animals eat them with more satisfaction. Clean washed and sliced among bran, horses eat them greedily, and thrive with them; nor do they heat horses, or, like corn, fill them with disorders. In France, and our islands adjoining to it, parsneps are held in high esteem both for cattle and swine. In Brittany this crop is said to be little inferior in value to wheat. Milch-cows fed with it in winter give as much and as good milk, and yield butter as well-flavoured, with parsneps, as with grass in May or June. See DAUCUS, ECHINOPHORA, HERACLEUM, and TOR-
DYLIUM.

To PASTINATE, *v. n.* [from the Lat. *pastino*, to loosen the earth.] To dig in a garden. *Cole.*

PASTINATION, *f.* The act of digging the earth. *Phillips.*

PASTITIUM, *f.* [in old records.] A pasture-ground.

PASTO, a town of Peru: eighty miles north-north-east of Lima.

PASTO, or St. JUAN DE PASTO, a town of South America, in the province of Popayan, capital of a district, in the viceroyalty of New Grenada, containing above 7000 inhabitants: 115 miles north-north-east of Quito, and eighty south-south-west of Popayan. Lat. 1. 15. N. lon. 76. 46. W.

PASTON, a village of Northumberland, on the borders of Scotland, near which is Harelaw-Hill, on which
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is a circular entrenchment with a double rampart and fosse. *England's Gazetteer.*

PASTOPH'ORI, *f.* [from the Greek *πασος*, a veil, and *φερω*, to bear.] Priests whose office it was to carry the images, along with the shrines, of the gods, at solemn festivals, when they were to pray to them for rain, fair weather, or the like. The Greeks had a college of this order of priests in Sylla's time.

The cells or apartments near the temples, where the pastophori lived, were called *pastophoria*. Clemens Alexandrinus, describing the temples of the Egyptians, says, that, after having paced through magnificent courts, you are conducted to a temple, which is at the farther end of these courts, and then a pastophorus gravely lifts up the veil, (*πασος*;) which is the door, to show you the deity within: which is nothing but a dog, or a cat, or some other animal. These pastophori also supported the shrine, or niche, of these ridiculous divinities, when they were carried in procession. Apuleius speaks of the pastophori that carried the Syrian goddesses.

In the temple of Jerusalem there were two courts surrounded with galleries, and all round about were several lodging-rooms for the priests, and to lay up wood, wine, oil, salt, meal, spices, incense, vestments, valuable vessels, and provisions, necessary for the sacrifices and lamps, as also for the support and maintenance of the priests. See 1 Chron. ix. 26, 33. Ezek. xl. 17, 18. 1 Chron. xxvi. 16.

PASTOR, *f.* [Lat. *pastor*, old Fr.] A shepherd:

Receive this present by the Muses made,
The pipe on which the Aescæan *pastor* play'd. *Dryden.*

A clergyman who has the care of a flock.—*Pastor* originally signifies one that (*pastit*) feeds. Hence it was anciently used for a shepherd, or advocate; and is now appropriated to a minister, or one that has souls to feed with sound doctrine. *Chambers.*

PASTORAL, *adj.* [Fr. from *pastoralis*, Lat.] Rural; rustic, befitting shepherds; imitating shepherds.—In those *pastoral* pastimes, a great many days were sent to follow their flying predecessors. *Sidney.*—Relating to the care of souls.—Their lord and master taught concerning the *pastoral* care he had over his own flock. *Hooker.*—The bishop of Salisbury recommended the tenth satire of Juvenal, in his *pastoral* letter, to the serious perusal of the divines of his diocese. *Dryden.*

PASTORAL, *f.* A poem in which any action or passion is represented by its effects upon a country life, or according to the common practice in which speakers take upon them the character of shepherds; an idyl; a bucolic.—*Pastoral* is an imitation of the action of a shepherd: the form of this imitation is dramatic or narrative, or mixed of both; the fable simple, the manners not too polite nor too rustic. *Pope.*—There ought to be the same difference between *pastorals* and elegies, as between the life of the country and the court; the latter should be smooth, clean, tender, and passionate; the thoughts may be bold, more gay and more elevated than in *pastoral*. *Walsh.*

Most authors, says Dr. Blair, have indulged the fancy, that, because the life which mankind led at first was rural, their first poetry was therefore pastoral, or employed in the celebration of rural scenes and objects: but he is of opinion that, though it would borrow many of its images and allusions from those natural objects with which men were best acquainted, the calm and tranquil scenes of rural felicity were not the first objects which inspired that strain of composition which we now call poetry. The first themes were furnished to the bards of every country by objects and events that roused men's passions; such as the actions of their gods and heroes, their own exploits in war, and the successes or misfortunes of their countrymen and friends. What was of a pastoral kind in their compositions was merely incidental. It was not till men had begun to be assembled in great cities, after the distinctions

tinctions of rank and station were formed, and the bustle of courts and large societies was known, that pastoral poetry assumed its present form. It was in the court of king Ptolemy that Theocritus wrote the first pastorals with which we are acquainted; and in the court of Augustus he was imitated by Virgil.

Pastoral poetry, whatever was its origin, is undoubtedly a natural and very agreeable form of composition. It recalls to our imagination those gay scenes, and pleasing views of nature, which are commonly the delight of our childhood and youth; and to which, in more advanced life, most men recur with pleasure. It exhibits to us a life, with which we are accustomed to associate the ideas of peace, of leisure, or of innocence; and therefore we readily set open our hearts to such representations as promise to banish from our thoughts the cares of the world, and to transport us into calm Elysian regions. No subject, at the same time, seems to be more favourable to poetry. Amidst rural objects, nature presents, on all hands, the finest field for description; and nothing appears to flow more, of its own accord, into poetical numbers, than rivers and mountains, meadows and hills, flocks and trees, and shepherds void of care. Hence it is, that this species of poetry has, at all times, allured many readers and excited many writers. Nevertheless, there is hardly any species of poetry more difficult to be carried to perfection, or in which fewer writers have excelled.

Pastoral life is described by the author now cited in three different states of it: either as it now is, when shepherds are reduced to a mean, servile, and laborious condition; or such as it may be supposed to have been in the more early and simple ages, when flocks and herds were numerous, and shepherds, though unrefined in their manners, were respectable in their station; or such as it never was, nor can be, when, to the ease, innocence, and simplicity, of the early ages, we attempt to add the polished taste and cultivated manners, of modern times. The first of these states is too gross and mean, and the last too refined and unnatural, to become the groundwork of pastoral-poetry. Theocritus is censured for having deviated too much to the first extreme; and some of the French and Italian writers of pastorals have erred in making their shepherds discourse like courtiers and scholars; and in either way a person may retain the name, whilst he wants the spirit, of pastoral poetry. He that would succeed in this species of composition must keep in the middle station between these two extremes.

The great charm of pastoral poetry arises from the view which it exhibits of the tranquillity and happiness of a rural life. Yet the scenes of country life will be thought by many, and perhaps not without reason, too barren of incidents. The tenor of the shepherd's life is uniform, and does not admit of that variety which renders poetry interesting. Hence it is that, of all poems, the most meagre commonly in the subject, and the least diversified in the strain, is the pastoral. Common-place topics have been thrummed over by all eclogue-writers, since the days of Theocritus and Virgil; and to this circumstance is owing much of that insipidity which prevails in modern pastoral compositions. But why, says Dr. Blair, may not pastoral poetry take a wider range? Human nature, and human passions, are much the same in every rank of life; and, whenever these passions operate on objects that are within the rural sphere, there may be a proper subject for pastoral. In the mean time, as Dr. Johnson well observes, "an intelligent reader, who is acquainted with the scenes of real life, sickens at the mention of the crook, the pipe, the sheep, and the kids, which it is not necessary to bring forward to notice; for the poet's art is selection; and he ought to show the beauties without the grossness of the country life."

The two great fathers of pastoral poetry are Theocritus and Virgil. In those Idyllia of the former which are properly pastorals, there are many great beauties.

He is distinguished for the simplicity of his sentiments; for the great sweetness and harmony of his numbers; and for the richness of his scenery and description. He is the original after which Virgil has copied; but he has followed him with judgment, and in some respects improved upon him. Moschus and Bion, two other Greek poets, have also considerable merit in the pastoral style; and, if they want the simplicity of Theocritus, they excel him in tenderness and delicacy.

The modern writers of pastorals have generally contented themselves with imitating the ancient poets. Sannazarius, indeed, a famous Latin poet in the age of Leo X. attempted a bold innovation, by composing Pictorial Eclogues; changing the scene from woods to the sea, and from the life of shepherds to that of fishermen. But he has gained no followers among the moderns. Gesner, a poet of Switzerland, has been, in the judgment of Dr. Blair, the most successful in his pastoral compositions. He has introduced into his Idylls many new ideas. His rural scenery is striking, and his descriptions are lively. He presents pastoral life to us, with all the embellishments of which it is susceptible, but without any excess of refinement. The chief merit of this poet consists in his writing to the heart; and he has enriched the subjects of his Idylls with incidents which give rise to much tender sentiment. Scenes of domestic felicity are beautifully painted. The mutual affection of husbands and wives, of parents and children, of brothers and sisters, as well as of lovers, are displayed in a pleasing and touching manner.

Shenstone's Pastoral Ballad, in four parts, may justly be reckoned, says Dr. B. one of the most elegant poems of this kind in the English language. Neither Pope's nor Philips's pastorals do any great honour, in our author's opinion, to the English poetry. Mr. Gay published his Shepherd's Week, in six pastorals, with a design of ridiculing that sort of simplicity which Philips and his partisans extolled; and they are an ingenious burlesque of pastoral writing, when it rises no higher than the manners of modern clowns and rustics. The literary distinction which Ambrose Philips had obtained from the success of his tragedy of the Distressed Mother, was probably the cause of an exaggerated compliment from Tickell, which eventually exposed him to ridicule and mortification. That writer, in a paper in the Guardian upon pastoral poetry, absurdly enough made the true pastoral pipe to descend in succession from Theocritus to Virgil, Spenser, and Philips. Pope, who thus found his own juvenile pastorals undervalued, sent to the Guardian a comparison between his and those of Philips, in which he ironically gave the preference to the latter; and the irony was so well concealed, that Steele was deceived, and it was not till Addison had made the discovery that the purpose was detected. It probably ruined the pastoral reputation of Philips; and thenceforth open war prevailed between the two poets, envenomed by the double hostility of party and rivalry.

Pastoral writing has appeared in later ages under the form of a regular drama, blending plot, characters, and passions, with the simplicity and innocence of rural manners. Accordingly pastoral has been defined a dramatic piece, in which the persons are clad like nymphs and shepherds, and act their own amours. The scene is always in the fields or woods; whence Tasso calls pastoral *favole boscareccie*. Such are the Pastor Fido of Guarini; the Aminta of Tasso; the Sylvia of Mairat, the French poet; and the Comus of Milton, &c. Tasso assumes to himself the honour of having invented pastoral; but the first idea of this kind of drama seems to be Beccari's, who made the attempt in 1552: yet, Tasso's Aminta, which did not appear till the year 1573, effacing what had been done by Beccari, the first author was forgot, and Tasso left as the inventor. It is certain this kind of pastoral fable, composed according to the rules of the stage, was unknown among the ancients. The Greeks

Greeks and Latins have indeed introduced shepherds in their eclogues; but these eclogues had nothing theatrical in them, nor were the shepherds ever brought upon the stage. Tasso's *Aminta* claims the preference, as it is less intricate in the plot and conduct, and less strained and affected in the sentiments, than the *Pastor Fido* of Guarini. Both possess great beauties, and are entitled to the reputation they have gained. Dr. Blair mentions another pastoral drama, which will bear being brought into comparison with any composition of this kind, in any language; that is, Allan Ramsay's *Gentle Shepherd*. The characters are well drawn, and the incidents affecting; the scenery and manners lively and just. It affords a strong proof, both of the power which nature and simplicity possess, to reach the heart, in every sort of writing; and of the variety of pleasing characters and subjects, with which pastoral poetry, when properly managed, is capable of being enlivened. *Blair's Lectures*, vol. iii. *Johnson's Life of Shenstone*.

PASTORAL. A book relating to the cure of souls.—The Lord prosper the intention to myself, and others, who may not despise my poor labours, but add to those points which I have observed, until the book grow to a compleat *pastoral*. *Herbert's Country Parson*, 1632.

PASTORIUS (Joachim), a writer of history, was born in 1610, at Great Glogau in Silesia. He was brought up to the medical profession, took the degree of doctor, and received the title of honorary professor at Elbing and Dantzic; but his avowal of Socinian principles subjected him to various ill offices. His constancy at length gave way, and he conformed to the Roman-catholic religion. This change was of great advantage to his fortune: he was ennobled, created apostolic prothonotary, canon of Warmia and Chelm, dean and official general of Dantzic, and finally historiographer, secretary, and commissary, of the kingdom of Poland. He died at Frauenberg in Prussia in 1681. This author published several historical works in the Latin Language; viz. 1. *Theodosius Magnus, seu Vita illius excellentis Imperatoris*, 1664. 2. *Florus Polonicus, seu Polonica Historiæ Epitome*, 1679. 3. *Historiæ Polonæ plenioris Partes duæ, ab anno 1647 ad annum 1651; accedit Dissertatio de Originibus Sarmaticis*, 1685. 4. *Bellum Scythico-Cosaicum*, 1659. 5. He also published the *Aristotelian Ethics* of Crellius, with a life of the author; and some *Orations*, *Poems*, &c.

PASTORLIKE, or **PASTORLY**, *adj.* Becoming a pastor.—The *pastorlike* and apostolick imitation of meek and unlordly discipline. *Milton of Ref. in England*.—Against negligence or obstinacy will be required a rousing volley of *pastorly* threatenings. *Milton's Anim. Rem. Defence*.

PASTORSHIP, *f.* The office or rank of a pastor.—The universal *pastorship* or government of the catholic church, was never claimed by any bishop till towards the end of the sixth century; and then it was thought to be challenged by John, patriarch of Constantinople. *Bp. Bull's Corrupt. of the Ch. of Rome*.—Why may not the bishop of Antioch pretend to succeed St. Peter in his universal *pastorship*? *Barrow on the Pope's Supremacy*.

PASTRENGO, a village of Italy, in the Veronese, on the Adige.

PASTRY, *f.* [*pâtisserie*, Fr. from *paste*.] The act of making pies:

Let never fresh machines your *pastry* try,
Unless grapes or magistrates are by;
Then you may put a dwarf into a pie.

King.

Pies or baked *paste*.—Remember the feed-cake, the *pastries*, and the furmenty-pot. *Tusser*.

Beasts of chase, or fowls of game,

In *pastry* built, or from the spit, or boil'd. *Milton's P. R.*

The place where *pastry* is made.—They call for dates and quinces in the *pastry*. *Shakespeare*.

PASTRY-COOK, *f.* One whose trade is to make and sell things baked in *paste*.—I wish you knew what my

husband has paid to the *pastry-cooks* and confectioners. *Arbuthnot*.

PASTURABLE, *adj.* [from *pasture*.] Fit for pasture.

PASTURAGE, *f.* [*pâturage*, Fr.] The business of feeding cattle.—I wish there, were ordinances, that whosoever keepeth twenty kine, should keep a plough going; for otherwise all men would fall to *pasturage*, and none to husbandry. *Spenser*.—Lands grazed by cattle.—France has a sheep by her, to shew that the riches of the country consisted chiefly in flocks and *pasturage*. *Addison*.—The use of pasture.—Cattle fatted by good *pasturage*, after violent motion, die suddenly. *Arbuthnot on Aliments*.

PASTURANO, a village of Italy: eight miles south-east of Alexandria.

PASTURE, *f.* [*pâturage*, Fr.] Food; the act of feeding.—Unto the conservation is required a solid *pasture*, and a food congenious unto nature. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*—Ground on which cattle feed.—When there was not room for their herds to feed together, they, by consent, separated and enlarged their *pasture* where it best liked them. *Locke*.

The new tribes look abroad

On nature's common, far as they can see
Or wing, their range and *pasture*.

Thomson.

Pasture-ground is of two sorts: the one is low meadowland, which is often overflowed; and the other is upland, which lies high and dry. The first of these will produce a much greater quantity of hay than the latter, and will not require manuring or dressing so often; but then the hay produced on the upland is much preferable to the other, as is also the meat which is fed in the upland more valued than that which is fatted in rich meadows; though the latter will make the fatter and larger cattle, as is seen by those which are brought from the low rich lands in Lincolnshire. But, where people are nice in their meat, they will give a much larger price for such as has been fed on the downs, or in short upland pasture, than for the other, which is much larger. Besides this, dry pastures have an advantage over the meadows, that they may be fed all the winter, and are not so subject to poach in wet weather; nor will there be so many bad weeds produced; which are great advantages, and do, in a great measure, recompense for the smallness of the crop.

We have already mentioned the advantages of meadowland, or such as is capable of being overflowed with water, and given directions for draining and improving low pasture-land. (See the articles *DRAINING* and *IRRIGATION*.) We shall now therefore notice some methods for improving upland pasture.

The first improvement of upland pasture is, by fencing it, and dividing it into small fields of four, six, eight, or ten, acres each, planting timber-trees in the hedge-rows, which will screen the grafs from the drying pinching winds of March, which prevent the grafs from growing in large open lands; so that, if April prove a cold dry month, the land produces very little hay; whereas in the sheltered fields the grafs will begin to grow early in March, and will soon after cover the ground, and prevent the sun from parching the roots of the grafs, whereby it will keep growing, so as to afford a tolerable crop, if the spring should prove dry. But, in fencing your land, it must be observed not to make the inclosures too small, especially where the hedge-rows are planted with trees; because, when the trees are advanced to a considerable height, they will spread over the land; and, where they are close, will render the grafs sour; so that, instead of being an advantage, it will greatly injure the pasture.

The next improvement of upland pasture is, to make the turf good, where, either from the badness of the soil, or want of proper care, the grafs has been destroyed by rushes, bushes, or mole-hills. Where the surface of the land is clayey and cold, it may be improved by paring it off, and burning it: but, if it is a hot sandy land, then chalk, lime, marle, or clay, are very proper manures to lay

lay upon it; but this should be laid in pretty good quantities, otherwise it will be of little service to the land.

If the ground is over-run with bushes or rushes, it will be of great advantage to grub them up towards the latter part of the summer, and after they are dried to burn them, and spread the ashes over the ground just before the autumnal rains; at which time the surface of the land should be levelled, and sown with grafs-feed, which, if done early in the autumn, will come up in a short time, and make good grafs the following spring. So also, where the land is full of mole-hills, these should be pared off, and either burnt for the ashes, or spread immediately on the ground where they are pared off, observing to sow the bare patches with grafs-feed, just as the autumnal rains begin.

There are some pasture-lands which are full of ant-hills, which are not only disagreeable to the sight, but, where they are in any quantity, the grafs cannot be mowed; therefore the turf which grows over them should be divided with an instrument into three parts, and pared off each way; then the middle or core of the hills should be dug out and spread over the ground, leaving the holes open all the winter to destroy the ants, and in the spring the turf may be laid down again; and, after the roots of the grafs are settled again in the ground, it should be rolled to settle the surface, and make it even. If this is properly managed, it will be a great improvement to such land.

Where the land has been thus managed, it will be of great service to roll the turf, in the months of February and March, with a heavy wooden roller, always observing to do it in moist weather, that the roller may make an impression: this will render the surface level, and make it much easier to mow the grafs than when the ground lies in hills; and will also cause the turf to thicken, so as to have what the people usually term a good bottom. The grafs likewise will be the sweeter for this husbandry, and it will be a great help to destroy bad weeds.

Another improvement of upland pasture, is the feeding them every other year; for, where this is not practised, the land must be manured at least every third year; and, where a farmer has much arable land, he will not care to part with his manure to the pasture. Therefore every farmer should endeavour to proportion his pasture to his arable land, especially where manure is scarce, otherwise he will soon find his error; for the pasture is the foundation of all the profit which may arise from the arable land.

Whenever the upland pastures are mended by manure, there should be a regard had to the nature of the soil, and a proper sort of manure applied; as, for instance, all hot sandy lands should have a cool manure; neat's dung and swine's dung are very proper for such lands, as also marle and clay; but, for cold lands, horse-dung, ashes, or sand, and other warm manures, are proper. And, when these are applied, it should be done in autumn, before the rains have soaked the ground, and rendered it too soft to cart on; and it should be carefully spread, breaking all the clods as small as possible, and early in the spring harrowed with bushes, to let it down to the roots of the grafs. When the manure is laid on at this season, the rains in winter will wash down the salts, so that the following spring the grafs will receive the advantage of it.

There should be also great care taken to destroy weeds in the pasture, every spring and autumn. "Not a weed," says Mr. Marshall, "ought to seed, nor a tuft of stale grafs be suffered to stand, in a pasture-ground; which should at least once during the summer be levelled with the scythe; thus, at a small expense, converting weeds into nutriment, and waste-ground into after-grafs."

These upland pastures seldom degenerate the grafs which is sown on them, if the land is tolerably good;

whereas the low meadows, which are overflowed in winter, in a few years turn to a harsh rushy grafs; but the upland will continue a fine sweet grafs for many years without renewing.

There is no part of husbandry, of which the farmers are in general more ignorant, than that of the pasture; most of them suppose, that, when the old pasture is ploughed up, it can never be brought to have a good sward again; so their common method of managing their land after ploughing, and getting two or three crops of corn, is, to sow with their crop of barley some grafs-seeds as they call them; that is, either the red clover, which they intend to stand two years after the corn is taken off the ground, or ray-grafs mixed with trefoil; but, as all these are at most but biennial plants, whose roots decay soon after their seeds are perfected, so the ground, having no crop upon it, is again ploughed for corn; and this is the constant round which the lands are employed in, by the better sort of farmers. But it is very possible to lay down land, which has been in tillage, with grafs, in such manner as that the sward shall be as good, if not better, than any natural grafs, and of as long duration. This, however, is never to be expected in the common method of sowing a crop of corn with the grafs-seeds; for, wherever this has been practised, if the corn has succeeded well, the grafs has been very poor and weak; so that, if the land has not been very good, the grafs has scarcely been worth standing; for the following year it has produced but little hay, and the year after the crop is worth little, either to mow or feed. Nor can it be expected it should be otherwise, for the ground cannot nourish two crops; and, if there were no deficiency in the land, yet the corn, being the first, and most vigorous of growth, will keep the grafs from making any considerable progress; so that the plants will be extremely weak, and but very thin, many of them which came up in the spring being destroyed by the corn; for, wherever there are roots of corn, it cannot be expected there should be any grafs. Therefore the grafs must be thin; and, if the land is not in good heart to supply the grafs with nourishment, that the roots may branch out after the corn is gone, there cannot be any considerable crop of clover; and, as the roots are biennial, many of the strongest plants will perish soon after they are cut; and the weak plants, which had made but little progress before, will be the principal part of the crop for the succeeding year, which is many times not worth standing.

Therefore, when ground is laid down for grafs, there should be no crop of any kind sown with the seeds; and the land should be well ploughed, and cleaned from weeds; otherwise the weeds will come up the first, and grow so strong as to overbear the grafs, and, if they are not pulled up, will entirely spoil it. The best season to sow the grafs-seeds upon dry land is about the middle of August, if there is an appearance of rain; for, the ground being then warm, if there happen some good showers of rain after the seed is sown, the grafs will soon make its appearance, and get sufficient rooting in the ground before winter, so will not be in danger of having the roots turned out of the ground by the frost, especially if the ground is well rolled before the frost comes on, which will press it down, and fix the earth close to the roots. Where this has not been practised, the frost has often loosened the ground so much, as to let in the air to the roots of the grafs, and done it great damage; and this has been brought as an objection to the autumnal sowing of grafs; but it will be found to have no weight, if the above direction is practised; nor is there any hazard in sowing the grafs at this season, but that of dry weather after the seeds are sown; for, if the grafs comes up well, and the ground is well rolled in the middle or end of October, and repeated the beginning of March, the sward will be closely joined at bottom, and a good crop of hay may be expected the same summer. In very open ex-
posed

posed cold lands, it is proper to sow the seeds earlier than is here mentioned, that the grass may have time to get good rooting before the cold season comes on to stop its growth; for, in such situations, vegetation is over early in autumn, so the grass, being weak, may be destroyed by frost; but, if the seeds are sown in the beginning of August, and a few showers follow soon after to bring up the grass, it will succeed much better than any which is sown in the spring. But, where the ground cannot be prepared for sowing at that season, it may be performed the middle or latter end of March, according to the season's being early or late; but, whenever the seeds are sown late in the spring, it will be proper to roll the ground well soon after the seeds are sown, to settle the surface, and prevent its being removed.

The sorts of seeds which are the best for this purpose, are the best sort of upland hay-seeds, taken from the cleanest pastures, where there are no bad weeds; if this seed is sifted to clean it from rubbish, three, or at most four, bushels, will be sufficient to sow an acre of land. The other sort is the *Trifolium pratense album*, which is commonly known by the names of white Dutch clover, or white honeyfuckle-grass: eight pounds of this seed will be enough for one acre of land. The grass-seed should be sown first, and then the Dutch clover-seed may be afterward sown; but they should not be mixed together, because the clover-seeds, being the heaviest, will fall to the bottom, and, consequently, the ground will be unequally sown with them. After the seeds are sown, the ground should be lightly harrowed to bury the seeds; but this should be performed with a short-toothed harrow, otherwise the seeds will be buried too deep. Two or three days after sowing, if the surface of the ground is dry, it should be rolled with a barley-roller to break the clods and smooth the ground, which will settle it, and prevent the seeds from being removed by the wind. When the seeds are come up, if the land should produce many weeds, these should be drawn out before they grow so tall as to overbear the grass; for, where this has been neglected, the weeds have taken such possession of the ground, as to keep down the grass and starve it; and, when these weeds have been suffered to remain until they have shed their seeds, the land has been so plentifully stocked with them, as entirely to destroy the grass; therefore it is one of the principal parts of husbandry, never to suffer weeds to grow on the land.

If the ground is rolled two or three times at proper distances after the grass is up, it will press down the grass, and cause it to make a thicker bottom; for, as the Dutch clover will put out roots from every joint of the branches which are near the ground, so, by pressing down the stalks, the roots will mat so closely together, as to form a sward so thick as to cover the whole surface of the ground, and form a green carpet, which will better resist the drought. If we do but examine the common pastures in summer (in most of which there are patches of this white honeyfuckle-grass growing naturally), we shall find these patches to be the only verdure remaining in the fields. And this the farmers in general acknowledge is the sweetest feed for all sorts of cattle, yet they never had any notion of propagating it by seeds till of late years. Nor has this been long practised in England; for till within a few years, that some curious persons imported the seed from Brabant, where it had been long cultivated, there were not any of the seeds saved in England; though now there are several persons who save the seeds here, which succeed full as well as any of the foreign seeds which are imported.

As this white clover is an abiding plant, so it is certainly the very best sort to sow where pastures are laid down to remain; for, as the hay-seeds which are taken from the best pastures will be composed of various sorts of grass, some of which may be but annual and others biennial, so, when those go off, there will be many and large patches of ground left bare and naked, if there is

not a sufficient quantity of the white clover to spread over and cover the land. Therefore a good sward can never be expected where this is not sown; for, in most of the natural pastures, we find this plant makes no small share of the sward; and it is equally good for wet and dry land, growing naturally upon gravel and clay in most parts of England; which is a plain indication how easily this plant may be cultivated to great advantage, in most sorts of land throughout this kingdom.

The true cause why the land which is in tillage is not brought to a good turf again, in the usual method of husbandry, is, from the farmers not distinguishing which grasses are annual, from those which are perennial; if annual or biennial grasses are sown, these will of course soon decay; so that, unless where some of their seeds may have ripened and fallen, nothing can be expected on the land but what will naturally come up. This, together with the covetous method of laying down the ground with a crop of corn, has occasioned the general failure of increasing the pasture in many parts of England, where it is now much more valuable than any arable land.

After the ground has been sown in the manner before directed, and brought to a good sward, the way to preserve it good is, by constantly rolling the ground with a heavy roller, every spring and autumn, as has been before directed. This piece of husbandry is rarely practised by farmers; but those who do, find their account in it, for it is of great benefit to the grass. Another thing should also be carefully performed, which is, to cut up docks, dandelion, knapweed, and all such bad weeds, by their roots every spring and autumn; this will increase the quantity of good grass, and preserve the pastures in beauty. Dressing these pastures every third year, is also a good piece of husbandry, for otherwise it cannot be expected the ground should continue to produce good crops. Besides this, it will be proper to mow one season, and feed the next; but, where the ground is every year mown, it must be constantly dressed, as most of the grass-grounds near London, otherwise the ground will be soon exhausted.

Of late years there has been an emulation, especially among gentlemen, to improve their pastures, by sowing several sorts of grass-seeds; and there have been some persons of little skill in these matters, who have imposed on many ignorant people, by selling them seeds of some foreign grass, recommending them for some particular quality, but when tried have proved of little worth, whereby they have lost a season or two, and have had their work to begin again. Therefore we would advise every person not to trust too much upon the faith of such practitioners, who, upon slight experiments, have ventured to recommend without judgment; for, of all the sorts of grass-seeds which have been brought from America, none is equal to the *Poa* grass, which grows naturally in England, either for duration or verdure; therefore that, and about six or seven other sorts, are the best worth cultivating; but the trouble of collecting these in quantity is so great as to deter most people from attempting it: and, in the purchasing of hay-seeds, there is generally more seed of weeds than grass, which will soon fill the ground. There are no two better plants yet known for the purpose of fodder, than the lucern and saintfoin; for, where these are properly sown upon right soils and duly cultivated, they will produce a much greater quantity of food than can be procured from the same quantity of land sown with any other abiding plant; therefore let those who are desirous to have much fodder for their cattle, apply themselves to the culture of these, and not engage in uncertain experiments.

The following directions for laying down land to grass are given by Mr. Stillingfleet. Plough the land in March as deep as the nature of the soil will admit. Harrow when the weeds are about flowering, namely, some time in May, or sooner if it be a forward spring. Plough about ten days after harrowing. Harrow when the
9 K weeds

weeds are come up again. If any dung or compost be prepared for the land, let it be laid on. Plough at this time, and plough it in a moderate depth immediately, so that the teeth of the harrow after rolling may reach it. Roll the land every day as it is ploughed with a light roller, and observe not to spread the dung long before it is ploughed in. Harrow well when the weeds come up that are produced by the dung, so as to bring the dung up and mix it with the soil; observing not to harrow more at once than can be ploughed in one day. Plough it up after the harrows the same depth as before, and follow the plough with a roller. The land will now lie under the proper preparation for the seeds, which may be sown after the first soaking rain from the end of August to the end of September, in the following manner. Plough the land about the same depth as before: harrow it once in a place, and sow the seeds after the harrow: then with a hurdle bushed with black-thorn bushes, harrow the seeds in. When the plants appear, roll the land with a light roller, and not before, except the weather prove very dry, in which case it will be necessary to roll it with a very light roller after the bush-harrow. A light dressing of good manure laid on with the first frost, will be of great use in preserving the grass the first season, and encouraging its growth afterwards. And a light roller used after every frost, will be of great service the first winter.

In Yorkshire they have three ways of sowing grass-seeds: 1st, in August; 2dly, with barley, which is most used; 3dly, upon wheat, in March. The first way is the best; and the second is better than the last. The quantity sown is ten bushels to the acre, four pounds of hop-trefoil (*Medicago lupulina*, black nonesuch), or white clover, and some add two pounds of ray-grass. After the crop is cut, suffer no cattle to enter till next hay-harvest, when the grass may be either cut or fed. But there is danger from the cattle in the last way. The farmers generally mow the first crop for the sake of seeds, because that affords more than the succeeding ones. If sown with barley, roll as soon as the barley is off the ground. Lay on dung after the first crop of grass is mowed.

As to the different kind of herbs of pasture, and their qualities, see the article GRASS, vol. viii. See also the article HUSBANDRY, vol. x. p. 521, 548.

PASTURE. Human culture; education. *Not used.*

From the first *pastures* of our infant age,
To elder cares and man's severer page,
We lash the pupil.

Dryden.

To PASTURE, *v. a.* To place in a pasture.

To PASTURE, *v. n.* To graze on the ground.—He [Nebuchadnezzar] like an ox shall *pasture*. *Gower's Conf. Am.*

The cattle in the fields and meadows green :
Thofe rare and solitary, thefe in flocks,
Pasturing at once, and in broad herds upspring. *Milton.*

PA'STY, [from *paste*.] A work of paste, or pastry; being a preparation of some proper meat, as beef, venison, lamb, or the like, well boned, beaten up to a pulp, and highly seasoned; put up in a paste, and then baked in an oven.—I will confess what I know; if ye pinch me like a *pastry*, I can say no more. *Shakespeare.*

Of the paste a coffin will I rear,
And make two *pestles* of your shameful heads. *Shakespeare.*
If you would fright an alderman and mayor,
Within a *pastry* lodge a living hare. *King.*

PASZ/BERG, or Pas, a town of Istria: twenty-five miles south-south-east of Trieste, and nine north-north-east of Pedena.

PAT, *adj.* [*pas*, Teut. opportunity; or, by a change of letters, from the Lat. *aptus*, fit, apt.] Fit; convenient; exactly suitable either as to time or place. This

is a low word, and not now used but in burlesque writings, or in colloquial expression. Yet formerly our best writers employed it in their most serious compositions.—Sometimes it [facetiousness] lieth in *pat* allusion to a known story. *Barrow.*—There are some instances of vengeance befalling very flagitious men so signally, and with such *pat* and significant circumstances, that (without any uncharitableness) we may be led by the suffering to the sin; as in the famous case of Adonibezek, Judg. i. 7. *Goodman's Wint. Ev. Conference.*—Zuinglius dreamed of a text, which he found very *pat* to his doctrine of the Eucharist. *Atterbury.*

They never saw two things so *pat*
In all respects as this and that.

Hudibras.

PAT, *adv.* Fitly; conveniently; in a way exactly suitable either as to time or place.—Touching opinion, so various are the intellectuals of human creatures, that one can hardly find out two who jump *pat* in one. *Howell's Letters.*

He was sorely put to't at the end of a verse,
Because he could find no word to come *pat* in. *Swift.*

PAT, *f.* [*patie*, Fr. is a foot, and thence *pat* may be a blow with the foot. *Dr. Johnson.* Others derive it from the Fr. *but*, a blow; and that from the very ancient word *bata*, as Serenius observes, to strike. It may, by a metathesis, however, be no other than the word *tap*, a gentle blow. *Todd.*] A light quick blow; a tap.—The least noise is enough to disturb the operation of his brain; the *pat* of a shuttle-cock, or the creaking of a jack, will do. *Collier on Human Reason.*—Small lump of matter beat into shape; as, a *pat* of butter.

To PAT, *v. a.* To strike lightly; to tap.—Children prove, whether they can rub upon the breast with one hand, and *pat* upon the forehead with another; and straightways they *pat* with both. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

PA'TA, a town on the north coast of the island of Luçon. Lat. 18. 15. N. lon. 121. 20. E.

PA'TA, a small island in the Sooloo Archipelago. Lat. 5. 45. N. lon. 121. 10. E.

PATABEA, *f.* [derivation unknown.] In botany, a genus of the class tetrandia, order monogynia, natural order rubiaceæ, *Juss.* Generic characters—Calyx: perianthium superior, of one leaf, turbinate, with four acute little teeth. Corolla: of one petal; tube oblong, inserted into the disk, above the germen; limb cloven into four oblong acute lobes. Stamina: filaments four, short, inserted into the tube at its throat; antheræ oblong, two-celled. Pistillum: germen inferior, firmly united to the bottom of the calyx, crowned by the disk; style oblong, cloven; stigmas two, obtuse. Pericarpium and seeds unknown.—*Essential Character.* Calyx four-toothed; flowers in little heads, which are scaly on the outside; corolla tubular, four cleft; antheræ nearly sessile.

Patabea coccinea, a single species. It is a native of woods and forests in Guiana, particularly at Orapu, where it flowers in the month of June. The stem of this shrub is four or five feet in height, furnished with numerous branches even to its summit, scattered in all directions; the smaller ones knobbed and opposite. Leaves opposite, stalked, oval, smooth, pointed, paler beneath. Flowers red, in a terminal head, separated from each other by little scales. *Aublet*, t. 43.

PATACA, *f.* Coins of Brazil of 600 and 640 rees value, current only in that country, and whose intrinsic value is 10 per cent. less than that of the Portugal coins. The Spanish patacas, or dollars, are reckoned in Lisbon at 830 rees, more or less. The old pataca of Brazil, of 640 rees, is in sterling value 3s. 1½d. The pataca of 600 rees (1755) is worth 2s. 10½d. The impression on the pataca is the arms of Portugal, with 640 on the side, and the date near the top; legend, the name and title of the reigning sovereign, with the addition of ERAS. D. *Brasilia*

flie Dominus or *Domine*, Lord or Lady of Brasil; reverse, an armillary sphere, placed on a cross; legend, *SUBQUE SIGNO NATA STABILI*; "Born under a steady sign."

PATACA is also the name given to the German dollars in Egypt; which formerly passed for 85 medini, but have been raised to 90 medini. In making bargains, however, where patacas are to be received in payment, it is necessary previously to settle the value of the coin.

PATACA Chica and **PATACA Gourda**, two moneys of account at Algiers. The *pataca chica* is worth 11½d. sterling; the *pataca gourda*, or *piastre*, contains three *patacas chicas*.

PATAC'CHE, *f.* [French.] A small ship. *Ainsworth.*

PATAK', a town of Hindoostan, in Palnaud: twenty miles west of Timerycotta.

PATACOO'N, *f.* A silver coin, worth four shillings and eight pence English.—This makes Spain to purchase peace of her with his Italian *patacoons*. *Howell.*

The **PATACOO'N**, *patacon*, or *patagon*, is a denomination of silver coin current in Switzerland, and also at Liege in Germany. The *patagon*, or *ecu*, of Geneva, which is sometimes used in accounts, is a real coin, worth 3 livres, or 10½ florins; or 4s. 1d. sterling. The *patagon*, or crown, of Bern, is in value 4s. 9½d. sterling. The old *patagon* of Basil, is in value 4s. 4½d. sterling: the *patagon* of 1795 is in value only 3s. 10d. sterling. The *patagon* of Geneva is worth 4s. 1d. sterling. Lastly, the *patacon* of Liege is worth 4s. 4d. sterling; but the *patacon* of account is worth only 4s. 2½d.

PATADA', a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Aurungabad: thirty miles north of Darore.

PATAGO'A, a river of Brasil, which runs into the sea near Rio Janeiro.

PATAGO'NIA, [so named by Magellan from the Spanish *pata*, foot, and *guanaco*, because the inhabitants wore on their feet the hairy skin of the *guanaco*, or *huanaco*, *Camelus huanacus*.] A country of South America, bounded on the north by the vice-royalty of La Plata or Buenos Ayres, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by the Straits of Magellan, and on the west by the South Pacific Ocean, extending from about lon. 64. 30. to 74. 30. W. and from about lat. 38. to 54. S. The boundaries of this country, however, are not accurately ascertained, and its figure is very irregular.

This country was first discovered in the year 1519, by Ferdinand Magellan, who passed through the narrow sea which separates this country from the island of Fuego; and the country, as well as the straits, was called by his name; as *Land of Magellan*, or *The Magellanic Lands*; and by others, we cannot tell why, *Tehuella*; but it is now more generally known by the name of Patagonia.

The Voyage of Magellan round the World was the first ever made; for it would be ungenerous to deny, the title, because that great navigator was slain at the Philippine islands. Pigafetta, who accompanied Magellan, drew up an account of this memorable voyage in Italian, which has been recently published in a splendid manner. But the sixteenth century was not the age of philosophy; it was an age wherein marvellous stories met with a ready belief; and accordingly Pigafetta thought fit to assign to the Patagonians a stature of more than *four yards*; but, abstracting from the little credit due to this author, on account of the absurdities and falsehoods scattered over his work, in the circumstance of their size he is so inconsistent, that, after having furnished them with heads of a monstrous size, he says, that Magellan, amongst other presents, gave to one of them his own cap, which the other immediately put on and wore, although Magellan was himself far from being a giant. Maximilian Transilvanus, who in his work only translated Pigafetta's book, repeats the same absurd story, and embellishes it with some improbabilities of his own invention. As these two were the only works which had general circulation for some time, they fell into the hands of authors of more simplicity than discernment, such as Gonzalo

Fernandez Oviedo, who translated the above and many other fables into his General and Natural History of the Indies; enlarging much on the Patagonians, confiding in the information he received from the clergyman Arizaga, who, wantonly abusing his credulity, told him many things which do not appear in the formal declaration he afterwards made, and which are totally undeserving of credit: such as, that even a tall man could not reach with his hand to the waist of a Patagonian; that these people devoured a couple of pounds of raw flesh at a mouthful; that they drank off six or seven arrobas (18 or 20 gallons) of water at a draught, and other ridiculous exaggerations, to be seen in the above history. When all this came to be published by Oviedo, a cotemporary author, it is not to be wondered at that it began to gain credit, and was adopted by Gomara, Argensola, and other writers, who, with excessive credulity, committed to writing whatever they heard of these remote regions. Gomara not only copied Pigafetta, but added many other absurdities, collected from other quarters.

Our countryman Cavendish allowed 18 inches to the foot of the Patagonians, in which he is followed by Hawkins and Knivet. But those who have added the most to their bulk, were the Dutch navigators; and Sebaldus Veert even goes so far as to say, that they were of a height to fill men with horror; that they used to pluck up whole trees by the roots, &c. &c. and he has been followed, but with some moderation, by Noort, Spilberg, and Le Maire. The adventurers of St. Maloes likewise bear testimony to the tallness of the Patagonians; but other travellers, and those undoubtedly of more credit, such as Winter and Narborough, the Dutch admiral, S. Hermite, and the French M. Froger, have refuted these impostures: and also such as have made no mention at all of that people, are evidently against the vulgar opinion, as they never would have omitted a matter of such note and singularity. But, after all, the great stature of the Patagonians remained problematical, having still many supporters; although the assertions of the gigantic size of that people were far from being agreed amongst themselves, fluctuating in their imaginary measurements from 10 to 13 feet; until the latest and repeated expeditions of the English, the French, and the Spaniards, in our own times, under the command of officers of distinction, judgment, and veracity, have for ever overturned and destroyed those fables and falsehoods, and reduced the Patagonians to their true and proper stature and appearance.

Commodore Byron and his men, who entered the straits in 1764, represent them to be of a gigantic stature, and to realize the tales of monsters in a human shape. One of them, who appeared to be a chief, had the skin of some wild beast thrown over his shoulders, and was painted so as to exhibit a hideous appearance: round one eye was a large circle of white, a circle of black surrounded the other, and the rest of his face was streaked with paint of different colours. Byron did not measure him; but, judging of his stature by its proportion to his own, he concluded it could not be much less than *seven feet*. This was the general size of the men; the women were proportionably less. They were all painted and clothed nearly in the same manner: their teeth were as white as ivory, remarkably even and well set; but, except the skins, which they wore with the hair inwards, most of them were naked, some few only having upon their legs a kind of boot, with a short pointed stick fastened to each heel, which served as a spur. When they were prevailed upon to sit down, they accepted a quantity of yellow and white beads, which were distributed among them, with pleasure. They did not appear to be wholly strangers to European ornaments; for one woman among them, of an enormous size, and having her face frightfully painted, had bracelets, either of brass or very pale gold, upon her arms, and some beads of blue glass strung upon two plaits of her hair. These apparent giants had with them
a great

a great number of dogs, with which, it was supposed, they chased the wild animals which served them for food. Their horses, though not large nor in good condition, seemed to be nimble, and well broken. Their bridle was a leathern thong, with a bit of a small piece of wood, and their saddles resembled the pads used among the country people in England. The women rode altride, and both men and women without stirrups; and yet they galloped without fear over the spit on the shore, the stones of which were large, loose, and slippery. Such is the account given by Byron, in Hawkefworth's *Voyages*, vol. i. Mr. C. Clarke, an officer of Byron's ship, in a letter published in the *Philosophical Transactions*, vol. lvii. describes the Patagonians as of a copper colour, with long black hair, and says, that some of them were *certainly nine feet*, if they did not exceed this stature. They are stout and well made: the women, he says, were from seven and a half to eight feet, though there was hardly a man less than eight feet. It does not appear, however, that these people were actually measured.

The country is represented as somewhat hilly: the soil, in that part which lies off Port Desire, is sandy, producing nothing but a coarse harsh grass. Captain Wallis, who visited this coast in 1766, measured those that appeared to be the tallest among them. One of these was six feet seven inches high, several more were six feet five inches, and six feet six inches; but the stature of most was from five feet ten inches to six feet. Captain Carteret's account agrees with that of Wallis. (See *Phil. Trans.* vol. ix.) These seem to have been the same people, whose size had been so much over-rated in the year 1764; for several of them had beads, and red baize, such as that which had been put on-board Wallis's ship, and which he naturally concluded they had got from Byron. In 1767 they were again measured by M. Bougainville, whose account agrees nearly with that of Wallis. To these testimonies we may here add another of great weight. In the year 1762, Don Bernardo Ibanez de Echavarri accompanied the marquis de Valdelirios to Buenos Ayres, and resided there several years. He observes, that the southern extremity of America is inhabited, not by the fabulous Patagonians, who have been supposed to occupy this district, but by Indians of the same stature with Spaniards, among whom no one was seen that exceeded in height two *varas* and two or three inches, i. e. about 80 or 81³³² English inches, if Echavarri make his computation according to the *vara* of Madrid. This agrees nearly with the measurement of captain Wallis. Mr. Falkner, who resided as a missionary forty-eight years in the southern parts of America, says, that "the Patagonians, or Puelches, are a large-bodied people; but I never heard of that gigantic race which others have mentioned, though I have seen persons of all the different tribes of Southern Indians. Falkner published, in 1774, a two-sheet map of Patagonia; but, when compared with the great six-sheet map of South America by La Cruz (Madrid 1775, Lond. 1779.) it will be found to be very erroneous.

Captain Wallis describes them as being of a deep copper colour, like that of the Indians in North America, with straight hair as harsh as hog's bristles, which was tied back with a cotton string: they are well made, robust, and bony; but their hands and feet are remarkably small. They were clothed with the skins of the guanaco, an animal resembling a deer, without horns, and having a hump on its back: these skins were sowed together in pieces about six feet long and five feet wide, wrapped round the body, and fastened with a girdle, with the hairy side inwards: some of them had a square piece of cloth made of the downy hair of the same animal, through which a hole being cut for the head, the rest hung round them about as low as the knee. They also wore a kind of drawers, and buskins, reaching from the mid-leg to the instep before, and behind brought under the heel: the rest of the foot was without any covering. Round their eyes were the circles already mentioned; and they were

painted on their arms, and on other parts of the face. The eye-lids of all the young women were painted black. Every one had a missile weapon, tucked into the girdle. This weapon consisted of two round stones, covered with leather, and weighing about a pound, which were fastened to the ends of a string about eight feet long. This they used as a sling, keeping one end in the hand, and whirling the other round the head, till, with the force it had acquired, they discharged it upon the object. In the management of this double-headed shot they are so expert, as to be able to hit a mark not larger than a shilling, with both the stones, at the distance of fifteen yards: it is not, however, their custom to strike either the guanaco or the ostrich with them in the chase; but they discharge them so that the cord comes against the legs of the ostrich, or two of the legs of the guanaco, and so twisted round them by the force and swing of the balls, that the animal, being unable to run, became an easy prey to the hunter. They eat their flesh raw, and the paunch of the ostrich without any preparation besides turning it inside out and shaking it.

Each of these people, both men and women, says Wallis, had a horse, with a saddle, stirrups, and bridle. The men had wooden spurs, except one who had a large pair of such as are worn in Spain, brass stirrups, and a Spanish scymitar without a scabbard; but, notwithstanding these distinctions, he did not appear to have any authority over the rest: the women had no spurs. Their horses, about fourteen hands high, appeared to be of a Spanish breed. Although they had no objection to familiar intercourse, they manifested no intention of mischief, and jumped into the English boats with alacrity and joy, and when in them sung several of their country songs; when on-board they expressed no curiosity or wonder which the multiplicity of objects around them had a tendency to excite: they partook of the ship's provisions without hesitation or scruple, but they would drink nothing besides water. The animals on-board, particularly the hogs and sheep, and the Guinea hens and turkeys, engaged their attention, but they seemed not to desire any thing which they saw except the apparel; and only one of them, who was an old man, asked for that. When the first volley was fired by the marines in their exercise, they were struck with astonishment and terror; the old man in particular, threw himself down upon the deck, pointed to the muskets, and then striking his breast with his hand, lay some time motionless, with his eyes shut; thus, as it was supposed, intending to show that he was not unacquainted with fire-arms, and their fatal effects. The rest, seeing the people on-board merry, and finding themselves unhurt, soon resumed their cheerfulness and good humour, and heard a second and a third volley fired without much emotion: but the old man continued prostrate upon the deck for some time, and never recovered his spirits till the firing was over. Although they were pleased with the beads and other trinkets which were distributed among them, and seemed very desirous of hatchets and bill-hooks, they did not give the least intimation that they would part with any provisions; therefore no traffic was carried on between them and the English navigators.

This country consists, for the greater part, of open deserts and savannas: with a few willow-trees on the rivers; and seems to enjoy a temperate but rather cool climate. But, separated in the middle by the vast mountains of the Andes, one part of it, and also its inhabitants, differ widely from the other. To the northward of La Plata this part of South America is covered with wood, and stored with an inexhaustible fund of large timber: but to the southward of that river the eye can scarcely discover a single tree or shrub fit for any mechanical purpose; but even this seemingly-barren country has some good pastures, and numerous droves of wild horned cattle; and every district abounds with horses, which are supposed to have been brought hither by the Spaniards.

It has been suggested, that the Patagonians are descendants

scendants of the natives of the Canaries, who are a tall people; and it is said that they bury their dead on the eastern shores, as looking towards the country of their ancestors. Bougainville suggests, that they lead the life of Tartars. They are said to ramble through the immense plains of South America, being constantly on horseback, pursuing the game or wild beasts with which these plains abound, and dressing or covering themselves with their skins. *Pinkerton*, vol. ii. *Adm. Cordova's Voyage of Discovery to the Strait of Magellan, by order of the King of Spain.*

PATAGO'NIAN, *adj.* Belonging to Patagonia.

PATAGO'NIAN, *f.* A native of Patagonia.

PATAGON'ICA, or **PATAGON'ULA**, *f.* in botany. See **CORDIA patagonula**, vol. v.

PATA'IA, or **PATHAY**, a town of Hungary: seven miles north of Colocza.

PATAK', a town of Hungary, on the Latorcza, where the Protestants have a college: forty-four miles west-north-west of Munkacz, and twenty-five south-fourth-east of Caschau.

PATALA', a town of Sweden, in the province of Tavastland: forty-five miles north-north-east of Jamsio.

PAT'ALA, one of the receptacles for sinners, or hells of the Hindoos. It means rather the lower regions, a sort of purgatory perhaps, over which Yama presides, who is, however, usually styled King of Hell. See **YAMA**.

PAT'ALA-DE'VI, a name of the Hindoo goddess Parvati, in her character of consort of Yama, regent of the lower or infernal regions. In this character she corresponds with Proserpine, or Hecate, and, like the Grecian goddess, has a triple character, being sometimes called Tri-fakti-devi, and Tri-fakti-devi-kumari, meaning the goddess with three powers, and the thrice-potent-virgin-goddess. Thus the triple-virgin-goddess Diana is so named as a terrestrial deity; and Parvati is similarly named *Bhu-devi*, Goddess of the Earth.

PATAMAT', *f.* A two-masted vessel used in India; each mast carries one sail of four unequal sides. *Robert's Indian Glossary.*

PATANAM', a town of Hindoostan, in Marawar: forty miles north-west of Ramanadporum.

PATA'NI, a town of Asia, and capital of a kingdom subject to Siam, situated on the east coast, at the bottom of a bay, bounded by a promontory, in the gulf of Siam; containing between 7000 and 8000 inhabitants, composed of sundry nations, Chinese, Malays, Siamese, and Europeans. The Siamese have a grand pagoda, and the Mahometans a mosque. The Siamese in general cultivate the land; the Chinese are mostly artisans: 250 miles north of Malacca. Lat. 6. 58. N. lon. 101. 40. E.

PATANJA'LI, one of the systems or schools among the Hindoos. It corresponds, in many points, with that of the Stoics, and its promulgator, Patanjala, with Zeno; but the commentators on the Hindoo systems have buried the succinct works of the founders in such a mass of illustration, as they term it, that their precise differences are not easily determinable.

PATAPA', a town on the north coast of the island of Samar. Lat. 12. 40. N. lon. 125. 14. E.

PATAPAS'CO, a river of Maryland, which runs into the Chesapeake three miles south of Baltimore.

PATARA, in ancient geography. See the modern name, **PATERA**.

PATA'RD, or **PATAC'**, *f.* A copper coin in Flanders. Patacs are florins or gilders of 20 stivers, each of which was formerly subdivided into 16 pennings, but for a long time they have been divided into 12 parts or deniers. Accounts were formerly kept at Dunkirk, as at Antwerp, in florins, patards, and pennings; but of late years the new French system of francs and centimes has been adopted; and the new coins of France are also used at Dunkirk. At Lille, a patard, or stiver, is reckoned at 1½ sou, or 15 deniers; however, the present current coins are chiefly those of France.

PATAR'NE, a town of France, in the department of Vol. XVIII. No. 1281.

the Sarthe, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Mamers; containing 9941 inhabitants.

PATASPOUR, a town of Bengal: twenty-eight miles south-fourth-east of Midnapour. Lat. 22. 2. N. lon. 87. 37. E.

PATA'TE, a town of South-America, in the audience of Quito, and jurisdiction of Riobamba; celebrated for its sugar.

PATAVIL'CA. See **PATIVILCA**.

PATAVIN'ITY, *f.* [*patavinitas*, Lat.] Among critics, a fault objected to in the writings of Livy, which he derived from his country Padua, by the ancients called *Patavium*. Asinius Pollio, as we are informed by Quintilian, first taxed Livy with patavinity. But what this patavinity consisted in, the critics have been much puzzled to find out. All we know for certain is, that it was a fault in the language of Livy, not in the sentiments or manners. In all probability it is one of those delicacies that are lost in a dead language.

Dan. Georg. Morhof has an express treatise "*De Patavinitate Liviana*," printed at Kiel in 1685; from which we gather, that he considered *patavinity* to consist in a certain turn of expression, or provincial dialect, containing some phrases peculiar to the Paduese, and not strictly conformable to the purity and refined language of the authors who flourished in or near the Augustan age. See Liv. 10. c. 2. l. 41. c. 27.

PATAVINUS, or **PADOVA'NO** (Gaspar), otherwise called *Gaspar ab Avibus*, an engraver of the Italian school, was born at Padua in the year 1530. He appears to have been the pupil of Mantuanus, whose style he imitated, but never equalled. His prints are dated from the year 1560 to 1580, and signed in different manners, sometimes in the manner that appears in the upper corner of the Plate of **PATELLA**, over-leaf.

PATAVIR'CA, a town of Peru, in the jurisdiction of Santa, or Guarmey, consisting of about 60 houses; and lying upon the road from Paita to Lima, 67 miles north of that city. In its vicinity, at the distance of about three quarters of a league, and near the sea-coast, are the ruins of a palace of the Indian princes. Lat. 10. 25. S.

PATAVIUM, in ancient geography, a town of Italy, in Venetia. The honour of its foundation is ascribed to Antenor. It was situated in a country so fertile, that Constantine Palæologus is said to have declared, that throughout the East he did not know a place so proper for the seat of the terrestrial paradise. Its citizens were distinguished at Rome more than those of other towns, as they had a right of suffrage in common with the Roman citizens themselves. It was taken and destroyed by Attila, about the year 450 or 452, and soon after re-established by Narfes. It was taken by the Lombards in 601, and reduced to ashes; but Charlemagne restored its former lustre.

We learn from Tacitus (*Annal.* xvi. 21.) that this city was accustomed to celebrate the antiquity of its origin, and the name of its founder, in annual games, said to have been instituted by that hero. Livy informs us, that a Naumachia, exhibited annually on one of the rivers that water the town, perpetuated the memory of a signal victory obtained by the Paduans, long before their union with Rome, over a Lacedæmonian fleet, commanded by Cleonymas. They are also said to have not unfrequently assisted the Romans, and contributed in no small degree to their victories, particularly over the Gauls, the common enemy of both states, while an immense population furnished them with the means of giving effect to their measures, by sending powerful armies into the field. Padua afterwards submitted to the genius of Rome, but submitted with dignity, and was accordingly treated not as a conquered, but an allied republic: she was admitted to a participation not only of the franchise, but even of the riches, of Rome, as she could count at one period 500 Roman knights among her citizens; and drew by her manufactures, from the emporium of the world,

no small share of the tribute of the provinces. After having shared the glory of Rome, Padua partook of her disasters: like her she was plundered by Alaric and Attila; and, like her, half depopulated by the flight of her dismayed inhabitants, and obliged to bend under the yoke of a succession of barbarian invaders. Padua was, after the expulsion of the Goths, subjected to the Lombards, the Franks, and the Germans. At length it shook off the yoke, and with its sister states, Verona, Vicenza, Ferrara, and Mantua, experienced the advantages and disadvantages of republicanism, occasionally blessed with the enjoyment of freedom, and occasionally, with all its forms, smarting under the rod of a powerful usurper. At length, in the 15th century, Padua united itself to the Venetian territory, and under the influence of its laws acknowledged the supreme authority of that republic. At a later period it suffered much by fire and sword, as well as by earthquakes and pestilence. In ancient times, Padua was famous for its woollen manufactures, celebrated in prose by Strabo, and in verse by Martial; it still retains much of its reputation in this respect, its wool and woollen articles being considered as the best in Italy. For its present state, see the modern name PADUA, p. 186 of this volume.

PATA'Y, a town of France, in the department of the Loiret, near which the English were defeated by the French, under the conduct of the celebrated Maid of Orleans, in the year 1429: twelve miles north-north-west of Orleans, and eighteen north of Beaugency.

PATAZ'. See CAXAMARQUA, vol. iv.

PATCH, *f.* [piece, Fr. *pezzo*, Ital. *pars*, *particula*, Lat. a small part.] A piece sewed on to cover a hole:

Patches set upon a little breach,
Discredit more, in hiding of the flaw,
Than did the flaw before it was so patch'd. *Shakespeare.*

A piece inserted in mosaic or variegated work.—They suffer their minds to appear in a piebald livery of coarse patches and borrowed shreds, such as the common opinion of those they converse with clothe them in. *Locke*.—A small spot of black silk put on the face.—They were patched differently, and cast hostile glances upon one another; and their patches were placed in different situations, as party-signals to distinguish friends from foes. *Addison.*

If to every common funeral,
By your eyes martyr'd, such grace were allow'd,
Your face would wear not patches, but a cloud. *Suckling.*

A small particle; a parcel of land:

We go to gain a little patch of ground,
That hath in it no profit but the name. *Shakespeare.*

A paltry fellow. *Obsolete*.—It seems probable that fools were nicknamed *patch* from their dress; unless there happen to be a nearer affinity to the Italian *pazzo*, which signifies foolish. But, though a *patch* denotes a fool or simpleton, and, by corruption, a clown, it seems to have been occasionally used in the sense of any low or mean person. Thus in the *Midsummer Night's Dream*, Puck calls Bottom and his companions "a crew of patches, rude mechanicals," certainly not meaning to compare them to pampered and sleek buffoons. Whether in this sense the term have a simple reference to that class of people whose clothes might be pieced or *patched* with rags, or whether it is to be derived from the Sax. verb *præcan*, to deceive by false appearances, as suggested by the acute and ingenious author of the *Diversions of Purley*, must be left to the reader's own discernment. *Douce's Illustr. of Shakespeare*.—He was yet more fool in Plautus, whome his malaperte quire made to believe that all women accounted him so fayre, as they ran in every place after him. The *patche*, supposing it to be true, sayd, It is a greates paine to be an over-fayre man! *North's Tr. of Philosopher at Court.* 1575.

Laugh at me;
I do deserve it; call me *patch*, and puppy. *Beaum. and Fl.*

A small piece of greased leather, &c. which is put round the ball of a rifle before it is driven down, in order to fill up the interstices of the grooves, which, without this precaution, would occasion too great a windage.—As leather patches are frequently cut by the sharp edges of the rifles, they have latterly been much discontinued, and calico, dimity, Russia duck, fustian, thickset, and other substances, adopted in their stead. *Patches* are also used in duelling-pistols. *James's Mil. Dict.*

PATCH, a word used at Madras for a lot of three pieces of cloth. *Roberts's Ind. Gloss.*

To PATCH, *v. a.* To cover with a piece sewed on.—They would think themselves miserable in a *patched* coat, and yet their minds appear in a piebald livery of coarse patches and borrowed shreds. *Locke*.—To decorate the face with small spots of black silk.—In the middle boxes, were several ladies who *patched* both sides of their faces. *Addison.*

We begg'd her but to *patch* her face:
She never hit one proper place. *Swift.*

To mend clumsily; to mend so as that the original strength or beauty is lost.—Any thing mended is but *patch'd*. *Shakespeare.*

Physick can but mend our crazy state,
Patch an old building, not a new create. *Dryden.*

To make up of shreds or different pieces. Sometimes with *up* emphatical.—There is that visible symmetry in a human body, as gives an intrinsic evidence, that it was not formed successively and *patched up* by piece-meal. *Bentley*.—Enlarging an author's sense, and building fancies of our own upon his foundation, we may call paraphrasing; but more properly changing, adding, *patching*, piecing. *Felton.*

His glorious end was a *patch'd* work of fate,
Ill sort'd with a soft effeminate life. *Dryden.*

To dress in a party-coloured coat.—Man is but a *patched* fool. *Shakespeare's Midf. N. Dream.*

PATCH'-BOX, *f.* A box to hold those little round bits of silk which ladies used to stick upon their faces about a hundred years ago:

And this the morning-omens seem'd to tell:
Thrice from my trembling hand the *patch-box* fell. *Pope.*

PATCH'-WORK, *f.* Work made by sewing small pieces of different colours interchangeably together.—When my cloaths were finished, they looked like the *patch-work*, only mine were all of a colour. *Swift*.—Whoever only reads to transcribe shining remarks, without entering into the genius and spirit of the author, will be apt to be misled out of the regular way of thinking; and all the product of all this will be found a manifest incoherent piece of *patch-work*. *Swift.*

To *patch-work* learn'd quotations are ally'd:
Both strive to make our poverty our pride. *Young.*

PATCHEPALIAM', a town of Hindoostan, in Coimbatore: thirteen miles north-north-east of Coimbatore.

PATCH'ER, *f.* One that patches; a botcher:

PATCH'ERY, *f.* Botchery; bungling work; forgery. *Not in use.*

You hear him cogg, see him dissemble,
Know his gross *patchery*, love him, and feed him;
Yet remain assured that he's a made-up villain. *Shakespeare.*

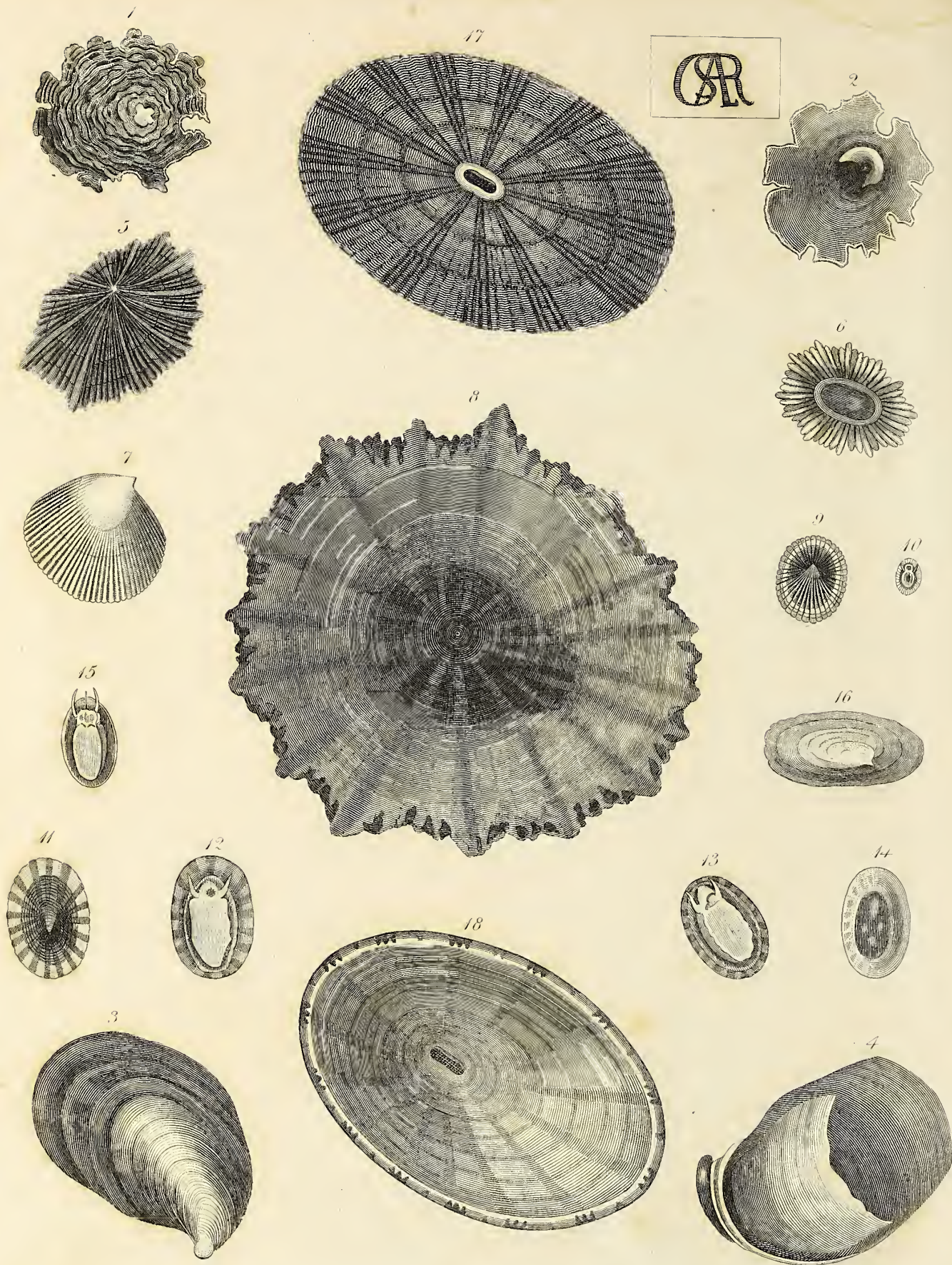
PATCHIEU', a river of Bootan, called by the Bootans Jumta Chieu, or the junction of three rivers, viz. the Hatchieu, the Tchintchieu, and the Patchieu.

PATCH'WARY, a town of Bengal: thirty-two miles south of Rajamal.

PATCOO'M,

PATELLA.

CR



Eleven Species of Limpet.

PATCOO'M, a town of Bengal: fifty miles south-west of Rogonatpour. Lat. 23. 3. N. lon. 87. 2. E.

PATE, *f.* [derived by Skinner from *tête*, Fr. It may be, however, a corrupted contraction of the Lat. *caput*.] The head. Now commonly used in contempt or ridicule, but anciently in serious language.—If any young novice happens into the neighbourhood of flatterers, presently they are plying his full purse and empty pate with addresses suitable to his vanity. *South*.

He is a traitor; let him to the Tower,
And crop away that factious pate of his. *Shakespeare*.

Thank your gentler fate,
That, for a bruised or broken pate,
Has freed you from those knobs that grow
Much harder on the married brow. *Hudibras*.

PATE, a small island of France, in the river Gironde, near Blaye.

PATEABAR'RY, a town of Bengal: twenty miles south of Moorshedabad.

PATEAGUR', a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Sallapour: thirty-five miles north-west of Sallapour.

PATED, *adj.* Having a pate. It is used only in composition: as, long-pated, or cunning; shallow-pated, or foolish.

PATEE, *adj.* in heraldry. See vol. ix. p. 423.

PATEE'BA, a town of Hindoostan, in Benares: eight miles south of Chunar.

PATEFACTION, *f.* [*patefactio*, Lat.] Act or state of opening; declaration.—The decalogue he [Moses] received from the hand of God, written with the finger of God; the rest of the divine *patefactions* he wrote himself. *Pearson on the Creed*.—God hath still preserved and quickened the worship due unto his name, by the *patefaction* of himself. *Ibid*.

PATEGO'W, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Hindia: eight miles south of Hurdah.

PATEL', a French landscape-painter much esteemed. The place of his birth, and the date of it, are equally unknown. The execution of his pictures is of an easy, light, and agreeable, character; and his general taste of a pleasing nature; but he does not rank above the class of artists merely agreeable.

PATELI, or PUTA'LA, a town of Thibet, in the district of Lassa, where, upon a mountain, is the temple or palace of the grand lama: three miles east of Lassa, and 272 north-north-west of Ghergong.

PATELLA, *f.* The round bone of the knee; the knee-pan.

PATELLÆ. Soft orbicular raised moveable bodies at the base of the thighs, in some insects, as the genus *Ichneumon*.

PATELLA, *f.* [Lat. a little plate, or dish, from the shape.] The LIMPET; in natural history, a genus of worms of the class vermes, order testacea, of which there are about 250 species described. Generic characters.—Animal a limax; shell univalve, subconic, shaped like a basin, and without a spire. In all cases the shells are attached to some hard body: their summit is sometimes acute, sometimes obtuse, flattened, turned back or perforated. The rock, or other hard body, to which they are always found adhering, serves as a kind of second or under shell to preserve them from injury; hence they have by some naturalists, though erroneously, been classed among the bivalves. The shells have been analysed, and they are found to consist chiefly of carbonate of lime. When exposed to a red heat, they emit a smell like horn, and when dissolved in acids, a semi-liquid gelatinous matter was left behind. For farther general remarks, see the article CONCHOLOGY, vol. v. p. 20. where several of the species are figured; and HELMINTHOLOGY, vol. ix. p. 354. The species are separated into five divisions, from the peculiarities of the shell.

I. *Labiata*. Furnished with an internal lip; shell entire.

1. *Patella equestris*: shell orbicular, perfoliate outwardly; lip vaulted perpendicular. This species inhabits the Indian and American seas. It is an inch wide; and is represented, of the full size, on the annexed Plate, at fig. 1. an inside view of the same at fig. 2.

2. *Patella neritoidea*: shell ovate, with a subspiral tip; lip lateral. The native place of this species is not known; it is generally found adhering to other testaceous substances. The shell is the size of a cherry; and the inhabitant is red.

3. *Patella Sinensis*: shell subconic, smooth; lip somewhat lateral. It inhabits the Mediterranean, Atlantic, and Indian, seas. The shell is very thin and pellucid; sometimes it is of a chestnut colour, speckled with minute grey dots; but generally it is white, with brown spots and rays.

4. *Patella porcellana*: shell oval, with a recurved tip; lip placed behind and flat. It inhabits India and Goree. The shell is convex; within white, the outside red, with white scaly spots, and transverse undulate blue lines.

5. *Patella fornicata*: shell oval, obliquely recurved behind; lip placed behind, and concave. This is found in the Mediterranean and near the island of Barbadoes. It is represented at fig. 3. and an inside view of the same at fig. 4.

6. *Patella aculeata*: shell oval, brown, with prickly striæ; crown recurved. Inhabits the American islands. This is represented on the CONCHOLOGY Plate I. fig. 7. vol. v.

7. *Patella trochiformis*: shell conic, longitudinally plaited; internal lip lateral. It inhabits Tranquebar, and the Falkland islands.

8. *Patella auricula*: shell roundish, with radiate grooves and striate; crown recurved; internal cavity ear-shaped. Inhabits Borneo, Santa Cruz, and St. Thomas's islands. This is represented on the annexed Plate, at figs. 5, 6.

9. *Patella rugosa*: shell ovate, thin, hyaline, obsoletely wrinkled transversely; margin unequal; lip unequally repand, hyaline. It inhabits China, and is generally found in the *Buccinum spiratum*.

10. *Patella Goreensis*: shell oval, flat, thin, white, glossy, lamellate on the outside. This is found adhering to rocks at Goree; and is about half an inch in diameter.

11. *Patella contorta*: shell granulate with white, with very fine perpendicular oblique ribs: the lip is very thin, oblique, and covering half the cavity. This is a very small shell.

12. *Patella explanata*: shell white, very finely striate; crown inclining downwards, and dilated, behind which the shell is depressed.

13. *Patella plicata*: shell conic, ochraceous, with ferruginous rays within, with longitudinal transversely-striate plaits.

14. *Patella striata*: shell conic, white and striate, with undulate grooves; the crown is a little lateral. See fig. 7.

15. *Patella solea*: shell a little twisted, pellucid, with ferruginous spots, thinly plaited and transversely grooved above; lip undulately repand.

16. *Patella echinata*: shell conic, prickly, glabrous within. It is found fossil near Crignon. The shell is calcareous and whitish, covered on the outside with prickles.

II. *Dentata*. With the margin angular or irregularly toothed.

17. *Patella crepidula*: shell oval, flattish, smooth; the lip flat behind. It is found in the Mediterranean, especially about the coasts of Barbary.

18. *Patella laciniosa*: shell with elevated unequal rays, thicker and obtuse on the outside. This is an inhabitant of India.

19. *Patella*

19. *Patella saccharina*: shell angular, with seven carinate obtuse ribs. It is found at Java and Barbadoes.

20. *Patella barbara*: shell toothed, with nineteen elevated vaulted muricate rays. It is found near the Falkland-islands.

21. *Patella granularis*: shell toothed, with elevated angular imbricate striæ. Inhabits southern Europe, and the Cape of Good Hope. See CONCHOLOGY, Plate I. fig. 6.

22. *Patella granatina*: shell angular, with numerous muricate striæ. It inhabits Jamaica and southern Europe, is from one to three inches long. The inside of the shell is shown on the annexed Plate, fig. 8.

23. *Patella vulgata*: shell with about fourteen obsolete angles, and dilated acute crenate margin; crown central. This is described and figured in "Donovan's Shells:" it inhabits the marine rocks of Europe and India. It is about two inches high, and from three to four wide: in the older shells the margin is nearly even, and the number of ribs irregular.

In Collinson's History of Somerset, we find a description of a species of limpet, picked up at low water near the town of Minehead, which contains a liquor fit for marking linen. The particular species is not noted; but, as the present is the most common, we think it may be a variety of it. "When the shell is picked off, there will appear a white vein lying transversely in a little furrow next the head of the fish, which may be taken out by a bodkin or any other pointed instrument. The letters or figures made with this liquor on linen will presently appear of a light-green colour, and, if placed in the sun, will change into the following colours: (if in winter, about noon; if in summer, an hour or two after sun-rising, and so much before setting; for in the heat of the day in summer it will change so fast, that the succession of each colour will scarcely be distinguished.) Next to the first light green, it will appear of a deep green, and in a few minutes change to a full sea-green; after which, in a few minutes more, it will alter to a blue, then to a purplish red; after which, lying an hour or two, (if the sun shines,) it will be of a deep purple red; beyond which the sun does no more. But this last beautiful colour, after washing in scalding water and soap, will, on being laid out to dry, be a fair bright crimson, which will abide all future washing. This species of limpets are some red, others white, black, yellow, brown, and sand-colour, and some are striped with white and brown parallel lines."

24. *Patella depressa*: shell with fourteen angles, oblong; crown lateral. This is described and figured in Pennant's British Zoology. It inhabits the rocks of Europe.

25. *Patella cærulea*: shell crenate, subangular, with numerous unequal striæ; beneath blue. This is an inhabitant of the Mediterranean.

26. *Patella tuberculata*: shell slightly toothed, conic, tuberculate, refuse behind. The shell is yellowish, with white tubercles disposed in rows.

27. *Patella lepas*: shell roundish, pectinate, with imbricate, tuberculate, transversely-striate, rays; crown incurved. There are two varieties, the one found in Chili, the other in the Falkland-islands. The second is usually named the *bronze limpet*.

28. *Patella tricoftata*: shell oval, three-ribbed, white, striate at the sides; internal margin flattish and a little jagged. It is found in the Indian Ocean.

29. *Patella Mytilina*: shell carinate, rounded on the fore-part, with undulate striæ, brown, perlaceous within, the hinder margin crenate. Found in different parts of South America; and is an inch and a quarter long.

30. *Patella ovata*: shell toothed, oval, rather conical, ribbed, white, brown between the ribs, within brown with white grooves.

31. *Patella stellata*: shell angular, ovate, depressed,

with ten elevated rays, and shorter intermediate ribs. See CONCHOLOGY, Plate I. fig. 5.

32. *Patella Islandica*: shell solid, ovate, gibbous, unequally ribbed; within glabrous, with alternate cinereous and horny rays; margin crenate. It inhabits, as its specific name denotes, the shores of Iceland; and is about an inch and a half long.

33. *Patella Cypria*: shell oval, subpellucid, ribbed; the ribs are occasionally tuberculate, and foliaceous on the outside. It inhabits the shores of Cyprus.

34. *Patella costata*: shell ovate, a little gibbous, white, with crowded unequal tuberculate rugged ribs.

35. *Patella leucopleura*: shell ovate, dusky, with crowded white smooth unequal ribs.

36. *Patella striatula*: shell a little rugged, white, with brown flexuose striæ branching outwards, with two brown spots in the bottom of the hollow.

37. *Patella octoradiata*: shell convex, with eight large tuberculate ribs, besides smaller ones. It inhabits the American islands.

38. *Patella rubra*: shell toothed, red under the brown skin, with elevated rounded striæ, and smaller imbricate ones, within white.

39. *Patella hepatica*: shell ovate, gibbous, thin, toothed, and of a livid colour, with elevated carinate obtusely-spined striæ.

40. *Patella badia*: shell subconvex, brown; within bay, with twelve larger rays, each surrounded by a rib, and as many smaller ones.

41. *Patella fuscifrons*: shell flattish and brown, with ten elevated striæ; crown of a different colour; bottom with a pale liver-coloured spot, edged with glaucous and gold; the inner margin brown. The shell is from two to four inches long; more or less convex.

42. *Patella maculosa*: shell flattened, the fore part narrow and rounded; yellowish, spotted with brown, with a white crown, with flat rounded equal rays.

43. *Patella rotundata*: shell suboval, flattened, varied with brown, with rounded flat ribs and a differently-coloured crown and bottom.

44. *Patella pecten*: shell ovate, obscurely edged with white, radiate, with distant striæ pectinate outwardly; crown grey; bottom with a spot surrounded with a white belt. It is found in North America.

45. *Patella corrugata*: shell ovate, wrinkled, chestnut, crown with a white circle; within cinereous, radiate with white; bottom pale brown, edged with white.

46. *Patella albo-radiata*: shell ovate; each side brown, radiate with white, with elevated pectinate striæ; the crown is white, and the bottom yellowish. It is about half an inch long.

47. *Patella olivacea*: shell ovate, and olive-colour; within brown, varied with white, with elevated unequal striæ; the margin with two rows of unequal spines; crown pale yellow; bottom silvery, with a brown centre. The shell is half an inch long, and the bottom is surrounded with a white belt.

48. *Patella cerea*: shell ovate, both sides waxen colour, perpendicularly striate, with thirteen flattened ribs and white bottom.

49. *Patella impressa*: shell ovate, with elevated, transversely-striate, brownish striæ, spotted with white, and reaching half-way down; crown with a white impressed circumference.

50. *Patella aurantia*: shell ovate, solid; citron undulate with brown, with elevated crowded wrinkled striæ and white bottom.

51. *Patella cingulum*: shell ovate, denticulate, cinereous, with three black belts, within milk-white, with elevated unequal striæ, nodulous on the outside, and spinous at the margin.

52. *Patella oculata*: shell ovate, white, with flattened ribs of unequal length, brownish between them; crown with a brown belt.

53. *Patella*

53. *Patella Magellanica*: shell thin, ovate, white, with a nodulous margin, within perlaceous, with elevated striæ, crown pointed, brown; bottom brown. It inhabits the straits of Magellan.

54. *Patella ochroleuca*: shell ochraceous, with three yellow bands; and elevated, acute, unequal striæ; crown white; bottom silvery.

55. *Patella dentata*: shell white, denticulate, with elevated, acute, unequal striæ; crown surrounded with a double row of cinereous dots, and a dusky-grey band.

56. *Patella nodosa*: shell yellow, radiate with brown, with elevated, nodulous, unequal striæ; crown and bottom white.

57. *Patella cinerea*: shell toothed, cinereous, with unequal elevated striæ, between which it is brown and rugged; crown pointed, milk-white.

58. *Patella exalbida*: shell whitish, with brown rays, and elevated, rounded, unequal striæ, between which it is rugged; crown obtuse, white, with a broad interrupted brown band, and another marginal one.

59. *Patella cancellata*: shell cinereous and brown, with decussate striæ and two rows of tubercles; the crown is yellowish, and the bottom has a white spot. There is a variety that is grey, with dusky rays, and a few yellow striæ; within dirty yellow with a white bottom. It is found in Jamaica, and is about one inch and a half long.

60. *Patella lævis*: shell rounded, smooth, yellowish, with a broad citron marginal band spotted with brown, and another narrow one; margin dilated, acute, and a little rugged.

61. *Patella argentea*: shell smooth, thick, a little silvery; with eleven brown rays; margin silvery; crown pale yellow; bottom ivory, with a double white ring. This is about two inches long, but is very rare.

62. *Patella cuprea*: shell white, with strong, rounded, brown ribs, within perlaceous; crown and bottom coppery.

63. *Patella rubida*: shell pale, liver-coloured both sides, with alternate larger and smaller carinate ribs; it has a flat and white crown.

64. *Patella glabra*: shell brown, glabrous above, with elevated crowded white striæ beneath; crown obtuse, white, with a fulvous border; bottom fulvous.

65. *Patella flaveola*: shell yellowish, varied with brown, with flattened unequal ribs; crown obtuse; bottom varied reddish and white.

66. *Patella infundibulum*: shell denticulate, compressed on each side, rounded, yellow, with perpendicular striæ and carinate ribs; bottom varied with white and cinereous.

67. *Patella cyathus*: shell rounded, glabrous, white.

68. *Patella finica*: shell ovate, entirely yellow, with undulate grooves, within striate perpendicularly; margin scalloped. It is found in China, and is about three inches and a half long.

69. *Patella punctata*: shell roundish, white, with many coloured dots, radiate at the base, and surrounded with two brown rings; margin a little flexuous.

70. *Patella lugubris*: shell ovate, with annular striæ, black, with elevated unequal striæ; margin crenate; crown and bottom white.

71. *Patella ulysiponenfis*: shell ovate, toothed, yellowish, with elevated flattened striæ; crown pointed, and of an orange colour.

72. *Patella umbella*: shell oblong, red, with elevated unequal white striæ; the margin is crenate. It inhabits Africa, in numerous varieties. The shell is rarely of a straw-colour; it is sometimes spotted or clouded.

73. *Patella crenata*: shell thin, pellucid, striate, blackish, with olive rays, within glaucous or cinereous; crown pointed; margin crenate; bottom milk-white. It is found on the shores of Africa, Malaga, and Lisbon.

74. *Patella ferruginea*: shell ferruginous, with angular or undulate russet lines, and cinereous belts, within

milk-white, with elevated knotty striæ; the margin is plaited.

75. *Patella melanogramma*: shell oval, ochraceous, with elevated black striæ, within silvery, spotted; crown pointed, white; bottom with a straw-colour spot.

76. *Patella repanda*: shell ovate, thin, within silvery, with brownish rays, and thin undulate striæ, with bay-coloured granulations. The margin is flexuous. It inhabits the seas of Magellan.

77. *Patella angulosa*: shell oval, white, with very thin striæ, and varied with red spots and dots; margin eight-angled.

78. *Patella tigrina*: shell oval, smooth, polished; pellucid, striate with seven yellowish ribs; the colour is bluish-olive, dotted with brown; the margin is seven-angled.

79. *Patella monopis*: shell oblong, flattish, bay striate with white, within milk-white, with eleven elevated unequal striæ; crown rounded, white. It inhabits the American islands.

80. *Patella chlorosticta*: shell ovate, toothed, brown, dotted with green, with eleven elevated, hollow, broader striæ, and as many narrower ones; the crown is white.

81. *Patella margaritacea*: shell thin, unequally striate, white, within perlaceous; crown with an orange mark, surrounded with a yellowish ring; the margin crenate. This is an Iceland shell.

82. *Patella tenuissima*: shell oval, thin, ochraceous, with angular chefnut lines, and elevated, obtuse, hollow, unequal striæ.

83. *Patella mitrula*: shell solid, sub-conic, transversely plaited, with a flexuous margin. It inhabits Barbadoes.

84. *Patella plicaria*: shell ovate, toothed, with thirty elevated, obtuse, undulate, and transversely wrinkled, striæ. Found in the straits of Magellan.

85. *Patella pentagona*: shell whitish, obtusely pentagonal, with a dilated crenate margin; crown obtuse; bottom reddish.

86. *Patella ænea*: shell ovate, tender, pellucid, with elevated striæ, covered with a whitish cuticle, under which it is silvery, with russet rays; crown and bottom coppery. It inhabits the straits of Magellan.

87. *Patella conchacea*: shell thin, oblong-ovate, with very fine undulate striæ, yellowish, with elevated darker rays; crown recurved. It inhabits South America, and resembles the common muscle, except in the hinge.

88. *Patella stanæa*: shell ovate, silvery, with elevated flattened striæ; crown obtuse, coppery; bottom with an oval bay mark; the margin is flexuous.

89. *Patella candidissima*: shell orbicular, striate, white, with a brownish band, dotted with brown; within grey, with unequal striæ; margin transversely wrinkled.

90. *Patella distorta*: shell rugged and distorted, without regularity; rather depressed, with an irregular margin, and very small papillæiform vertex, not central: the inside is not glossy, but appears through a lens to be minutely granulate. This is a Shetlandic species, discovered by Mr. Fleming; it is not uncommon on stones in deep water, and was first noticed on the stones attached to the cod-lines which had lain long under water. The colour is invariably brown, as well on the inside as without; and when examined by a glass appears papillous. The largest specimens are about half an inch in diameter. Described and figured by Mr. Montague in the Linn. Transf. vol. xi. 1815.

III. *Mucronata*. With a pointed recurved tip, or crown.

91. *Patella Hungarica*: shell entire, conic, pointed, striate, with a hooked revolute crown. This is described and figured in Donovan's British Shells; and likewise in Pennant's British Zoology. It inhabits the American, Mediterranean, and Asiatic, seas.

9 M

92. *Patella*

92. *Patella imbricata*: shell entire, oblong, imbricate, the crown placed behind.

93. *Patella mammillaris*: shell entire, conic, striate, subdiaphanous, with a reflected smooth crown. This is described and figured by Pennant, and it inhabits the shores of the Mediterranean and Africa.

94. *Patella tricarinata*: shell substriate, with three ribs on the fore-part.

95. *Patella pectinata*: shell entire, ovate, with wrinkled slightly-branched striæ; crown nearly central, reflected, and pointed. It is found on the shores of the Mediterranean, and is about two inches long.

96. *Patella lutea*: shell entire, oval, convex, striate, with a sub-marginal, reflected, mucronate crown. It inhabits divers parts of India, and is about the size of a melon-seed.

97. *Patella cristata*: crown revolute; back crested, carinate.

98. *Patella lacustris*: shell very entire, oval, membranous, with a nearly-central, mucronate, reflected, shell. It inhabits the fresh waters of Europe.

99. *Patella fluviatilis*: shell very entire, oval, a little horny, with a marginal mucronate crown; aperture oval. This is very like the last; and inhabits, like it, the fresh waters of Europe.

100. *Patella caeca*, the blind limpet: shell entire, with elevated dots, and striate; crown acute, straight. Found in the bays of Norway, on stones. The shell is white, with from sixty to eighty striæ; the inhabitant is white, ovate, without the least appearance of eyes. A magnified view of the shell is given on the annexed Plate, at fig. 9. and of the blind inhabitant, of the natural size, at fig. 10. This and the three following species are figured from the Zoologia Danica.

101. *Patella virginea*: shell very entire, white, with red bars. This is found on fuci in the bays of Norway. The shell is represented of the natural size at fig. 11. and the animal at fig. 12.

102. *Patella tessellata*: shell very entire, of a whitish colour tessellated with red. Found on the rocks and fuci about Norway. The shell with the inhabitant is shown at fig. 13. the empty shell at fig. 14.

103. *Patella fulva*, the red limpet: shell very entire, orange, with a mucronate and nearly vertical crown. It inhabits Norway, on fuci, and testaceous substances. See fig. 15.

104. *Patella subspiralis*: shell ovate, with an obtuse subspiral tip. Found in Norway.

105. *Patella ambigua*: shell ovate, with a slightly toothed margin, and a rather acute and reflected point. Inhabits Norway.

106. *Patella rubicunda*: shell very entire, rather conical, smooth, and reddish. It inhabits the deeps of Greenland.

107. *Patella Borniana*: shell ovate, very entire, with very fine longitudinal striæ, white, with red veins.

108. *Patella calyptra*: shell entire, with imbricate ribs; the crown is hooked; the margin sinuate. Inhabits North America.

109. *Patella melanoleuca*: shell striate, very entire: alternately black and white.

110. *Patella pectunculus*: shell oblong, convex, with elevated nodulous striæ, slightly toothed, within polished; crown curved forwards.

111. *Patella fasciata*: shell ovate, white with a brown band, and elevated acute striæ; the margin is dilated, crenate, and cinereous within.

112. *Patella elegans*: shell with decussate striæ, white radiate with red, denticulate; crown grey.

113. *Patella squamosa*: shell with elevated striæ, transversely undulate on the outside, brown, silvery towards the margin, crown bronzed, hooked.

114. *Patella squalida*: shell entire, brown, within whitish with a bluish bottom; the margin bluish, radiate with brown, with elevated obsolete striæ; crown knotty.

115. *Patella crocea*: shell smooth, subangular, yellow, radiate with brown; crown obtuse, white; bottom with a whitish spot.

116. *Patella candida*: shell ovate, smooth, on both sides white, with a rosy belt on the outside.

117. *Patella trigona*: shell compressed, convex in the middle, cancellate, white, with a brownish band on the outside, and margin within; crown marginal, obtuse.

118. *Patella minima*: shell rounded, convex, thin, smooth, whitish, with reddish spots; crown very obtuse, and white. It inhabits Ferroe island.

119. *Patella Tranquebarica*: shell ovate, thin, pellucid, with very fine crowded striæ, chestnut with white scales; within milk white, with a brown spot at the bottom; the crown is marked with an azure spot. It inhabits Tranquebar, as its name imports.

120. *Patella perversa*: shell oblong, horny, very thin, pellucid, glabrous, with a ferruginous base. It is found in Africa. The point of the crown is bent back towards the hind parts of the snail.

121. *Patella cernua*: shell with decussate grooves, thin, pale flesh-colour, with an oblong aperture.

122. *Patella incurva*: shell entirely white, flat; point of the crown twisted.

123. *Patella interrupta*: shell oval, depressed, glabrous, brownish, with green dots disposed in oblique interrupted rays: crown with an obtuse hook.

IV. *Integerrima*. Very entire, and not pointed at the tip or crown.

124. *Patella afra*: shell conic, striate, greenish, or pale brown, within white; crown glabrous, white, obtuse, central; margin glabrous. It inhabits the island of Goree.

125. *Patella Lusitanica*: shell conic, white, with brown rays marked with striæ, granulate with black; crown acute, not radiate, and surrounded with a chestnut ring. It inhabits Portugal, on the sea-rock; and is very small.

126. *Patella radiata*: shell rounded, convex, grey, with decussate striæ; crown pointed, central, and marked with twelve orange radiate lines; the bottom is horny. It inhabits Jamaica. See CONCHOLOGY Plate I. fig. 8.

127. *Patella areolata*: shell pyramidal, reddish-grey, with very thin circular striæ, crossed by longitudinal ones; crowned violet. It resembles the *P. Magellanica* of a former section, but is more depressed, and broader at the base.

128. *Patella flammea*: shell ovate, with very fine annulate striæ, reddish-grey, with undulate brown rays; the crown is acute, central, white in the middle.

129. *Patella Indica*: shell reddish-grey, with radiate striæ; glabrous, narrower on one side; crown acute, smooth, surrounded with a reddish ring. It inhabits India, is nearly four inches long, and resembles the *P. rustica*, to be described hereafter.

130. *Patella Surinamensis*: shell thick, subovate, yellowish, with black rays, and longitudinal unequal striæ, and surrounded with knotty belts; crown obtuse, smooth, and white. It inhabits Surinam.

131. *Patella vitellina*: shell ovate, yellow, with an unequally striate base, and obtuse whitish crown.

132. *Patella sanguinolenta*: shell ovate, convex, white, solid, with intermixed, capillary, and flexuous, elevated longitudinal striæ; the crown is surrounded with a broad ring, dotted with red. It is found in Africa.

133. *Patella lævigata*: shell ovate, yellow, within bluish-white, with oblique striæ, the crown is white, smooth, and polished.

134. *Patella punctulata*: shell rounded, white, with many-coloured dots, radiate towards the base, and surrounded with two brown rings.

135. *Patella pellucida*: shell very entire, ovate, gibbous, pellucid, with four blue rays. This is described and figured by Donovan, Pennant, Lister, and others. It is

is about the size of a walnut; and is found in the European and Northern seas.

136. *Patella testudinaria*: shell very entire, acute, smooth, glabrous. It inhabits the Indian and Northern seas in numerous varieties.

137. *Patella testudinalis*: shell very entire, ovate, and striate; a variety has its crown obtuse, and nearly central. It inhabits the seas about Greenland, among fuci.

138. *Patella compressa*: shell very entire, oval, oblong, striate, smooth, compressed on the back. It inhabits India, and is about four inches long.

139. *Patella rustica*: shell very entire, conic, with fifty obtuse striæ.

140. *Patella fusca*: shell very entire, ovate, obtuse, with elevated striæ.

141. *Patella notata*: shell entire, striate, with a submucronate erect crown, within white, with a black heart-shaped spot white in the middle. It inhabits the Mediterranean.

142. *Patella cruciata*: shell very entire, oval, sub-convex, brown, with a white cross.

143. *Patella radians*: shell entire, oval, pellucid, depressed, striate, horny, radiate, with black spots. It inhabits New Zealand.

144. *Patella rota*: shell roundish, the inside somewhat silvery, the outside with reddish streaks and a yellowish border. Inhabits the Indian and American seas.

145. *Patella umbellata*: shell entire, roundish, diaphanous, depressed, with yellowish rays within; crown pale yellow, margin very acute. It is about four inches and a half long, and is found in the Indian ocean.

146. *Patella pustulata*: shell thin, oval, depressed, radiate, white, dotted with red, within smooth.

147. *Patella symmetrica*: shell ovate, conical, solid, brown, divided into partitions by perpendicular white lines; within smooth, white; margin cut archwise.

148. *Patella citrina*: shell ovate, convex, with very fine decussate striæ, white, with two broad yellow bands, within whitish, with a milk-white bottom; crown brownish.

149. *Patella Capensis*: shell oval, with decussate striæ, the longitudinal ones alternately brown and white, within somewhat perlaceous, with a white bottom. It inhabits the Cape of Good Hope.

150. *Patella anomala*: shell coarse, brown, orbicular, with a submarginal crown. It inhabits the deeps of the Norway seas, on rocks and dead testaceous substances; and has been particularly described under the article *HELMINTHOLOGY*, vol. ix. p. 356. Plate IV. fig. 17.

151. *Patella guttata*: shell finely striate, and varied with dots of different colours; the bottom is dusky. It is about an inch and a half long, and resembles the compressa.

152. *Patella mytiliformis*: shell glabrous, lead colour, with a white horse-shoe shaped band within. It inhabits the Ferroe island, adhering to zoophytes.

153. *Patella scutiformis*: shell oval, thin, black, with white perpendicular flattened striæ.

154. *Patella cochlear*: shell white, flattish, one part narrow, caniculate within, with a bluish callus shaped like a horse-shoe, the other part rounded.

155. *Patella craticulata*: shell oval, thin, depressed, cancellate, radiate.

156. *Patella cruentata*: shell oval, a little convex, varied with red, and slightly toothed, with elevated unequal rough striæ.

157. *Patella papyracea*: shell depressed, thin, hyaline, dotted with red, with chefnut rays outwardly, and crowded thinner, and granulate thicker striæ.

158. *Patella cylindrica*: shell oval, flat, with crowded longitudinal striæ of unequal thickness, and all granulate.

159. *Patella decussata*: shell somewhat convex, white, with crowded red dots; within radiate with red and white, with decussate glabrous striæ, and a few longitudinal thicker white ones.

160. *Patella hæmatosticta*: shell thin, depressed, white, dotted with red; within brownish, spotted, striate; crown varied with cinereous and brownish.

161. *Patella asteroides*: shell flattish, cancellate, cinereous, with a chefnut star and rays towards the margin; crown smooth, grey, surrounded with brown dots.

162. *Patella ovalis*: shell oval, somewhat convex, thin, with crowded striæ, grey, with blackish rays and spots.

163. *Patella rubella*: shell a little convex, striate, reddish; crown whitish, spotted with red; the bottom part is whitish.

164. *Patella spectabilis*: shell flattish, a little wrinkled, striate, reddish-white, with a chefnut band towards the crown, and another bay one at the margin.

165. *Patella conspurcata*: shell solid, flattish, striate, black, with striate dots, within bluish, crown dirty-yellow.

166. *Patella melanosticta*: shell solid, flattish, striate, whitish, with cinereous rays and black dots, within bluish; crown a little pointed and whitish.

167. *Patella atra*: shell black, striate, with a paler crown; bottom with a brownish mark, surrounded with a white horse-shoe shaped band.

168. *Patella specularis*: shell oval, convex, solid, glabrous, liver-colour, within and the crown brownish, the latter surrounded with a white border, and interrupted brownish band.

169. *Patella canescens*: shell oval, black, within bluish, striate, the larger striæ flattened and grey; crown obtuse, brownish, with a whitish area.

170. *Patella virescens*: shell oblong, flattish, dilated on each side, and striate; olivaceous, radiate, and spotted with white, within blue.

171. *Patella pulla*: shell rounded, convex, longitudinally striate, and transversely wrinkled, brownish, within russet brown, with whitish and brownish rays, and two milk-white bands above.

172. *Patella revoluta*: shell sub-oval, crenate, striate, ochraceous, with red spots and rays, broader on one side; margin revolute.

173. *Patella squamata*: shell ovate, convex, striate, the striæ scaly, varied with white and black; crown nearly central, grey.

174. *Patella testacea*: shell ovate, very finely striate, testaceous, with three transverse brownish rings, within pale yellow, with a whitish bottom.

175. *Patella capillaris*: shell ovate, thin, brown, with darker bands, and paler striæ, within brownish, crown and bottom white.

176. *Patella glauca*: shell ovate, narrower on one side, very finely striate, bluish, with a white band towards the margin, and another bluish one; crown and margin white.

177. *Patella obscura*: shell ovate, flattish, striate, varied with yellowish and brown, dotted with green, within brown, crown bay.

178. *Patella exoleta*: shell oval, sub-convex, unequally striate, whitish, with a few black lines reaching half way; bottom with an ochraceous spot.

179. *Patella affinis*: shell oval, flattish, solid, with a few black rays reaching half way; the bottom is marked with a white spot.

180. *Patella rotalis*: shell white, opaque, flat, round, with a regular toothed margin. It is found occasionally at Sandwich: is very minute and rare.

181. *Patella fuscata*: shell ovate, convex, very finely striate, and varied with brown.

182. *Patella mellia*: shell rounded, solid, glabrous, honey-colour, within white; crown brownish; margin spotted with brown, and silvery within; bottom with a liver-colour spot.

183. *Patella anceps*: shell solid, glabrous, a little pointed, pale chefnut, within pale flesh-colour.

184. *Patella Guineensis*: shell ovate, convex, very smooth, one side broader and chefnut-coloured, the other with the crown pale yellow; margin flesh-coloured on each side.

185. *Patella*

185. *Patella complanata*: shell depressed-hemispherical, obsoletely cancellate, varied with white and brownish.
186. *Patella virgata*: shell ovate, longitudinally striate, whitish with brown rays and crown, within perlaceous.
187. *Patella nivea*: shell subconic, solid, glabrous, snowy, with transverse concentric rings. Inhabits Africa.
188. *Patella grisea*: shell oval, with crowded radiate grooves, within polished; crown nearly central. It inhabits Africa.
189. *Patella navicula*: shell narrow, with decussate striæ, rosy with a whitish callous belt on one side in the middle, and whitish bottom, the margin is revolute on each side.
190. *Patella cingulata*: shell suboval, obsoletely striate, ferruginous, with two elevated obscurely barred belts; crown nearly central.
191. *Patella scarpa*: shell clear white, with undulate striæ, narrow, the broader side with an acute callus, the narrower side repand.
192. *Patella parva*: shell small, entire, without gloss, whitish, faintly radiate with red. This is described and figured by Donovan. It is found on the Devonshire coasts, but is very rare.
193. *Patella oblonga*, or oblong fresh-water patella: shell perfectly entire, oblong, compressed, with reflex oblique mucronated vertex. Found in the waters near Beaconsfield, adhering to the leaves of the *Iris pseudacorus*. It is about a quarter of an inch in length, and a tenth of an inch in diameter, turned downwards, and leaning to one side. Described by the Rev. John Lightfoot in the *Phil. Trans.* for 1786. It is shown, magnified, on the annexed Plate, at fig. 16.
- V. *Perforatæ*. Crown, or tip, perforate.
194. *Patella fissura*: shell oval, conic, with reticulate striæ, cleft on the fore-part; crown recurved. It is found on divers parts of the coasts of Europe and Barbary, and in this country.
195. *Patella fissurella*: shell grooved and perforated on the fore-part; crown recurved. It is found adhering to stones in the Iceland seas.
196. *Patella pustula*: shell oval, gibbous, convex, with reticulate striæ, and crenate margin. It inhabits the Mediterranean, Atlantic, and Indian seas.
197. *Patella græca*: shell ovate, convex, reticulate; the margin crenulate inwardly.
198. *Patella nimbofa*: shell ovate, striate, rugged, brown, with an oblong perforation. It inhabits the Mediterranean and Atlantic. This shell is exhibited at fig. 17. and the inside of it at fig. 18.
199. *Patella nubecula*: shell subovate, rugged, white, radiate with red, with an ovate perforation. It inhabits the Mediterranean; and resembles the preceding.
200. *Patella picta*: shell ovate, solid, clouded, white and green, with oblique, undulate, alternate violet and white rays. It inhabits the Straits of Magellan.
201. *Patella Barbadenfis*: shell oblong, unequally striate; within smooth, milk-white, with greenish bands; margin crenulate. It inhabits Barbadoes.
202. *Patella Jamaicensis*: shell whitish, transversely annulate, with longitudinal striæ covered with foliaceous tubercles, which are larger outwardly. This is found on the coasts of Jamaica and Barbadoes.
203. *Patella Caffra*: shell ovate, compressed, striate, very finely annulate, and radiate with black; bottom milk-white; perforation nearly central. It inhabits the Cape of Good Hope.
204. *Patella perforata*: shell a little convex, transversely wrinkled, brownish with straw-coloured rays and spots, with longitudinal striæ alternately larger and scaly.
205. *Patella porphyrozonias*: shell oblong, compressed, unequally striate, white with five purple interrupted belts, within greenish-white. It inhabits North America. The perforation is very minute, orbicular, and surrounded on the inside with a red circle.
206. *Patella rosea*: shell very thinly striate, with alternate rosy and white rays; the perforation is oval.
207. *Patella scutellum*: shell each side repand, compressed; perforation radiate with grooves.
208. *Patella avellana*: shell thin, white, with very fine striæ; perforation oblong, and divided by a ligament. There is a variety of which the margin is a little revolute on each side.
209. *Patella spinosa*: shell ovate, convex, white, with elevated striæ, growing thicker towards the margin, and marked with four rows of tubercles, the exterior tubercles are spinous.
210. *Patella denticulata*: shell ovate, gibbous, whitish radiate with brown, within green, with elevated striæ; margin denticulate, crenate within.
211. *Patella nodulosa*: shell ovate, convex, with elevated nodulous striæ, crossing thinner transverse ones, within white; crown black.
212. *Patella angusta*: shell depressed, white, with elevated striæ, every fourth of which is larger; perforation very narrow, and surrounded with a chefnut band on the outside, and a green one within.
213. *Patella inæqualis*: shell ovate, convex, with decussate striæ, white, something triangular on the broader side; perforation surrounded with an elevated ring, round which is a red line.
214. *Patella minuta*: shell oval, pyramidal, reddish, with twelve elevated white striæ; bottom white; perforation oval, and nearly central; margin denticulate.
215. *Patella conspersa*: shell ovate, convex, striate, yellowish, with red dots, and three oblique rays: within smooth, white.
216. *Patella rubescens*: shell oval, striate reddish, with a white band in the middle; within it is white; margin entire; perforation linear.
217. *Patella sanguinea*: shell oval, thin, red, within greenish-white, with longitudinal striæ crossing finer transverse ones, which are rugged outwardly.
218. *Patella ventricosa*: shell oval, ventricose, with decussate red striæ, within white; crown depressed, with an orbicular perforation; margin entire.
219. *Patella triradiata*: shell oval, flattish, striate, white, with three brown rays, within whitish, perforation linear; margin entire.
220. *Patella tenuis*: shell oval, a little convex, pellucid, longitudinally striate, white, with five half-brown rays; within yellowish.
221. *Patella melanozonias*: shell convex rosy, with an interrupted black band, and elevated unequal white striæ; within smooth, white; margin denticulate.
222. *Patella effusa*: shell convex, rosy, with elevated nodulous white, alternately larger striæ; perforation round and large.
223. *Patella punicea*: shell convex, chefnut, with unequal crowded decussate striæ, within smooth, with alternate green and white bands; the perforation is round.
224. *Patella rufescens*: shell convex, white shaded with red, and here and there striate with red, with granulate striæ; within it is smooth and white.
225. *Patella dimidiata*: shell convex, above clear white, cancellate, longitudinally striate towards the margin, with a rosy band.
226. *Patella lactea*: shell convex, white, with unequal acute glabrous striæ; within smooth; the crown is rosy; the perforation large and orbicular.
227. *Patella pyramidalis*: shell convex, rosy, striate, with twelve smooth ribs; within smooth and greenish-white.
228. *Patella bicolor*: shell narrow, alternately radiate with chefnut and white, with unequal, thick, lamellate, striæ; within smooth, white, margin crenulate.
229. *Patella erythrocephala*: shell convex, white, with red lines outwardly, and elevated rugged contrary striæ, ten of them larger; the margin repand and inflected.
230. *Patella verrucosa*: shell above brown, striate, terminated

minated by a knotty belt, beneath radiate with red, with acute nodulous ribs; margin denticulate, repand.

231. *Patella contaminata*: shell convex, with nodulous unequal ribs, the larger ones yellowish-brown, and marked with black dots disposed in interrupted circles, within greenish-white; the crown is cinereous.

232. *Patella atrata*: shell a little convex, narrow, white with red lines, outwardly spotted with black, with elevated, convex, unequal striæ; the perforation is oblong, with a chestnut margin.

233. *Patella candicans*: shell white, chestnut-coloured towards the margin, with twenty alternately larger ribs; the crown is reddish, with an oblong perforation.

234. *Patella fuccincta*: shell ovate, pointed, white, above smooth, with an elevated belt in the middle, dotted with ferruginous towards the margin, with elevated unequal smooth striæ; margin denticulate.

235. *Patella pusilla*: shell flattish, white, sub-orbicular, with twenty alternately less and shorter elevated striæ; the perforation is round, and surrounded on each side with a reddish circle.

236. *Patella flavescens*: shell very thin, pointed, finely striate, yellowish, with six brown rays; margin denticulate; crown cinereous, with an oblong perforation.

237. *Patella antiquata*: shell a little convex, obsoletely striate; white with red striate rays on the outside. The perforation is oblong and unequal.

238. *Patella galeata*: shell solid, ovate, compressed, within white; crown a little recurved, obtuse, with a linear perforation; margin crenate.

239. *Patella perforata*: shell convex, with decussate lines and black rays. It inhabits the Falkland Islands.

PATELLA'RIA, *f.* in botany. See *PARMELIA*.

PATELLA'RII, *f.* Certain idols among the Romans, placed by Plautus in the lowest class, and called by Horace also "the little gods."

PATEN, or *PATIN*, *f.* [*patina*, Lat.] A plate. *Not in use*:

The floor of heav'n

Is thick inlaid with *patens* of bright gold;
There's not the smallest orb which thou behold'st,
But in his motion like an angel sings. *Shakespeare.*

The cover of the chalice used in churches to hold the consecrated bread, or any little plate or dish for the same purpose; formerly *patel* also, from *patella*, Lat. a little dish.—Crosses, with your thombe on your forehead, an other upon your crowne, with the *patell* of the chalice. *Confut. of N. Shaxton*, 1546.—They have the chalice with wine, and *paten* with hosts, given unto them. *Bp. Bedell*.—Here the priest is to take the *paten* into his hand. *Communion Service*.

PATENO'DE, a town of the island of Ceylon, near the east coast: seventy-eight miles east of Candy. Lat. 7. N. lon. 82. E.

PATENT, *adj.* [*patens*, Lat. open.] Open to the refusal of all: as, letters *patent*.—In Ireland, where the king disposes of bishopricks merely by his letters *patent*, without any congé d'élire, which is still kept up in England; though to no other purpose than to shew the ancient right of the church to elect her own bishops. *Leslie*.—Something appropriated by letters patent.—Madder is esteemed a commodity that will turn to good profit; so that, in king Charles the first's time, it was made a *patent* commodity. *Mortimer's Husbandry*.—Apparent; conspicuous. This sense is perhaps of modern introduction.—In this country, the contract [between the king and nation] is not tacit, implied, and vague: it is explicit, *patent*, and precise: it is summarily expressed in the coronation-oath; it is drawn out at length and in detail in the Great Charter and the corroborating statutes, in the Petition of Right, in the Habeas Corpus Act, in the Bill of Rights, and in the Act of Settlement. *Bishop Horsley's Sermon*. 30 Jan. 1793.

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PAT'ENT, *f.* A writ conferring some exclusive right or privilege. See *LETTERS PATENT*, vol. xii.—If you are so fond over her iniquity, give her *patent* to offend; if it touch not you, it comes near nobody. *Shakespeare*.—We are censured as obstinate, in not complying with a royal *patent*. *Swift*.

So will I grow, so live, so die,
Ere I will yield my virgin *patent* up
Unto his lordship. *Shakespeare's Midf. N. Dream*.

Under the article *LETTERS PATENT*, vol. xii. p. 542, we have explained how fully and clearly the *specification* must be made out, in order to secure the effect of the patent. This specification is lodged at the Rolls-office in Chancery-lane; and is open to the inspection of every body, without exception. Mr. Winsor, in a pamphlet which he wrote, in 1807, upon the subject of his invention or application of gas-lights, has some good remarks upon the inconvenience of this indiscriminate publicity, which we think merit serious consideration.

"Such publicity (says he) is plausibly, but too superficially, supposed necessary: 1st, to prevent monopoly after the patent is expired; and secondly, to prevent others from idly spending their time and money in the same pursuit, in order not to commit infringements unknown to themselves.

"This, I believe, is as much as can possibly be said in favour of *indiscriminate* publicity, by which the whole country is to become acquainted with, and of course to be benefited by, every specification. But I believe the following evils will outweigh the benefits it is intended to spread over the country.

"It is a positive fact, that several foreign agents are expressly and exclusively employed to attend in Chancery-lane, &c. to examine and copy every specification of any patent, together with all the drawings, if any. Such copies are almost immediately published in the next monthly publications all over the continent; but chiefly at Leipzig, Hamburg, Berlin, Frankfort, Paris, &c. It is by these means that the most beneficial patent-inventions are known and imitated abroad, and often much sooner than they can be promulgated in the British realm, because not only the labour, but also the materials, are much cheaper almost in every place on the continent of Europe, than in England.

"Long before I thought it probable that ever I should become a patentee myself, I have often seen, with surprise and regret, the English patent specifications, with drawings and explanations in German and French, inserted in the foreign journals.

"The laws against the emigration of artificers, and the exportation of tools, is very severe; for they inflict heavy penalties and imprisonment. Our manufacturers are very jealous and watchful in this respect, and they prosecute with the utmost rigour every transgression of this kind. But it is the more to be wondered at, that there is no prohibition against the exportation of patent specification. I am perfectly assured, they would not have made a fourth of the progress in English manufactures abroad, if it had not been for the indiscriminate and impolitic publication of these specifications. Patents are granted for many inventions abroad; but the particulars are never published, except their enrolment in the archives of state; and they can only be known, seen, or copied, by respectable inhabitants, after the terms of the patents are expired." Winsor's Defence against Nicholson, p. 53.

PATENTEE, *f.* One who has a patent.—If his tenant and *patentee* dispose of his gift, without his kingly consent, the lands shall revert to the king. *Bacon*.—In the patent granted to lord Dartmouth, the securities obliged the *patentee* to receive his money back upon every demand. *Swift*.

PATEQUEMA'DE, a town of the island of Cuba: twenty miles east of Villa del Principe.

9 N

PATER,

PA'TER, or PADER, a river of Germany, which rises near Paderborn, and runs into the Lippe about one mile east of Neuhaus.

PA'TER-NOSTER, *f.* [Latin.] The Lord's Prayer; a form so called from the two initial words thereof in Latin. —An ignorant plain man, having learned his *pater-noster* and ave-mary, wants to learn his creed. *Pope, cited by Warton.*

He did desire

Short *pater-nosters*, saying as a friar
Each day his beads.

Donne's Poems.

PETER-NOSTER is also used for a chaplet or string of beads; because serving to number the rehearsals of that prayer.

PATER-NOSTERS, in architecture, a sort of ornaments cut in form of beads, either round or oval; used on baguettes, astragals, &c.

PA'TER NOSTERS, rocks in the Atlantic, on the south side of the entrance into the bay of St. Helena. Lat. 32. 20. S.

PA'TER NOSTERS, or PIERRES DE LEC, rocks near the north coast of the island of Jersey.

PATER NOSTERS (Great), a cluster of shoals and islets in the Eastern Indian Sea, about 120 miles in length from north-east to south-west, and 30 in breadth. Lat. 6. 30. to 7. 42. S. lon. 117. 10. to 119. 10. E.

PA'TER NOSTERS (Little), a cluster of 13 rocks in the Eastern Indian Sea, between the islands of Borneo and Celebes, called by the Malays *Pulo Balabutaken*. They are covered with trees, and have navigable channels between them; but the anchorage is uneven.

PATER-NOSTRE, *adj.* in heraldry. A cross pater-nostre is a cross made of beads. This cross is to be so shadowed in drawing, as that the sphericity of the beads may appear, to distinguish them from besants.

PA'TER PATRA'TUS, *f.* among the Romans, the first and principal person of the college of heralds, which formed a kind of board or council, to examine the differences that arose between neighbouring states, and endeavour amicably to accommodate the same.

PATERA, *f.* among antiquaries, a goblet or vessel used by the Romans in their sacrifices; wherein they offered their consecrated meats to the gods, and wherewith they made libations. The word is Latin, formed from *pateo*, I am open; because it has a great aperture, in contradistinction to bottles, &c. which have only narrow necks, or whose aperture is less than the body of the vessel.

On medals the patera is seen in the hands of several deities, and frequently in the hands of princes, to mark the sacerdotal authority joined with the imperial, &c. Hence F. Joubert observes, that, besides the patera, there is frequently an altar upon which the patera seems to be pouring its contents.

The patera was of gold, silver, marble, brass, glass, or earth; and they used to inclose it in urns with the ashes of the deceased, after it had served for the libations of the wine and liquors at the funeral.

The PATERA, or PATRA as it is commonly written, of the Hindoos, is a vessel of capacity, to which, under a mythological aspect, a great deal of mysticism is attached. It is seen in the hand of Parvati, and of some other deities of the avenging character, in the shape of a small basin or cup; and is said to be for the purpose of receiving the blood of her victims, which she is poetically represented to quaff. The patra is, however, still more mystically contemplated in India, as an emblem or type of the world, and is then called argha-patra. The *argha* means a cup, or dish, in which fruits or flowers are offered to the deities; and ought to be shaped like a boat, as some are still seen, but more usually of a round form. A rim round the argha represents the mysterious Yoni, and a boss or convexity in the centre refers to the navel of Vishnu, whence, according to some popular fables, the

creative Brahma sprang on a lotos to perform his great work. We shall here notice no farther on this point than the coincidence of wild umbilical mysteries common to the mythologists of India, Egypt, and Greece. Such mythological coincidences are striking and curious, and we shall proceed to notice some connected with the subject of this article. The name, form, and use, of the patra as a drinking vessel, or for oblation, reminds us at once of the patera of the ancients.

In vol. xiv. of the *Archæologia*, a description and plate are given of a Roman patera and vase dug up when sinking a ditch in Essex in June 1800. They were found near an ancient Roman road between Camulodunum and Camboritum. "The metal vase and patera merit attention, as none similar to the first have been figured or described in the works of the society; nor do I know that any like either have been presented for their inspection. The vase is of that form which Montfaucon has figured in his 2d vol. pl. 19. fig. 10. and calls a *præfericulum*, used by the Romans at their sacrifices, for pouring wine into the patera. Another more nearly resembling that here presented is given in his 3d vol. pl. 24. fig. 9. and called by Beger an *epichrysis*, but not allowed to be such by Montfaucon. The metal patera which belongs to the above, differs from the earthen patera, in general, by being bossed in the centre, a circumstance not easily to be accounted for, unless it was for the firmer fixing the *præfericulum* upon, when placed with the body at the time of interment." With the above Roman antiquities were found several little cups of Samian ware. "The uses of these elegant little cups have not," the antiquary continues, "that I know of, been ascertained by any author. The real purposes to which they were applied must remain at present in obscurity."

The learned author of this communication, Thomas Walford, esq. F. A. S. earnestly invites an explanation of these several Roman antiquities. It is, perhaps, no explanation to state that the Hindoos, in their sacrifices and ceremonies, have immemorially used, and still use, articles exactly similar to those exhibited, with the above communication, in vol. xiv. of the *Archæologia*, Plate IV. V. But it is curious to see how nearly they agree in form. A comparison of the article in the plates just adverted to, with those in plates 83, 86, and 105, of the Hindoo Pantheon, will strikingly evince this. The "sacritical vase," in the latter plate, has the same form, though more elaborately ornamented, as the above described *præfericulum*; and the others exhibit metallic circular pateræ, and the central embossment, which, though "not easily accounted for," is found among Hindoo mystics to have very profound allusions. The Roman patera has also the mysterious rim, or Yoni, respecting which the reader may consult the work last referred to. Dr. Clarke, in his recently-published *Travels*, notices that the pateras used by priestesses in the rites of Ceres, had this pyramidal node or cone in the centre. A priestess is represented holding one of these, on a bas-relief, in the vestibule of the Cambridge University Library. Similar articles are still used in the rites of the Hindoo Ceres; as are also the "little cups" described and exhibited in the *Archæol.* as above referred to, and in many of the Hindoo Pantheon. In India they are used for holding clarified butter, a common ingredient in the frequent oblations to fire; and unguents, and holy water, in the Sradha or funeral obsequies, and in other rites and ceremonies. Adverting for a moment to the place near which the Roman patera was found, we may remark, without laying any stress on it, that Camulodunum might, by a determined etymologist, be derived from the Sanscrit word Kamal or goddess Kamala. And long after this remark was written, we find such a derivation adopted in the 11th vol. of the *Asiatic Researches*, art. 2. ch. 4.

PATERA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia. This town, anciently called *Patara*, was a city of Lycia, and

and famous for a temple of Apollo, said to have been equal to that of Delphos for its oracle, magnificence, and riches; and that god is said to have divided his preference between them, being six summer months at Delphos, and the six winter months at Patara. Ptolemy Philadelphus directed it to be called *Arfinoe*, but it recovered its former name, and is celebrated for the martyrdom of St. Leo and St. Gregory. It was once the see of a bishop, but is now a mean place.

St. Paul, in his passage from Philippi to Jerusalem, came to Miletus, hence to Coos, then to Rhodes, and from Rhodes to *Patara*; where having found a ship that was bound for Phœnicia, he went on-board and arrived at Jerusalem, to be at the feast of Pentecost. *Acts* xxi. 1.

PATERCULUS (Caius Velleius), an ancient Roman historian, who flourished in the reign of Tiberius Cæsar, was born in the year of Rome 735. His ancestors were illustrious for their merit and their offices. His grandfather espoused the party of Tiberius Nero, the emperor's father; but, being old and infirm, and not able to accompany Nero when he retired from Naples, he ran himself through with his sword. His father was a soldier of rank, and so was Paterculus himself. He was a military tribune when Caius Cæsar, a grandson of Augustus, had an interview with the king of the Parthians, in an island of the river Euphrates, in the year 753 of Rome. He commanded the cavalry in Germany under Tiberius; and accompanied that prince for nine years successively in all his expeditions. He received honourable rewards from him; after having been quæstor, he was preferred to the higher dignity of the prætorship, A. D. 30. The praises he bestows upon Sejanus give probability to the conjecture, that he was looked upon as a friend of this favourite, and consequently was involved in his ruin. His death is placed by Mr. Dodwell in the year of Rome 784, when he was in his 50th year.

He wrote an Abridgement of the Roman History in two books, which is very curious. His purpose was only to deduce things from the foundation of Rome to the time wherein he lived; but he began his work with things previous to that memorable era: for, though the beginning of his first book is wanting, we yet find, in what remains of it, an account of many cities more ancient than Rome. He promised a larger history; and no doubt would have executed it well; for, during his military expeditions, he had seen, as he tells us, the provinces of Thrace, Macedonia, Achaia, Asia Minor, and other more easterly regions, especially upon the shores of the Euxine Sea, which had furnished his mind with much entertaining and useful knowledge. In the Abridgement which we have, many particulars are related that are no-where else to be found: and this makes it the more valuable. The style of Paterculus, though miserably disguised through the carelessness of transcribers, and impossible to be restored to purity for want of manuscripts, is yet manifestly worthy of his age, which was the time of pure Latinity. The greatest excellence of this historian lies in his manner of commending and blaming those he speaks of; which he does in the finest terms and most delicate expressions. He is, however, condemned, and indeed with the greatest reason, for his partiality to the house of Augustus; and for making the most extravagant eulogies, not only upon Tiberius, but even upon his favourite *Sejanus*; whom, though a vile and cruel monster, Paterculus celebrates as one of the most excellent persons the Roman commonwealth had produced. Lipsius, though he praises him in other respects, yet censures him most severely for his insincerity and partiality. "Velleius Paterculus (says he) raises my indignation: he represents Sejanus as endowed with all good qualities. The impudence of this historian! But we know that he was born, and died, to the destruction of mankind. After many commendations, he concludes, that Livia was a woman more resembling the gods than men: and, as to Tiberius, he thinks it a

crime to speak otherwise of him than as of an immortal Jove. What sincere and honest mind can bear this? On the other hand, how artfully does he every-where conceal the great qualities of Cæsar Germanicus! how obliquely does he ruin the reputation of Agrippa and others, whom Tiberius was thought to hate! In short, he is nothing but a court-prostitute. You will say, perhaps, it was unsafe to speak the truth at those times: I grant it; but, if he could not write the truth, he ought not to have written lies: none are called to account for silence." La Mothe le Vayer has made a very just remark upon this occasion: "The same fault (says he) may be observed in many others, who have written the history of their own times, with a design to be published while they lived."

It is strange, that a work so elegant and worthy to be preserved, and of which, by reason of its shortness, copies might be so easily taken, should have been so near being lost. One manuscript only has had the luck to be found, as well of this author among the Latins as of Hesychius among the Greeks: in which, says a great critic of our own nation, "the faults of the scribes are found so numerous, and the defects so beyond all redress, that notwithstanding the pains of the learned and most acute critics for two whole centuries, these books still are, and are likely to continue, a mere heap of errors." No ancient author but Priscian makes mention of Paterculus: the moderns have done him infinitely more justice, and have illustrated him with notes and commentaries. He was first published, from the manuscript of Morbac, by Rhennanus, at Basil in 1520; afterwards by Lipsius at Leyden in 1581; then by Gerard Vossius in 1639; next by Boeclerus at Strasburg in 1642. Of the numerous later editions, those of Burmann, Lugd. Bat. 1719, 1744, and of Ruhnken, 1779, are most esteemed.

PATERE'RO. See **PADERERO**.

PATER'NA, a town of Spain, in New Castile: three miles east of Alcaraz.

PATER'NAL, *adj.* [*paternus*, from *pater*, Lat.] Fatherly; having the relation of a father; pertaining to a father.—Grace signifies the *paternal* favour of God to his elect children. *Hammond*.

Here I disclaim all my *paternal* care,
Propinquity and property of blood,
And hold thee stranger to my heart and me. *Shakespeare*.
They spend their days in joy unblam'd; and dwell
Long time in peace, by families and tribes,
Under *paternal* rule. *Milton's P. L.*

Hereditary; received in succession from one's father.—He held his *paternal* estate from the bounty of the conqueror. *Dryden*.

Men plough with oxen of their own
Their small *paternal* field of corn. *Dryden*.

PATER'NITY, *f.* Fathership; the relation of a father.—The world, while it had scarcity of people, underwent no other dominion than *paternity* and eldership. *Raleigh*.—A young heir, kept short by his father, might be known by his countenance; in this case, the *paternity* and filiation leave very sensible impressions. *Arbuthnot*.

PATER'NO, a town of Sicily, in the Valley of Demona, built on the ruins of Hybla, so celebrated for its honey: fifteen miles west of Catania.

PATER'NO, a town of Naples, in Principato Ultra: three miles north of Monté Marano.

PATERSON (Samuel), an eminent bibliographer, well known among literary men for his rare talents in the arduous task of compiling scientific and classical catalogues of public and private libraries of books and manuscripts in the ancient and modern languages. His Catalogues, forming many volumes, are now become scarce, and of themselves form valuable articles in good libraries. Mr. Paterson also wrote many little works, having for their object public utility, sound policy, and moral admonition;

tion; but to which he did not affix his name. Among others, 1. *A Journey through Part of the Netherlands*, in 1766, by Coriat Junior, 3 vols. 12mo. 1769. 2. *Joinerina*, or the Book of Scraps, 2 vols. 8vo. He was born in London, March 17, 1728; and died Oct. 29, 1802. *Jones's Biog. Diet.*

PATERSONIA, *f.* [so named by Mr. R. Brown in honour of his friend colonel William Paterson, a gentleman to whose researches at the Cape of Good Hope many years ago, and more recently in Norfolk Island, as well as New South Wales, of which last settlement he has long been lieutenant-governor, botany is much indebted.] In botany, a genus of the class monadelphia, order triandria, natural order enfatæ, *Linn.* (irides, *Juss.*) Generic characters—Calyx: sheath many-flowered, of two compressed keeled rigid leaves, embracing each other, with numerous inner membranous scales, separating the flowers. Corolla: of one petal, salver-shaped, regular; tube very slender, about as long as the sheath; limb in six deep segments, three of them very large, ovate, horizontal, the three alternate ones very small, erect. Stamina: filaments three, united into a tube nearly all the way up, longer than the shorter segments of the corolla; anthers erect, oblong. Pistillum: germen within the sheath, below the corolla, angular; style capillary, about as long as the stamens, generally swelling towards the top, contracted at the apex; stigmas three, dilated, somewhat hooded, undivided. Pericarpium: capsule membranous, prismatic, with three blunt angles, three cells, and three valves. Seeds numerous, roundish.—*Essential Character.* Sheath of two leaves; three inner segments of the corolla equal, minute, erect; filaments distinct at the top; stigmas dilated, undivided.

There can scarcely be a doubt that this is the same genus which Labillardiere calls *Genofiris*, however incorrectly he may have described it. The species known are seven, all perennial herbaceous fibrous rooted plants, with either none, or a short, mostly simple, stem. Leaves sword-shaped, narrow and compact. Flower-stalks either radical or terminal, simple, naked; flowers coming out in succession, handsome, but very short-lived, blue, without spots; anthers and stigmas yellow. Seeds usually inserted into the inner angle of the cell: sometimes into a central column. The species, as far as known, are all natives of New Holland, mostly without the tropic, growing in open, barren, stony or sandy places, near the shore, rarely in moist meadows.

1. *Paterfonia sericea*, or silky paterfonia: stigmas deflexed; sheath, and upper part of the stalk, silky; leaves straight, finely fringed, doubly striated, woolly at the base of their keel. Native of the country about Port Jackson, as well as of the tropical part of New Holland. It was one of the first plants of which specimens were sent to England by the settlers. Messrs. Lee and Kennedy raised it from seed, and it flowered with them in 1807, being kept in the greenhouse. The leaves are several, erect, narrow, rigid, and elastic, about a foot high, in two ranks. Flowers violet, not-unlike *Tradescantia virginica* at the first glance, but rather larger, without scent.

2. *Paterfonia lanata*, or woolly paterfonia: stalk round, striated, longitudinally woolly, as well as the sheath; leaves slightly convex, simply striated; woolly at the base. Observed by Mr. Brown in the south part of New Holland.

3. *Paterfonia longifolia*, or long-leaved paterfonia: stigmas deflexed; sheath and stalk silky; leaves linear, narrow, many times longer than the stalk; fringed below the middle with spreading or inflexed hairs. From Port Jackson.

4. *Paterfonia media*, or intermediate paterfonia: stigmas deflexed; inner segments of the corolla but one-fourth as long as the tube of the stamens; sheath silky; flower-stalk smooth, longer than the stem; keel of the leaves woolly at the base. From Port Jackson.

5. *Paterfonia glabrata*, or smooth paterfonia: stigmas

deflexed; inner segments of the corolla half as long as the tube of the stamens; flower-stalk longer than the stem, very smooth and shining, like the sheath; keel of the leaves woolly at the base. From the same country.

6. *Paterfonia glauca*, or glaucous paterfonia: stigma erect; style slightly thickened at the top; sheath about three-flowered, striated, smooth; leaves linear, rather convex, naked at the edges and base, twice as long as the slender, thread-shaped, smooth, stalk. Gathered by Labillardiere in Van Diemen's Land; by Mr. Brown near Port Jackson. Corolla blue, rather smaller than in *P. sericea*.

7. *Paterfonia occidentalis*, or west-coast paterfonia: stigma erect; style of equal thickness throughout. Sheath about five-flowered, even; stalk very smooth, as long as the sword-shaped leaves, which are naked at the edges and base. Native of the south-west coast of New Holland, where it was gathered by Mr. Brown. *Prod. Nov. Hol.* vol. i. p. 303.

PAT'GONG, a town of Hindoostan, in Bengal three miles west of Beyhar.

PATH, *f.* [Saxon; from *passus*, *passus*, Lat. a step, or pace, because a path is made by frequent steps of the foot; or from *passage*, Fr. "*Il y a un passage à travers les prairies*, There is a path through the meadows." MS Gleanings in Etymology.] Way; road; track. In conversation it is used of a narrow way to be passed on foot; but in solemn language means any passage.—For darkness, where is the place thereof? that thou shouldst know the paths to the house thereof. *Job*, xxxviii. 20.—There is but one road by which to climb up, and they have a very severe law against any that enters the town by another path, lest any new one should be worn on the mountain. *Addison on Italy*.

On the glad earth the golden age renew,
And thy great father's path to heaven pursue. *Dryden*.

To PATH, *v. a.* To push forward; to cause to go; to make way for.—So from the neighbouring hills her passage Wey doth path. *Drayton's Polyolb.*

Where will they find a cavern dark enough
To mask thy monstrous visage? Seek none, conspiracy;
Hide in it smiles and affability:
For, if thou path thy native semblance on,
Not Erebus itself were dim enough
To hide thee from prevention *Shakespeare's Jul. Caf.*

PA' TH-FLY, *f.* A fly found in foot-paths, of a greyish colour; and supposed to live by sucking the ground.

PATH-HEAD, a considerable manufacturing town in the parish of Dysart, and county of Fife, Scotland, is situated on the acclivity of a hill, looking towards the Frith of Forth, at a short distance to the north-eastward of the ancient burgh of Kirkcaldy. It is divided into two parts, one called Dunnikier, and the other Sinclair-town, from the estates on which they happen to be respectively placed. Formerly Path-head was noted for the number of its nail-manufactories; but these have now considerably declined, and the inhabitants are chiefly engaged in different branches of weaving. There is no regular market held in this town; but it has the privilege of a large annual fair for woollen and linen cloths. According to the parliamentary returns of 1811, it contained 237 houses, and 1692 inhabitants.

On a free-stone rock, which projects into the Frith immediately below Path-head, stand the venerable ruins of Riven's or Raven's Craig castle, which was granted, with the neighbouring lands, by James III. of Scotland, to William St. Clair, or Sinclair, earl of Orkney, on his resignation of that title. During the time of the commonwealth it was garrisoned by a party of Cromwell's troops, but is now uninhabitable. *Beauties of Scotland*, vol. iv. *Sinclair's Statistical Account*, vol. xviii.

PA' TH-WAY, *f.* A road; in common acceptance; a narrow

a narrow way to be passed on foot.—In the way of righteousness is life, and in the *path-way* thereof there is no death. *Prov.* xii. 28.

Alas, that Love, whose view is muffled still,
Should without eyes see *path-ways* to his ill! *Shakesp.*

PATHE'MA, *f.* [Greek.] Pathos; warmth; affection of mind.

PATHET'IC, or PATHETICAL, *adj.* [*παθος*, Gr. passion.] Affecting the passions; passionate; moving.—How *pathetic* is that expostulation of Job, when, for the trial of his patience, he was made to look upon himself in this deplorable condition! *Speclator.*

While thus *pathetic* to the prince he spoke,
From the brave youth the streaming passion broke. *Pope.*

PATHET'IC, *f.* Pathos.—No man can think that the author of the Rape of the Lock and Eloisa, wanted imagination, sensibility, or *pathetic*. *Warton's Pope.*

PATHET'ICALLY, *adv.* In such a manner as may strike the passions.—These reasons, so *pathetically* urged, and so admirably raised by the prosopopoeia of Nature speaking to her children with so much authority, deserve the pains I have taken. *Dryden.*

PATHET'ICALNESS, *f.* Quality of being pathetic; quality of moving the passions.—These words close the discourse with wonderful grace; surprise the hearers with an agreeable civility; and impress upon them a strong opinion of the speaker's sincerity, charity, and benevolence to mankind. Had they been placed any-where else,

the *patheticalness*, grace, and dignity, of the sentence, had been much abated. *Blackwall's Sacr. Class.*

PATH'IC, *f.* [from *παθειν*, Gr. to suffer.] One who suffers himself to be abused contrary to nature.

PA'THLESS, *adj.* Untrodden; not marked with paths.—Ask thou the citizens of *pathless* woods. *Sandys.*

In fortune's empire blindly thus we go,
And wander after *pathless* destiny,

Whose dark resorts since prudence cannot know,
In vain it would provide. *Dryden.*

Through mists obscure she wings her tedious way,
Now wanders dazzled with too bright a day;
And from the summit of a *pathless* coast
Sees infinite, and in that sight is lost. *Prior.*

PATHOGNOMON'IC, or PATHOGNOMICAL, *adj.* [from the Gr. *παθος*, suffering, and *γνωσμος*, to know.] Denoting such signs of a disease as are inseparable, designing the essence or real nature of the disease: not symptomatic.—Fear and sadness are the *pathognomical* signs of all kinds of melancholy. *Ferrand on Love Mel.* 1645.—He has the true *pathognomonic* sign of love, jealousy; for no body will suffer his mistresses to be treated at that rate. *Arbutnot.*

PATHOGNOMON'IC, *f.* A proper distinguishing and inseparable sign of a disease.

PATHOLOG'ICAL, *adj.* [from *pathology*.] Relating to the tokens or discoverable effects of a distemper.

PATHOL'OGIST, *f.* [from *pathology*.] One who treats of the diseases of the human body.

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In p. 571. we expressed an opinion, that Napoleon's confinement would not end but with his life. That opinion, or prophecy, was written at the moment of its accomplishment, though impossible to be known to us. Our N^o 1265 was published on the 12th of May, 1821; and that extraordinary man had expired on the 5th of the same month. He was taken ill on the 17th of March, and kept to his apartments to the day of his death. During the early part of his indisposition, from the 17th to the 31st of March, he was attended by his own medical assistant, professor Antommarchi, alone. During the latter period, from the 1st of April to the 5th of May, he received the daily visits of Dr. Arnott, surgeon of his majesty's 20th regiment, generally in conjunction with professor Antommarchi. On Tuesday, the 1st of May, was the first time Napoleon's case was considered to be dangerous. Wednesday, the 2d, he got worse. Thursday his life was despaired of. Friday he was somewhat better, having taken a little refreshment. Saturday, the 5th, at five o'clock in the morning, no hopes were entertained of his recovery; and precisely at ten minutes past six o'clock in the evening, he terminated his mortal life. His age was 52; he was born in 1769, the same year that gave birth to his great and successful adversary the duke of Wellington.

As it was necessary that the chief officers of his majesty on the island should be qualified to testify officially the death of this illustrious exile; accordingly, the next morning, the 6th, at about seven o'clock, sir Hudson Lowe, the governor, proceeded to the apartment where the body lay, accompanied by rear admiral Lambert, naval commander in chief on the station; the marquis de Montchenu, commissioner of the king of France, charged with the same duty also on the part of the emperor of Austria; brigadier-general Coffin, second in command of the troops; Thomas H. Brooke, and Thomas Greentree, esqrs. members of council in the government of the island; and captains Brown, Hendry, and Marryat, of the royal navy. After viewing the person of Napoleon Bonaparte, which lay with the face uncovered, they retired. An opportunity was afterwards afforded, with the concurrence of the persons who had composed the family of Napoleon, to as many officers as were desirous, naval and military, to the East-India Company's officers and civil servants, and to various other individuals resident there, to enter the room in which the body lay, and to view it.

As it was the expressed wish of Napoleon that his body should be opened, and as it was also most desirable to the authorities there that the true seat of his disease should be ascertained, it took place at two o'clock, in the presence of the following medical gentlemen: Dr. Shortt, principal medical officer; Dr. Mitchell, surgeon of the Vigo; Dr. Arnott; Dr. Burton, surgeon in the 66th regiment; and Matthew Livingstone, esq. surgeon in the East-India Company's service. Professor Antommarchi operated in the dissection. General Bertrand and count Montholon were present. When the chest was opened, the liver was found to be perfectly sound, with not a mark of disease about it. The French surgeon even cut it through with his dissecting-knife; and all the surgeons who were present agreed that no liver-complaint had ever

existed. But, when they proceeded to the examination of the stomach, all the surgeons instantly called out, "There is the seat of the disease!" It was a cancer of the stomach; the same disorder, it is said, of which his father died: there was a hole in one part of it large enough to admit the point of a man's finger. The medical men unanimously agreed that it could not have been produced by the climate or by depression of mind; and that "he must have died," as madame Bertrand exclaimed when the appearance of the disorder was described to her, "had he been in the midst of his glory at Austerlitz!"

Napoleon was perfectly aware of the nature of his complaint, and frequently described it to those about him, but was never able to convince his surgeons that he had a just notion of it. Mr. O'Meara and Mr. Stokoe always insisted that Napoleon had a liver-complaint, brought on by the climate, and the mode of living he was partly forced to. His friends and adherents always re-echoed these complaints; and Mr. O'Meara has since published some angry remarks upon the report of the government-surgeons. The idea of an hereditary cancer of the stomach, perhaps, will not gain much credit with medical men; but, as the complaint was really cancerous, on the stomach, not hepatic, not produced by the climate, it will be pleasing to Englishmen, and to Napoleon's friends in every country, to be conscious that the treatment of that extraordinary person did not contribute to shorten his life.

With regard to the body's lying in state, and the general admission of the inhabitants of the island to view it, sir Hudson Lowe left the matter entirely to the option of Bertrand and Montholon, who both wished that it should be the case. Accordingly, in the afternoon, soon after the examination of the body by the surgeons, he was dressed in his green uniform with red facings and all his stars and orders. This gave rise to a report, that he had been dressed up before his death in full uniform, and had died so, like Frederic the Great of Prussia. He was placed on a small brass tent-bedstead, which he had with him in most of his campaigns. Under him was his cloak of blue cloth, embroidered with silver, which he wore at the battle of Marengo, which served afterwards for the pall of his funeral. The room where the corpse lay was small, and covered with black cloth; at the head of the corpse was the altar. The priest, marshal Bertrand, count Montholon, and all the servants, were in attendance. His person seemed small, and rather diminutive (exact height five feet seven inches); but the fineness of the countenance exceeded expectation: the face appeared to be large, compared with the body; the features pleasing and extremely regular, still retaining a half-formed smile; and must have been truly imposing, when enlivened by a penetrating pair of eyes. His skin was perfectly fallow, which seemed to be its natural colour.

The body of Napoleon was not embalmed. His heart which Bertrand and Montholon earnestly desired to take with them to Europe, was restored to the coffin, but it remains in a silver cup, filled with spirits: and the stomach, which his surgeon was anxious to preserve, was also restored, and is in another silver cup. At length the whole remains were consigned to three coffins; one of lead, one of plain mahogany, and an outer one of oak,

with

with plain top and sides, black ebony round the edges, and silver-headed screws raised above the lid. The funeral took place on Wednesday the 9th of May, about noon. The heavy coffins containing the body were placed on a car drawn by four of Napoleon's own horses, and attended by 24 grenadiers, 12 on each side, to carry the body down a steep hill where the car could not go. Count Montholon and General Bertrand were the pall-bearers, madame Bertrand with her family following. Next came lady Lowe and her daughters in deep mourning; then the junior officers of the navy; the staff of the army; last, sir Hudson Lowe and the admiral brought up the rear. The 66th and 20th regiments, the artillery, volunteers, and marines, in all full 3000 men, were drawn up, two deep, on the road-side, out of Longwood gates; each man resting the point of his musket on his foot, with the left hand on its butt, and the left cheek leaning on his hand in a mournful position; the band stationed at the head of each corps playing a dead march. The place of interment was at the head of Rupert's Valley, about half way between James-town and Longwood, under the shade of a large willow-tree, near a small spring-well. For some years past he had water carried to him daily from this well, in two silver tankards which he brought from Moscow. Some years since, when visiting this well, in company with madame Bertrand, he said, if the British government buried him on St. Helena, he wished this to be the spot. It is certainly a very retired pretty situation, surrounded by high hills in the form of an amphitheatre, the public road to Longwood leading along the top of the ridge. After letting the coffin into the grave, three volleys were fired, (see p. 719.) and the flag-ship also fired 25 minute-guns. A catholic priest had previously consecrated the place according to the rites of the Romish church. The grave was ten feet long, ten deep, and five wide; the bottom happened to be solid rock, in which a space was cut to receive the coffin; the sides and ends of the grave were each walled in with one large Portland flag, and three large flags were put immediately over the coffin, and fastened down with iron bars and lead, besides Roman cement. The top of the grave is elevated about eight inches above the surface of the ground, and covered over with three rough slates.

Napoleon Bonaparte, once the terror and the scourge of Europe, is now no more. He was the inveterate enemy of this country, it is true; but he paid the full forfeit; and, if he did us much injury by his hostility, it was also the means of calling forth so many energies, and producing such a display of patriotism on the part of the country, that it may be fairly doubted, whether he served or injured us most by his enmity. But he is dead; and the hatred which he excited when alive is buried in the grave which encloses his remains. Whatever shall be said of him henceforth will not be marked by vindictive feelings; an exception may occur here and there, but the generous and high-minded will mark it with indignation. The towering height to which he ascended; the self-possession which he displayed during his meteor-

like ascent; the humble level from which he darted; and the presence of mind, or rather perfect ease, which he displayed, when he alighted on that narrow and giddy summit, evidently proved that his genius was of the eagle kind. He rose by the natural strength of his wings; and, when he soared at a vast distance above the ordinary region of humanity—in that keen air, where mortals can scarcely breathe—it was plain that he was in a congenial element. But, if he had powers more than mortal, he wanted the amiable qualities of human nature—he neither loved nor pitied—he took no part in their feelings; and he never stopped a moment to consider, when he was rushing upon one of those enterprises which astonished the world by their grandeur, and by the rapidity with which they were executed, what mischief he might occasion in consequence. He was apparently unmoved by human sufferings, and he probably participated as little in their joys. This insensibility was one of the causes of his wonderful success; and it was, no doubt, one of the reasons of his rapid descent. He had nothing to arrest him in his ascent. Pleasure called to him in vain to stop and refresh himself in one of her bowers, whilst he was bounding up the steep and rugged hill of ambition. The Charities implored him to no purpose to check his furious pace; and, when we consider the natural strength of his genius, without any thing to impede it in its course, we are not astonished at the height to which he mounted. As to his military talents, they are so deeply engraved in the brazen tablet of fame, that it would show less stupidity, than the envy of a base spirit, to deny them. But it was in his capacity of ruler, that the hardness of his character chiefly displayed itself. There his solitary nature was most conspicuous. From his elevated throne he looked down only upon crouching slaves. He conferred upon them titles and honours and dignities; but they were badges of servitude, or the rewards of having ministered to his glory; they conferred no real dignity of mind; they imparted no conscious pride; and they served only by their decorations and wealth to swell the pomp of his court. The principle of his government was selfishness; and we are compelled to say, whilst we are disposed to do ample justice to his extraordinary genius, that he did not make use of it in such a manner as ought to give him a title to the respect and gratitude of mankind.

Never has there been a more striking instance of the insubstantiality and worthlessness of popular affection than the effect (or rather no effect) produced at Paris by the account of Bonaparte's death. The people who, but a few years back, either trembled before him in fear or hailed his appearance with shouts of enthusiasm, now listened to the narrative of his death with an absence of emotion nearly amounting to complete apathy; they took scarcely the trouble of expressing their surprise on the occasion; and the principal and almost only remark on the circumstance was, that "he should not have gone to die at St. Helena, but ought to have died, as he lived, an emperor, at Waterloo."

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